

# Cek Plagiasi Buku Linguistics: An Overview

*by Dwi Astuti Wahyu Nurhayati*

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## LINGUISTICS:

### An Overview of The Study of Language

Linguistics and its branches play important role for language users to understand and examine the study of language. As the basis knowledge of language, it is very essential for them to learn and acquire more and deeper especially in comprehending the theoretical and also the practice. It is why the author tries to introduce this book as a handbook for the beginner to initiate and establish all the linguistics material related English language related to the history English development, morphology, syntax, discourse analysis, pragmatics, semantics, structure of English text, and etc. Decisively, it is counted on that it could enhance the language users' familiarity, awareness, expertise, insight and know-how to determine linguistics.



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DWI ASTUTI WAHYU NURHAYATI

LINGUISTICS: An Overview of The Study of Language



Pragmatic Analysis Semantics Phonology  
Syntax

# LINGUISTICS:

## An Overview of The Study of Language

Development

History

English

DWI ASTUTI WAHYU NURHAYATI

# **LINGUISTICS:**

## **An Overview of the Study of Language**

PENULIS:

DWI ASTUTI WAHYU NURHAYATI



Haura Utama

## PREFACE

Alhamdulillahirobbil'alamin.. we say thanks to Allah SWT, because of the abundance of His mercy and grace so that we can complete the book "Linguistics ". Don't forget to give Sholawat and Salam to the great prophet Muhammad SAW, whom we look forward to for intercession on the last day.

We also express our gratitude to those who have helped, guided, and supported the compilation of the book "Linguistics" so that it can provide a bit of understanding about the material we discuss in it. This "Linguistics" book is prepared to make it easier for teacher/lecturer. This book was design with key answer to teach Linguistics. This book is packed with various forms of exercises with key answer in it which are expected to be interesting and not boring.

This book is equipped with table, and link video making it easy to understand. This book is just written by someone who is not free from mistakes. Therefore, we really need criticism from readers to improve it. Thank you.

The Writer

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## SYNOPSIS

Linguistics and its branches play important role for language users to understand and examine the study of language. As the basis knowledge of language, it is very essential for them to learn and acquire more and deeper especially in comprehending the theoretical and also the practice. It is why the author tries to introduce this book as a handbook for the beginner to initiate and establish all the linguistics material related English language related to the history English development, morphology, syntax, discourse analysis, pragmatics, semantics, structure of English text, and etc. Decisively, it is counted on that it could enhance the language users 'familiarity, awareness, expertise, insight and know-how to determine linguistics.

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# CHAPTER I

## WHAT IS LINGUISTIC?



### WHAT IS LINGUISTIC ?

#### Introduction

Language is a means of communication, can be in written form or the spoken one. However, language may occur in form of gesture, even just in a wink of an eye. How come? Because it turns out that language is not only a means of communication but also a method used by humans to communicate with each other.

#### KEY WORDS

1. Language
2. Component of language
3. Linguistic

## 1. LANGUAGE

Language is a means of communication, can be in written form or the spoken one. However, language may occur in form of gesture, even just in a wink of an eye. How come? Because it turns out that language is not only a means of communication, but also a method used by humans to communicate each other.

Language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols shared by members of community for communications. Why arbitrary? Because sometimes the signs are not always representative, the words used to represent certain things do not symbolize the things being represented. Nobody can answer why a piece of furniture consisting of a flat, horizontal surface on legs used to put something is called a 'table.' Nobody knows why it is called 'table' and not 'blackboard,' for instance. So, it is all about a consensus among people lived in a certain area. They name something new based on the agreement they made, not merely based on the facts about the things, and that is the reason why it is called arbitrary.

Language is a linguistic code, which its speakers know and use, and which manifests itself in its speakers' linguistic knowledge and in the actual utterances that its speakers make in linguistic communication. Consequently, language can be regarded as existing in essentially two modes. On the one hand it can be looked upon as a body of objective facts (strings of sounds or letters) produced and perceived by its users in linguistic communication. On the other hand,

it can be regarded as the language users' knowledge which makes linguistic communication possible, an internal property of the human mind. One of the greatest figures in modern linguistics, Noam Chomsky, has called these two modes of language Externalized Language (E-Language) and Internalized Language (I-Language), respectively.

The dominant kind of language study in the first half of the 20th century, viz. Structuralize Linguistics (see Unit 3), concentrated on E-language. It aimed at collecting samples of E-language, i.e. samples of the actual products of linguistic communication, as objects independent of the mind, and then describing the regularities (patterns, structures) found in those samples. Since then, however, the interest and emphasis of language study has shifted to I language, i.e. to the knowledge that native speakers of a language possess and use when they communicate linguistically. Generative Linguistics (see Unit 3) aims at modelling the I-language of the native speaker, i.e. his/her linguistic knowledge or internal grammar.

### 1. Component of language

A natural language (whether we look upon it as E-language or I-language) has several components. The central ones are phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics.

- **Phonology** includes the phonemes (basic sounds) and the discrete suprasegmental elements (stress patterns, tones, intonation) in the language. The phonological component also

contains rules that regulate how phonemes can be combined in morphemes and words. For example, the sequences /kQ/ and /tQk/ are phonologically well-formed in English, but \*/ktQ/ or \*/tkQ/ are phonologically ill-formed.

- **Morphology** includes the morphemes and the rules for combining them to derive and inflect words in a particular language. (For the time being we define morphemes as the smallest meaningful units of a language. We will make this definition more precise in Unit 5.) In English, for instance, the morpheme *-ion* can be added to the verb *elect* (which is a vocabulary item) and the result is the noun *election* (which is a new vocabulary item derived from the former one). In a similar way, the plural morpheme *-s* can be added to the noun *election* to obtain the plural form of the same noun: *elections* (which is not a new vocabulary item but the inflected variant of an already existing one). The morphological rules of English tell us that the sequence *un-friend-li-ness* is a morphologically well-formed word, while *\*friend-li-un-ness* is not.
- **Syntax** is the component of language that contains the rules for putting together words in phrases and phrases in sentences. For example, the English sentence *He went to London.* is syntactically well-formed, whereas *\*To he London went.* is syntactically ill-formed.
- languages also contain a system of meanings: this component is known as semantics. The semantic rules specify which

sentences are semantically normal and which are semantically anomalous. For instance, *this woman is the mother of three girls.* is semantically normal but! *This woman is the father of three oil-wells.* is anomalous

In addition, we can also separate a special component in which all the central components may play a role, viz. a lexicon. This is a list of the vocabulary items of a language and it contains all idiosyncratic information about those vocabulary items (such as the unpredictable aspects of their phonology, morphology, syntactic behaviour, and meaning). Words, once formed and established as vocabulary items, are stored in the lexicon, from where they can be retrieved as wholes and do not have to be put together again from their constituent morphemes every time they are used by a speaker.

Native speakers of a language have linguistic knowledge: they know their language. They possess I-language; they have an internal grammar. They know the elements and the rules in the various components of their language, after all they use those elements and obey those rules all the time and, on the basis of this knowledge, they can tell whether a string of words in their language is grammatical or not. But most speakers are unable to explain to their children or to their foreign friends *why* one string of words is grammatical in their language and another is not. This is because their linguistic knowledge (internal grammar) is intuitive (subconscious), and they cannot express it explicitly (i.e. clearly and definitely).



## 2.LINGUSTICS

Linguistics is the scientific study of human language. It is like a big pie sliced into some small pieces. Or, it can be said that it is more like a big tree with so many branches on which those different branches grow different colors of leaves. Each color of the leaves represents different elements contained by the leaves themselves, but still, they cannot be seen as a part of its own, but they form a greater single-unity called tree.

Linguistic is generally a **descriptive** discipline rather than a **prescriptive** one, which means that linguists do not lay down hard and fast rules about how to use a certain language, but rather concentrate on describing the rules which (especially native) speakers seem to have internalized. Apart from this, there are various different ways of 'doing' linguistics. For example, we can concentrate on language as used at a certain point of time e.g. in 1989; this is called **synchronic** linguistics. Alternatively, we can look at language from a **diachronic** point of view, which involves analyzing the development of a language during a certain period of time e.g. during Middle English, or in the 1950s etc. Linguistics is a science which can either be studied in a **theoretical** or a more **applied** way. For example, someone may be interested in finding out exactly how questions are formed in English (= theoretical). Once this is known the knowledge could be applied e.g. to language teaching, thereby (hopefully) enabling teachers and pupils to learn the language more effectively.

Linguistics in a broader sense: collective term for sciences which study language. Such as:

- General Linguistics/ Linguistics in a narrower sense: study of systemic properties of natural language and studies the structure of language.
- Systemic properties of language: language is a system, i.e., a series of elements related to each other in order to make the system work.
- Main property of a system: a system has structure (pattern of interrelated elements).

The system we describe is not a real object, but a model of reality. It cannot be true or false, only more or less adequate. Linguistics makes use of a descriptivist methodology, i.e., scientific methods of clarifying/ describing properties of language without passing value judgments or normative rules (no notion of "incorrect usage"). Linguistics can be studied under two basic approaches such as Synchronic linguistics (study of a language at a given point of time) and Diachronic linguistics (study of language change).

Linguistics tries to describe how it is put together and how it functions. Various building blocks of different types and sizes are combined to make up a language. Sounds are brought together and sometimes when this happens, they change their form and do interesting things. Words are arranged in a certain order, and sometimes the beginnings and endings of the words are changed to adjust the meaning. Then the meaning itself can be affected by the

arrangement of words and by the knowledge of the speaker about what the hearer will understand. Linguistics is the study of all of this.

There are various branches of linguistics which are given their own name, some of which are described below:

- ✓ Phonetics (study of the physical production and perception of speech sounds)
- ✓ Phonology (study of sound systems)
- ✓ Morphology (study of word structure)
- ✓ Syntax (study of sentence structure)
- ✓ Semantics (study of the meaning of words, phrases and sentences)
- ✓ Pragmatics (study of speech acts and language usage)
- ✓ Sociolinguistics (study of the interrelation between language and society)
- ✓ Discourse Analysis (study of text structure and function of text and conversation)
- ✓ Linguistic Typology (study of diversity in the languages of the world, language universals and the parameters of cross-linguistic analysis of grammatical systems)
- ✓ Psycholinguistics (study of language processing in the brain)
- ✓ Cognitive Linguistics (study of the interrelation between language and thought)
- ✓ Computational Linguistics (study of statistical and logical modelling of natural language from a computational perspective)

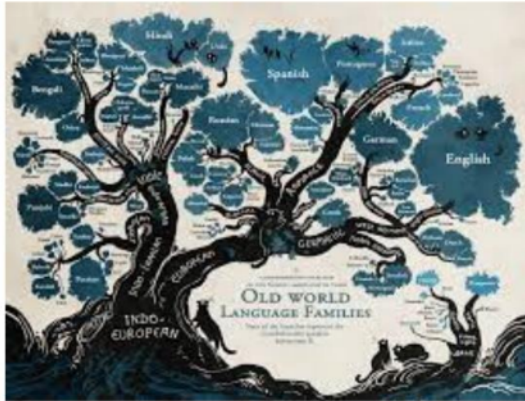
### **ACTIVITY 1!**

*Make explanation of terms in Linguistics below using your own words!*

1. Language
2. Current of Linguistics
3. Phonetic
4. Phoneme
5. Morphology
6. Morpheme
7. Syntax
8. Semantics
9. Pragmatics
10. Discourse Analysis
11. Sociolinguistics
12. Applied linguistics

# CHAPTER II

## HISTORY & DEVELOPMENT



### DO YOU KNOW ABOUT HISTORY AND DEVELOPMENT ABOUT LINGUISTIC ?

Developmental linguistics is the study of the development of linguistic ability in an individual, particularly the acquisition of language in childhood. It involves research into the different stages in language acquisition, language retention, and language loss in both first and second languages, in addition to the area of bilingualism. Before infants can speak, the neural circuits in their brains are constantly being influenced by exposure to language.

#### CONTENT:

1. *The current state of the English language*
2. *Genetic Clasification*
3. *Development English*
4. *Typological English*
5. *Language Change*

### 1.INTRODUCTION

5

In the lectures published in *A Course in General Linguistics*, Saussure made the distinction between synchronic and diachronic studies of language. Synchronic studies involve investigating a language in its present form as it is currently spoken and written. A synchronic study of English would focus on Contemporary English: the current version of English spoken around the world. Diachronic studies, in contrast, examine the historical development of a language, taking into consideration changes it has undergone over time. The changes that English experienced have led to the positing of five distinct forms of English: Old English, Middle English, Early Modern English, Modern English, and Contemporary English. Various historical and linguistic events led to changes in English over time. For instance, the Norman Conquest of England in 1066 ushered in the French influence on the English language, an influence that was so significant, particularly in the area of vocabulary, that linguists saw the need to distinguish Old English from Middle English.

Even though it is useful to distinguish between synchronic and diachronic studies of language, the distinction is somewhat misleading, since languages are always changing, and how English is spoken today, for instance, will differ from how it is spoken next year. Of course, the difference will be small – much smaller than the difference between Old English and Modern English. But it is important to realize that languages are dynamic, not static, entities.

They are always changing – in response to external forces (e.g. the desire in many English-speaking cultures for gender-neutral vocabulary), or as a consequence of internal changes within the language (e.g. irregular verbs becoming regular, such as strived replacing strove in the past tense).

Because of external and internal influences, English has changed quite significantly from the Old English period to the present. But perhaps one of the more striking changes concerns the rise of English as an international language. During the Old English period, English was a language spoken exclusively in England. But over time, it has become a language spoken across the globe, a change in the status of English that serves as the focus of discussion in the next section.

### 1. Component of language

According to the Ethnologue: Languages of the World, English is one of approximately 6,900 living languages in the world (Gordon 2005: 16; see also [www.ethnologue.com](http://www.ethnologue.com)). Many of these languages have relatively few speakers; a small subset of them are widely spoken. Table 2.1 lists some of the most commonly spoken languages, and the number of individuals who speak them as a first or second language. Figures in this table are given in millions and are based on information in Gordon (2005), the World Almanac, and Wikipedia’s “List of Languages by Number of Native Speakers”

([en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List\\_of\\_languages\\_by\\_number\\_of\\_native\\_speakers](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_languages_by_number_of_native_speakers), accessed June 6, 2008).

As Table 2.1 illustrates, the most commonly spoken language is Mandarin Chinese, one of the so-called dialects of Chinese. However, including Mandarin in Table 2.1 but not the other dialects of Chinese (e.g. Cantonese) reflects a difference in how the terms **language** and **dialect** are defined in theory and in practice. (See the next page)

**Table 2.1. Most widely spoken languages**

Language	# of First Language Speakers*	# of Second Language Speakers	Total
Chinese (Mandarin)	873 (83%)	178 (17%)	1,051
English	340 (25–40%)	500–1,000 (60–75%)	840–1,340
Hindi	370 (76%)	120 (24%)	490
Spanish	360 (86%)	60 (14%)	420
Russian	167 (60%)	110 (40%)	277
Arabic (standard)	206 (90%)	24 (10%)	230
Portuguese	203 (95%)	10 (5%)	213
Bengali	207 (98%)	4 (2%)	211
Indonesian	23 (14%)	140 (86%)	163
Japanese	126 (99%)	1 (1%)	127
German	95 (77%)	28 (23%)	123
French	65 (57%)	50 (43%)	115

\*Numbers are in millions

In theory, what distinguishes a language from a dialect is the notion of mutual intelligibility. If I speak Northern American English and you speak Southern American English, we will be able

to understand each other. Therefore, we speak dialects of the same language. On the other hand, if I speak French and you speak Vietnamese, we will not be able to understand each other, meaning that we speak different languages. However, in practice this distinction is not consistently maintained. China is a unified political entity. As a result, many people refer to all of the languages spoken in China as dialects, even though the spoken forms of the dialects are mutually unintelligible. Speakers of Cantonese and Mandarin, for instance, may use the same writing system, but if they were to have a conversation, they would be unable to understand one another. The opposite situation exists with other groups of languages. Danish, Swedish, and Norwegian are referred to as separate languages, even though they are relatively mutually intelligible. These languages are not referred to as dialects of, say, Scandinavian, again because the countries of Denmark, Sweden, and Norway are autonomous political entities.

The issue of what is considered a dialect of a language also affects how one counts the number of speakers of a language. In tabulating the number of native speakers of English, Crystal (2003: 65) includes not just speakers of English in countries such as the United States or Canada who speak English from birth but speakers of English pidgins and creoles. As a result, he counts over 430 million speakers of English as a native language. A pidgin is a contact language. When slaves were brought to Jamaica, for instance, many spoke different West African languages, and none

spoke English – the language of their slave masters. This resulted in the creation of a pidgin, a second language that was based on the dominant language spoken in Jamaica, English, and that enabled minimal communication among slaves and their owners. When the children of the slaves learned the pidgin as a first language, the pidgin became a creole that is now referred to as Jamaican Creole. Creoles are typically quite variable, with some forms close to the dominant language (English in Jamaica) and others farther away from the dominant language and unintelligible with it. This situation obviously complicates the task of accurately counting the number of speakers of a language.

Crystal (2003: 68) also notes that there are many countries in which English is spoken for which we have no information of numbers of speakers, and in which English is spoken as a second or foreign language. For instance, in Nigeria, a country with over 500 indigenous languages, English is a second language. It is not spoken as a native language but has been legislated as an official language: the language of government, law, education, and business. In Germany, in contrast, English is a foreign language: it is commonly taught in schools, but it has no official status. If the number of speakers of English includes speakers of pidgins and creoles as well as speakers of English as a foreign language, Crystal (2003: 69) estimates that roughly 1.5 billion people speak English.

But even if estimates of English speakers are made rather conservatively (as is the case in Table 2.1), English is the most widely spoken language not just in the world but in the history of civilization. English is widely used around the world – not just in countries in which it is a native language (Australia, Canada, Ireland, Great Britain, New Zealand, and the United States) but in many other countries in which it is either a second language (e.g. Hong Kong, India, Kenya, Tanzania, and Singapore) or a foreign language (e.g. most of Western Europe). In addition, anyone wishing to fly a commercial airliner must be fluent in English, since English is the lingua franca of the airline industry; in all major tourist areas of the world, shopkeepers, hotel clerks, and others involved in the tourist industry will commonly have some knowledge of English.

It is important to remember, however, that the widespread use of English has little to do with the language itself but more with the fact that British colonization spread English around the world, a phenomenon that was followed by the emergence of the United States (which has the highest percentage of native speakers) as a political and economic force. Had world events been different, English might still be a language spoken only in Great Britain, where it had its origins over 1,500 years ago.

## 2. GENETIC CLASSIFICATIONS OF LANGUAGES

Languages have been traditionally classified in terms of the genetic relationships that they exhibit. The term “genetic” is being used metaphorically to describe relationships among languages, because only humans possess genes. However, it has proven useful to group languages into language families. Within a given family, languages can be “parents” of other languages, “siblings” of one another, and so forth. These relationships are expressed through successive branching of a family tree.

Figure 2.1 provides an abbreviated depiction of the language family, Indo-European, of which English is a member. The Indo-European language family, according to the Ethnologue (Gordon 2005: 16–17), is one of 94 “top-level” language families in the world and comprises 430 actively spoken languages. While not the largest language family – with 1,495 languages, this honor goes to Niger-Congo – it contains eight of the twelve languages listed in Table 2.1: English, Hindi, Spanish, Russian, Bengali, Portuguese, French, and German. The remaining four languages in the table belong to different language families: Mandarin to Sino-Tibetan, Arabic to Afro-Asiatic, and Indonesian to Austronesian. Japanese is an isolate, a language whose classification into an existent language family has proven difficult and is the subject of much dispute among linguists.



FIGURE 2.1  
The Indo-European language family.

\*Indicates a dead, or extinct, language; two additional branches not represented above, Anatolian and Tocharian, are also dead.

English is a member of a language family, Germanic, that is a direct descendant of Indo-European and that consists of fifty-three languages ([www.ethnologue.com/show\\_family.asp?subid-90017](http://www.ethnologue.com/show_family.asp?subid-90017)).

Figure 2.2 lists some of the more commonly spoken Germanic languages and the three branches – West, North, and East – in which Germanic languages can be classified.

While the one East Germanic language listed in Figure 2.2, Gothic, is now dead, North Germanic contains languages commonly spoken in Scandinavia, and West Germanic languages spoken throughout the world (English and Yiddish) as well as in Europe (German, Dutch, and Frisian) and South Africa (Afrikaans). Figure 2.2 provides a further breakdown of the five stages of development that English has gone through: **Old English, Middle English, Early Modern English, Modern English, Contemporary English**.

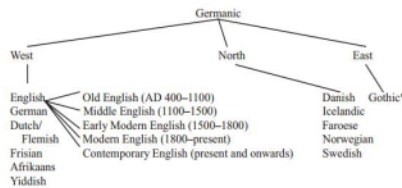


FIGURE 2.2  
The Germanic branch.

\*Indicates a dead, or extinct, language.

## Modern English, Modern English, and Contemporary English.

Not everyone divides English into five distinct phases. Contemporary English is included in the list because, as mentioned earlier in this chapter, languages are dynamic, not static, entities, and the designation of Contemporary English is used to reflect the fact that the English language is constantly changing. It is also important to note that all languages can be divided into stages similar to those for English. For instance, the two varieties of German spoken in Germany – High German (Hochdeutsch) and Low German (Niederdeutsch) – each went through two earlier stages of development: Old and Middle High/Low German.

### 1. The comparative method

The family-tree model of language development provides a temporal view of how languages change over time. Indo-European, for instance, is thought to date back to approximately 4000 BC (perhaps earlier); Germanic to 500 BC; and East, West, and North Germanic to 350 BC. To develop family trees and establish genetic relationships between languages, various kinds of historical, archeological, and linguistic evidence are examined. In the case of English, this evidence can be directly obtained, since we have written records of settlement patterns in England and surviving manuscripts written in Old English. For Indo-European and Germanic, however, no such records exist. These languages are therefore proto-languages – languages whose existence has been

established through the process of linguistic reconstruction. Reconstruction involves examining languages for which we have surviving records and which we know are related and then inferring what an ancestral language for these languages might have looked like. The assumption underlying linguistic reconstruction is that if so-called “sibling” languages within a language family all possess a specific group of words, then the parent language from which these languages are descended must have also had these words.

The process of examining languages, grouping them into language families, and reconstructing ancestral languages is known as the comparative method. To illustrate how this method works, the following sections examine the three kinds of evidence used to establish the members of the Indo-European language family – cognate vocabulary, grammatical similarities, and historical/archeological information.

Cognate vocabulary. The comparison of *cognate vocabulary* is the hallmark of the comparative method. Cognates are words that are passed down the family tree as languages change and develop and have proven extremely important for determining not just which languages are siblings within a language family but what the parent language of the sibling languages might have looked like. The comparative method works best when vocabulary representing common human experiences is compared. Watkins (2000) lists many semantic categories containing words that were instrumental in developing the Indo-European family (examples from Modern

English are used for purposes of illustration): for instance, verbs of existence (e.g. English be); qualitative adjectives (old, new, thin); numerals (one, two, three, etc.); pronouns (I, me, you, etc.); seasons (winter, spring, summer, autumn); body parts (hands, nose, feet, etc.); and so forth. The advantage of comparing vocabulary such as this is that one can be assured that it will occur in almost any language. Vocabulary that is very culture-specific will have a highly restricted occurrence, making it ill-suited to the comparative method.

As an illustration of how the comparative method works, consider how cross-linguistic comparisons of words for Modern English foot can be used to determine which languages belong in the Indo-European language family, how the Germanic branch can be established as an independent subfamily of Indo-European, and what form and pronunciation foot had in Proto-Germanic and Indo-European. Figure 2.3 contains cognate words for foot in a variety of modern and older Indo-European languages.

Old English <i>fōt</i>	Modern French <i>piéd</i>
Modern English <i>foot</i>	Modern Italian <i>piede</i>
Modern German <i>Fuß</i>	Modern Portuguese <i>pé</i>
Modern Dutch <i>voet</i>	Modern Spanish <i>pie</i>
Modern Norwegian <i>fot</i>	Sanskrit <i>pād</i>
Modern Danish <i>fod</i>	Latin <i>pēs</i>
Modern Swedish <i>fot</i>	Greek <i>pesa</i>

FIGURE 2.3  
Words in modern and older Indo-European languages equivalent to Modern English foot.

The left-hand column contains words from Germanic languages; the right-hand column words from other Indo-European languages. At first glance, the words for foot in the Germanic languages seem different from the other languages: the words of Germanic origin begin with orthographic f (the Dutch example, voet,



begins with orthographic v, a written symbol that in speech would be pronounced as /f/. The other languages, in contrast, begin with orthographic p (a symbol that would be pronounced as /p/).

But rather than use this difference to put the Germanic languages in a language family other than Indo-European, the nineteenth-century philologist Jacob Grimm (who along with his brother Wilhelm wrote Grimm's Fairy Tales) postulated a principle of sound change known as Grimm's Law. This principle provided evidence for establishing the branch of Germanic and distinguishing it from the other branches of Indo-European. Although Grimm's Law has three parts, of most relevance is the part that noted that Indo-European /p/ became /f/ in Germanic. This sound changes accounts for many additional words too. For instance, Modern English father is Vater in German (with V again pronounced as /f/) and väder in Dutch but pater in Latin, padre in Spanish, and père in French. Of course, in doing comparisons of this nature, one has to be careful not to confuse borrowings with cognates. English has words such as pedal and pedestrian – each containing the root ped or pod and having something to do with the notion of 'foot' (e.g. a pedal is operated by foot). At first glance, words such as these might lead one to conclude that English is more like French or Latin than German or Dutch. But these words did not arrive in English via proto-Germanic. Instead, they were borrowed – they came across the language tree, in this case from Latin as a result of contact with speakers of Latin.

Cognate vocabulary can also be used to reconstruct ancestral languages. For instance, the American Heritage Dictionary of Indo-European Roots lists the stem \*ped- as the Indo-European word for Modern English foot but \*fōt as the Germanic word. (The asterisk before these words indicates that they are hypothetical, or reconstructed, word forms.) Since all of the Germanic languages have words beginning with /f/, it is logical to assume that Proto-Germanic had a word with /f/ as well. However, since all other Indo-European languages have /p/, proto-Indo-European must have had a word for foot beginning with /p/ too: pronunciation with /f/ was obviously unique to the Germanic languages.

**Grammatical similarities.** While the comparison of cognate vocabulary is crucial to the comparative method, other linguistic similarities and differences among languages can provide additional evidence that languages should be classified in similar or different language families. One among many grammatical features of many Indo-European languages is that they contain inflections marking case, number, and gender on nouns, adjectives, and (sometimes) articles. Although this system can be traced back to Proto-Indo-European (PIE), some Indo-European languages have greatly simplified the system:

- **Case:** PIE had eight cases: nominative, vocative, accusative, genitive, ablative, dative, locative, and instrumental (Baldi 1990: 54). Each of these cases marked the role that a noun and associated article and adjective played in a sentence. For instance, the

nominative case is typically associated with the subject of a sentence, the accusative case with the object. Indo-European languages with fewer cases than PIE will usually have at least the nominative, accusative, genitive, and dative cases (e.g. Modern German and Dutch). Latin has six cases: the aforementioned cases, plus the ablative and vocative. Russian also has six cases, but instead of the ablative and vocative, it has the instrumental and locative. Modern English marks one case on nouns – the genitive – but three cases on pronouns: nominative (or “subjective” in some English grammars; e.g. I, he, she), accusative (or “objective”; e.g. me, him, her), and genitive (or “possessive”; e.g. my, his, her). Modern Spanish also marks case only on pronouns, but unlike English, has no case markings for nouns.

- **Number:** PIE distinguished three classes of number: singular (‘one’), dual (‘two’), and plural (‘more than two’). While many older Indo-European languages, such as Sanskrit (a language within the Indo-Aryan branch of Indo-European), preserve this three-way system, most mark only singular (‘one’) and plural (‘more than one’).
- **Gender:** PIE had three genders: masculine, feminine, and neuter. Although languages such as German, Polish, Russian, and Czech exhibit all three genders, other Indo-European languages distinguish only masculine and feminine, a binary system evident in such Italic languages as French, Spanish, Portuguese, and Italian. English is like Spanish or French, except that gender is

only indicated on pronouns: masculine (he/him) and feminine (she/her). The pronoun it is arguably neuter, but its plural counterpart, they, is really gender-neutral, since it can refer to any plural noun, regardless of its gender. The variation in how Indo-European languages mark case, number, and gender is not indicative of a more general morphological trend. As Baldi (1990: 51) notes, many Indo-European languages exhibit highly “complex morphology,” others “much less morphological complexity, with fewer formal categories and distinctions.” To illustrate this contrast, Table 2.2 compares markings for case, number, and gender in Latin, a heavily inflected language, with Modern English, a language which has lost many of its inflections.

**Table 2.2. The marking of case, number, and gender in Latin and Modern English for the word *girl***

Case	Latin		English	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Nominative	puella	puellae	girl	girls
Genitive	puellae	puellarum	girl's	girls'
Dative	puellae	puellis	girl	girls
Accusative	puellam	puellas	girl	girls
Ablative	puella	puellis	girl	girls
Vocative	puella	puellae	girl	girls

Latin is a language in which nouns are marked for one of three genders: masculine, feminine, and neuter. In Table 2.2, the Latin word for Modern English *girl*, which contains the base form *puell-*, is marked for the feminine gender and would, accordingly, receive specific endings depending on its case – nominative, genitive, dative,

accusative, ablative, and vocative – and its number (i.e. whether girl is singular or plural). Markings of this nature are what Comrie (1990: 337–8) terms as “fusional”; that is there are not separate inflections for case and for number. Instead, case and number work together, producing a single combined inflection. This is a common system for many Indo-European languages. As mentioned earlier, case forms correspond, roughly, to the function of a word in a given sentence or clause. Thus, in Latin, *puell-* will receive different markers if it is subject (nominative), possessive (genitive), indirect object (dative), direct object (accusative), vocative (a term of address, as Mary is in the English sentence Hello, Mary), or ablative (a mixed case corresponding, for instance, to the instrumental use of within I cut the bread with a knife). For instance, in (1a) and (b), *puell-* is subject of each sentence; therefore, the nominative form *puella* is used in the singular and *puellae* in the plural.

- (1) a. *Puella est tarda.*  
‘[The] girl is late’  
b. *Puellae sunt tardae.*  
‘[The] girls are late’

In (2a) and (b), *puell-* is a direct object, resulting in the accusative form *puellam* for the singular and *puellas* for the plural.

- (2) a. *Ego amo puellam.*  
‘I like [the] girl’  
b. *Ego amo puellas.*  
‘I like [the] girls’

Adjectives in Latin also contain inflections that agree in case, number, and gender with the nouns that they follow. Thus, when the adjective *parvus* ‘small’ occurs before *puella* in the nominative case, it would be marked as nominative, singular, and feminine in a sentence such as *Puella parva est tarda*. Latin lacks articles, but in languages with inflectional systems similar to Latin that contain articles, definite articles too will have to agree with the nouns they precede. In Modern German, for instance, (3a) contains a noun, *Mann*, that is masculine, singular, and nominative; the article and adjective before it agrees in case, number, and gender. Example (3b) contains the same noun phrase, but this time in the accusative case.

- (3) a. *Der müde Mann arbeitete spät.*  
‘The tired man worked late’  
b. *Wir berieten den müden Mann.*  
‘We consulted the tired man’

Modern English has a relatively simplified system for marking case, number, and gender. The definite article *the* and all adjectives preceding nouns have no markings for case, number, or gender, though number is marked on demonstrative pronouns, which like articles are members of the more general class of determinatives: *this/that* in the singular (e.g. *this book*), *these/those* in the plural (*these books*). As Table 2.2 shows, on nouns, number and one case, the genitive, are marked: orthographic *s* marks both possessives (e.g. *the girl’s book*) and plurals (e.g. *singular girl* S *plural girls*), except in cases of irregular plurals, such as *man’s* and *men’s*. Since *s*

marks both plural and genitive nouns, a noun that is both plural and genitive will contain only a single inflection. In writing, an apostrophe is used before s to mark singular nouns (e.g. mother's) but after s (e.g. mothers') to mark plural nouns. However, in speech, the pronunciation of both the singular and plural genitives is identical, since apostrophes have no spoken analogue: they are mainly a written form and have no distinct pronunciation in speech. Except when it is marked for the genitive case, the form of a noun such as girl will remain constant, regardless of its function; that is, there is no change in form for girl[s] whether it is functioning as subject (The girl[s] bought some books), for instance, or object (We called the girl[s]).

The tendency for older languages such as Latin to have considerable morphological complexity and newer ones such as English to have less complexity should not necessarily be viewed as a developmental trend. Although many modern Indo-European languages (e.g. English and Spanish) have indeed become morphologically less complex than their ancestral languages (Old English and Latin, respectively), many modern Indo-European languages (e.g. German, Greek, and Russian) remain morphologically quite complex.

Historical/archeological information. As the previous two sections have demonstrated, the comparative method relies quite heavily on linguistic evidence to establish genetic relationships among languages. However, non-linguistic evidence, such as historical information and archeological evidence can supplement linguistic

evidence to help in the classification of languages, especially to help date the origins of proto-languages for which no linguistic evidence exists.

The farther back in time one goes, the sketchier historical information about languages and their speakers becomes. This explains why we know so little about either Proto-Indo-European or Proto-Germanic. In the case of Proto-Indo-European, while the reconstruction of this language has, as Olson (2003: 142) comments, provided considerable information concerning how speakers of PIE lived, we currently have no hard evidence about "when and where these people lived." For this reason, we can only guess when this language might have initially been spoken, who spoke it, and how migrations of PIE speakers led to the development of sub-families of PIE (e.g. Proto-Germanic). Dixon (1997: 48) states that although the common consensus is that PIE began around 6,000 years ago, he notes that others have provided evidence that the language could have originated up to 10,500 years ago.

We can also only speculate about where PIE was initially spoken. The most widely accepted view of the origins of PIE is the Kurgan Hypothesis, which was originally proposed by the archeologist Marija Gimbutas (1956). This hypothesis places the original speakers of PIE just north of the Black Sea c. 6,000 years ago. Through a series of migrations, these speakers spread their language all the way to Europe, spawning over time the various sibling languages of PIE, including Proto-Germanic.

Archeological and linguistic evidence suggests that original speakers of PIE were warriors who rode horses as they made their way to Europe. An alternative but much less widely accepted hypothesis is Renfrew's (1987) farming dispersal hypothesis. Contrary to Gimbutas, Renfrew argued that the original speakers of PIE were not warriors but farmers, and that the spread of farming from Anatolia (Turkey) to Greece and eventually Europe was responsible for the spread of PIE. This hypothesis leads to a much earlier dating of the origins of PIE to c. 10,500 years ago. One of the problems with this hypothesis for historical linguists, Renfrew (2000: 14) acknowledges, is that "they assume some specific chronological threshold beyond which the techniques of the comparative method cannot penetrate." In other words, Renfrew's dates for the origins of PIE extend beyond those for which linguistic reconstruction can be reliably conducted and point to the limitations of the comparative method.

The comparative method has clearly yielded valuable information about languages and the extent to which they are related or unrelated. However, this method has limitations, particularly with respect to how far one can go back in time in the process of reconstructing languages and language families. We have clear evidence that the Germanic branch of Indo-European existed, and by examining languages grouped within the language family, we can infer the existence of Proto-Indo-European. But some linguists have attempted to go back further in time in the search for ancestral languages to find, for instance, a larger super-family that would

include Proto-Indo-European. This process involves reconstructing a protolanguage on the basis of other proto-languages that in turn may themselves have been reconstructed from proto-languages. While some linguists have argued that such a process is reliable, others have claimed that vocabulary, for instance, changes so quickly that this endless process of reconstruction is fraught with problems.

Greenberg (2000) has proposed a language family called Eurasiatic, which includes language families such as Indo-European, Uralic, and Altaic as well as other languages, such as Japanese and Korean, which have defied easy classification into the major existent language families. Eurasiatic dates back to c. 15,000 years ago and was reconstructed using a method called mass lexical comparison. This method involves comparing sound similarities between a set of common words in hundreds of languages. Statistical tests are then conducted to determine the statistical probability that the languages being compared are related. Another earlier language family that has been proposed is called Nostratic. Some view this family as an alternative to Eurasiatic, others as a family that would include Eurasiatic. Still others believe in the notion of monogenesis: the idea, as Trask (1996: 391) observes, "that human language evolved only once, and that all languages that have ever been spoken are descended from that single ancestor." This original language has been called Proto-World.

The problem with positing language families such as Eurasiatic and Nostratic is that the reliability of one's reconstruction

diminishes considerably if a hypothetical language family is reconstructed from other language families. Moreover, if such reconstructions are based on comparisons of vocabulary, it is crucial that these comparisons be based on cognate words, not borrowings. And in many cases it is difficult to determine whether a given word in a language is a cognate or a borrowing. For these reasons, many linguists remain skeptical of reconstructed language families such as Eurasiatic and Nostratic.

While it may be difficult to precisely date the origins of PIE and ProtoGermanic, we can be much more confident about the external history of English. And knowledge of this history can be combined with surviving linguistic evidence to provide a fairly precise description of the history of the English language, and its various stages of development.

### 3. DEVELOPMENT OF ENGLISH

Although it is difficult to date the precise beginning of any language, English is thought to have had its origins around AD 400, when the Romans ended their occupation of England. After the Romans departed, England was populated by Romans who had stayed behind, Celts, and various Germanic tribes who had begun coming to England during the Roman occupation. In the years that followed, additional Germanic tribes from Western Europe and Scandinavia (Angles, Saxons, and Jutes) continued to come to England through a series of invasions, pushing the Celts north and west to places such as

Wales and Scotland and firmly establishing English as a Germanic language that in its earliest incarnation is known now as Old English (or Anglo-Saxon).

➤ Old English. While Modern English, as noted earlier, has lost most of its inflections for case, number, and gender, many of these distinctions can be found in Old English. These grammatical features are evident in the Old English version of “The Lord’s Prayer”

➤ “The Lord’s Prayer” Matthew 6:9–13.

1. *Fæder ure þu þe eart on heofonum;*

*Father our thou that art in heavens*

2. *Si þin nama gehalgod*

*be thy name hallowed*

3. *to becume þin rice*

*come thy kingdom*

4. *gewurþe Din willa*

*be-done thy will*

5. *on eorðan swa swa on heofonum*

*on earth as in heavens*

6. *urne gedæghwamlican hlaf syle us todæg*

*our daily bread gives us today*

7. *and forgyf us ure gyltas*

*and forgive us our sins*

8. *swa swa we forgyfað urum gyltendum*

*as we forgive those-who-have-sinned-against-us*

9. *and ne ge læd þu us on costmunge*  
*and not lead thou us into temptation*

10. *ac alys us of yfele soþlice*  
*but deliver us from evil. truly.*

*(Adapted from Dan Kies, "Cuneiform and Distance Learning":*  
*papyr.com/hypertextbooks/cuneif:m.htm, accessed June 5, 2008)*

The prayer illustrates some notable differences between Old English and subsequent periods of English. For instance, many of the nouns contain inflections marking case, number and gender. In line (1), the -um on heofonum marks this noun as masculine, dative, and plural; in line (5), the -an on eorðan marks this noun as feminine, accusative, and singular. Lines (1) and (2) contain two forms of the verb be. In Modern English, of all the irregular verbs, be has the most different forms (e.g. is, are, was, etc.). In Old English, it had even more different forms. In line (2), Si is a subjunctive verb form. In Modern English, subjunctive forms of be can be found in hypothetical clauses such as if I were you to mark contrary-to-fact assertions. In Old English, Si is a subjunctive form expressing a desire or wish. Finally, the verb gehalgod in line (2) contains a prefix, ge-, commonly found on participles (i.e. verbs in English following the auxiliary have, as in have driven or had walked). Of course, there are many other grammatical features of Old English evident in the prayer, but the examples described here point to how truly different Old English is from Modern English.

It is important to note that during this period, English was purely a spoken language: the only literate people of the era were monks in monasteries, a consequence of St. Augustine's conversion of England to Christianity in the sixth century AD. One of the more famous pieces of English literature of this period, Beowulf, was part of the oral-formulaic style of this period and was written down by some unknown scribe or scribes who heard someone tell the story.

- **Middle English.**

Old English continued being spoken in England until approximately 1100. What precipitated the change from Old English to Middle English was a significant historical event: the Norman conquest of England in 1066. The Normans came from the Normandy region of France and ruled England for approximately 300 years; they spoke a variety of French called Anglo-Norman.

There were two significant changes to English during this period that have led to debates about the extent to which the Norman Conquest affected the English language: the addition of many words of French origin to the English lexicon, and the continuing decline in the number of inflections found in Old English. To see these trends, it is worthwhile to view the opening stanzas of the General Prologue to Chaucer's Canterbury Tales:

#### PROLOGUE

*Here bygynneth the Book of the tales of Caunterbury.*  
*Whan that Aprille, with hise showres soote,*

*The droghte of March hath perced to the roote  
 And bathed every veyne in swich licour,  
 Of which vertu engendred is the flour;  
 Whan Zephirus eek with his swete breeth  
 Inspired hath in every holt and heeth  
 The tendre croppes, and the yonge sonne  
 Hath in the Ram his halfe cours yronne,  
 And smale foweles maken melodye,  
 That slepen al the nyght with open eye*

Words such as perced ('pierced'), veyne ('vein'), licour ('liquor'), and vertu ('virtue') are of French origin and entered the English language during the Middle English period. Only remnants of the inflectional system from the Old English period survive in the Middle English period. Plural -(e)s can be found on words such as shoures; adjectives such as swete ('sweet') do not contain the elaborate system of declension found in Old English but merely the ending -e. In fact, Middle English has more in common with Modern English than its immediate ancestor Old English.

The influx of French vocabulary into English as well as the simplification of its inflectional system have led some to claim that English underwent creolization during this period as a result of contact with French. However, as Thomason and Kaufman (1988: 308) argue, this is a rather extreme position: "There were never many speakers of French in England" during the Middle English period, the borrowing

of words and affixes into English was "no more extreme than the kinds found in many other normal cases in history," and ancestral Normans became bilingual in English "within no more than 250 years of the Conquest." Thus, the linguistic changes to English during this period followed the natural course of linguistic change. Of course, other Germanic languages of this period, such as German, did not change to the extent that English did. But this merely illustrates that the paths that languages take are often unpredictable.

- 5 **Early Modern English.**

The transition from Middle to Modern English is not marked by any specific cultural event but rather by a linguistic event: the Great Vowel Shift. This shift resulted in vowels either being raised on the vowel chart (see Table 7.2 in Chapter 7) or becoming diphthongs. One way that vowels can be classified is according to how high the tongue is placed in the mouth when the vowel is articulated. What happened between Middle and Early Modern English is that in certain words, vowels began to be replaced by vowels pronounced higher in the mouth. For instance, in Middle English the first vowel in word swete would have been pronounced /eI/ (similar to the first vowel in Modern English race).

However, in Modern English, /eI/ was raised to /i/. Thus, we get the Modern English pronunciation of sweet. In Middle English, the first vowel in droghte /u/ would have rhymed with Modern English boot. Because this is already a high vowel, it could not be raised in



Early Modern English. Instead, it became the diphthong /au/, two vowels pronounced simultaneously in a syllable and the vowel still present in the Modern English pronunciation of drought.

But while this sound changes marks a formal change between Middle and Modern English, there were a number of other historical events that clearly contributed to English becoming the language that it currently is: *The Shift from an Oral to a Print Culture*: During the Old and Middle English periods, English was largely a vernacular language: literacy rates were low, and for most people, the language existed only in its spoken form. After Caxton introduced the printing press in England in 1476, literacy rates increased. Some of the more significant early publications in English include William Tyndale's translation of the New Testament (1525) (an event that led to his being burned at the stake, since it was considered sacrilegious for the bible to exist in any language other than Greek or Latin); the **King James Version of the bible (1611)** (the first "legal" translation of the bible); Shakespeare's First Folio (1623); and the first English-language newspaper, The Daily Courant (1702)

*The Publication of Dictionaries and Grammars, and the Subsequent Codification of English*: As a language grows in stature, it begins being codified: dictionaries are written to provide a record of words, their meanings, and their pronunciations; grammars describe the structure of a language and often prescribe usage. In the Modern English period, a number of dictionaries and grammars of English begin appearing: Samuel Johnson's dictionary (1755) (the first major

dictionary of English); Noah Webster's dictionary (1806) (the first major dictionary of American English); and numerous grammars of English, which begin appearing in the eighteenth century (e.g. Robert Lowth's 1762 A Short Introduction to English Grammar). There were also attempts in the eighteenth century to establish an "English Academy": a legislative body similar to the Académie française (French Academy) that issues proclamations on good and bad usage. However, attempts to establish an English Academy have never been successful.

*The Colonization of America, its Independence from England, and its Rise as a Superpower*: The colonization of the New World in the seventeenth century marked the first time that the English language was transplanted from England into a new geographical and social context. Even though the United States eventually gained independence from England, its colonization marked the beginning of British colonization, a process that led, as an earlier section of this chapter demonstrated, to the transplantation of English all over the world and the development of many new "Englishes." More people now speak American English than British English, and because of its size, power, and influence, the United States and, consequently, American English have wielded great power in the world.

## 4. TYPOLOGICAL OF ENGLISH

While the comparative method involves classifying languages on the basis of linguistic and non-linguistic evidence, the typological method relies exclusively on linguistic information and uses this information to classify languages according to the linguistic characteristics that they share or do not share. For instance, languages can be classified as having subject–verb–object word order (SVO), as having subject–object–verb (SOV), and so forth. Although languages are classified typologically on the basis of phonological, morphological, and syntactic characteristics that they share or do not share, much of the research in this area has been centered on morphology and syntax, and this section explores two ways that languages can be typologically classified along morphological and syntactic lines.

### *Language Typology and Language Universals*

The study of language typology is closely connected to the study of language universals. However, as Comrie (1989: 1–12) observes, linguists differ in how they use typological information to study universals. Linguists of the generative school of linguistics limit the number of languages they study, placing greater emphasis on the positing of “abstract structures” (Comrie 1989: 2) to explain language universals. For instance, languages can be classified according to whether they permit pro-drop: the omission of pronouns in subject

position. While English mandates that the subject pronoun occur in a sentence like I called my mother, in Spanish the pronoun can be omitted: *Llamé a mi madre* (literally ‘called my mother’). The abstract categories that generativists posit are an outgrowth of Chomsky’s theory of principles and parameters: the belief that when all children are born, their linguistic competence contains both a set of universal principles that do not vary from language to language and parameters specifying a permissible range of variation within which languages may vary. Therefore, a child born in an environment in which he or she is exposed to Spanish will set the pro-drop parameter to “on.” In contrast, a child exposed to English will set the parameter to “off.” Linguists within the generative school study language typology as a means of revealing universal properties of human language in line with the generative notions of language universals and language acquisition. Other topologists, most notably Greenberg (2000), are much more interested in surveying a wide range of languages, and then from these surveys postulating various linguistic universals. For instance, Tomlin’s (1986) work on word order is based on an investigation of 402 different languages. Instead of postulating abstract principles specifying permissible vs. impermissible word orders, Tomlin’s conclusion that SOV and SVO are the dominant word orders is based on statistical evidence: the fact that 87 percent of the languages he investigated had these orders. A generativist would never base his/her claims on statistics but on parameters, such as pro-drop, that make reference to universal grammar.

## 5. LANGUAGE CHANGE

Language change is natural, normal, and (ultimately) inevitable. While many describe changes in the language as “corruptions” or markers of “decay,” in reality so-called “errors” of usage can often be precursors of change. For instance, the word *flaunt* is often used by many in place of *flout*. A former president of the United States, Jimmy Carter, made this usage famous when in 1979, during the Iran hostage crisis, he said “the government of Iran must realize that it cannot flaunt with impunity the express will and law of the world community.” Strictly speaking, he should have used *flout* here because *flout* means ‘to violate,’ while *flaunt* means ‘to show off’ (e.g. The child flaunted his new fire truck). However, the two words are quite close in pronunciation. In addition, while *flaunt* is a fairly common word, *flout* is not. The result is that many people confuse the words, and over time they have become interchangeable – perhaps *flout* will even become archaic and replaced by *flaunt*. And this confusion is not isolated. Because both *disinterested* and *uninterested* contain negative prefixes (*dis-* and *un-*, respectively), many people now view these words as synonyms, even though many insist that the two words have distinct meanings: *disinterested* can mean only ‘impartial or unbiased’ and *uninterested* only ‘lacking interest.’ Thus, in a court of law, a defendant would want a judge who is “disinterested,” not “uninterested.”

Some object to the use of them in a sentence like Everybody is trying their hardest on the grounds that the verb agreeing with Everybody is singular, while the pronoun referring to everybody, their, is plural. However, the alternatives to their (generic his or his or her) either exhibit gender bias or result in a stylistically awkward construction. The pronoun their does neither and, additionally, fills a gap in the language: it gives speakers of English a singular third person gender-neutral pronoun without having to resort to the creation of an entirely new pronoun. Some have proposed the word *ter* as a singular third person generic possessive pronoun. But adding a new pronoun to a language is difficult because pronouns are a closed class, a class that unlike nouns or verbs does not easily admit new members. Therefore, singular they, which is already in the language, provides a simple solution to what has proven a difficult problem.

All of the so-called mistakes in this section illustrate the capability of human languages to adapt and change in response to the needs of their users in a manner that is consistent with the mechanisms of change inherent in all languages. English may need, as described above, a new gender-neutral pronoun, but because this need cannot be easily accommodated, speakers have been forced to use an existent form – they/their – in a new way. And while this change is disruptive too, over time it is likely to succeed, since language change and subsequent acceptance of new forms is a slow, gradual process, proceeding in fits and starts and, more often than not, ultimately

succeeding. But if a change does not succeed, the entire process simply starts all over again.

### **ACTIVITY 2!**

1. Explain the genetic classification of languages based on your own word!
2. Mention the development of English do you know and give the explanation!
3. Write the summary of this chapter (do in pair)!

# CHAPTER III

## SOCIAL CONTEXT



### **DO YOU KNOW ABOUT SOCIAL CONTEXT ?**

This chapter explores how the social context in which language is used affects human communication. It begins with a discussion of the need to distinguish grammatical meaning from pragmatic meaning, i.e. meaning as a part of our linguistic competence vs. meaning derived from our interactions in specific social contexts. Because the discussion in this chapter will be centered on pragmatic meaning, it is also necessary to distinguish a sentence from an utterance, the primary unit upon which the study of pragmatic meaning is based.

#### **CONTENT:**

1. *Speech Act Theory*
2. *The Cooperative Principle*
3. *Politeness*

## 1. INTRODUCTION

In July of 2005, John Roberts was nominated to be a justice on the Supreme Court of the United States. Newspaper accounts of the nomination described Roberts as being a “strict constructionist”: someone who applies a literal interpretation to the language of the United States Constitution. Commenting on this description of Roberts, the noted literary and legal theorist Stanley Fish (2005) argued that Roberts was not really a proponent of “strict constructionism” but of “textualism,” the belief that interpretation involves “sticking to the meanings that are encoded in the texts and not going beyond them.” To illustrate the limitation of this view of interpretation, Fish notes that if a wife asks her husband Why don’t we go to the movies tonight?

The answer to that question depends on the history of the marriage, the kind of relationship they have, the kind of person the husband thinks the wife is. The words themselves will not produce a fixed account of their meaning [emphasis added].

What Fish is arguing in this statement is that communication does not exist in a vacuum: to engage in a conversation, for instance, we do not simply decode the meanings of the words that people speak but draw upon the larger social context in which the conversation takes place. To understand the larger point that Fish is making, it is first of

all necessary to distinguish grammatical meaning from pragmatic meaning.

### *Grammatical vs. pragmatic meaning*

In his description of the sentence Why don’t we go to the movies? Stanley Fish is distinguishing meaning at two levels. On one level, how we interpret the sentence is determined by the meaning of the individual words that it contains. To make sense of this sentence, we need to know, for instance, what words such as go and movies mean; that we refer outside the text to the speaker and addressee; that it indicates that a specific movie is being referred to; and so forth. At this level, we are within grammar studying what is known as semantics: how words have individual meaning (lexical semantics) and can be used to refer to entities in the external world (reference). Semantics is one component of grammar, and is therefore part of our linguistic competence. As Fish correctly observes, however, interpretation of a sentence goes beyond understanding its meaning at the level of grammar. We need to understand the entire social context in which a sentence was uttered, a different level of interpretation that is studied within pragmatics, which explores the role that context plays in the interpretation of what people say.

Although many linguists agree with this view of the relationship between grammar and pragmatics, others believe that the boundary between grammar and pragmatics is not this discrete. For instance, Fillmore (1996: 54) notes that “this view yields a subtractive

view of pragmatics, according to which it is possible to factor out of the full description of linguistic activities those purely symbolic aspects which concern linguistic knowledge independently of notions of use or purpose.” The problem with making a clear divide between grammar and pragmatics, Fillmore argues, is that this view ignores the role that conventionality plays in language, i.e. that our interpretation of a sentence such as *Could you please pass the salt?* as a polite request is as much a matter of the social context in which this sentence is uttered as the fact that in English, yes/no questions with verbs such as *can* or *could* have been conventionalized as markers of polite requests (e.g. *Can you spare a dime? Could you help me with my homework?*).

Even though the boundary between grammar and pragmatics may be “fuzzy,” most linguists do accept that certain elements of language are best studied under the rubric of grammar, others within the realm of pragmatics. Some linguists, such as Noam Chomsky, do not study pragmatics, mainly because they see the study of grammar as the primary focus of linguistic analysis and the investigation of pragmatics as a source of irregularities not amenable to systematic linguistic description. Others see the study of pragmatics as crucial to understanding human language, since the study of linguistic competence is no more important than the study of communicative competence: Dell Hyme’s (1971) notion that human communication involves not just knowledge of how to form linguistic structures but knowledge of how to use these structures in specific communicative contexts. To appreciate this perspective, an individual need only have

the experience of studying a foreign language in a classroom and then traveling to a country in which the language is spoken and discovering how little he or she truly knows about the language: that its use among speakers in differing social contexts involves more than simply “knowing the rules.

### *Sentence vs. Utterance*

Because this chapter will focus on both spoken and written language, it is important to define the basic unit of structure – the utterance – that will serve as the basis of discussion. Many people mistakenly think that complete sentences are the norm in both speech and writing. However, as Carter and Combleet (2001: 3) correctly observe, “We do not set out to speak in sentences – in fact, in informal speech we rarely do that – rather, we set out to achieve a purpose which may or may not require full, accurate sentences.” To illustrate this point, consider the short excerpt below taken from an actual conversation:

*Speaker A: Lots of people are roller skating lots of people do rollerblade*

*Speaker B: Just running around the city*

*Speaker A: Uh mainly in Golden Gate Park*

Speaker A’s first turn contains two grammatical sentences: constructions consisting of a subject (lots of people in both sentences) and a finite verb (are and do, respectively). In contrast, Speaker B’s

turn and Speaker A's second turn do not contain sentences: B's turn contains a construction centered around the verbal element running; A's turn is a prepositional phrase. But while these turns do not contain complete sentences, they are nevertheless meaningful. Implied in B's turn, for instance, is that those who are roller skating are "running around the city" and in A's turn that they are skating "mainly in Golden Gate Park." Therefore, when discussing pragmatics, linguists tend to avoid labels such as sentence, instead preferring to describe the constructions under discussion as utterances, a category that includes not just sentences but any construction that is meaningful in the context in which it occurs.

## 2. SPEECH ACT THEORY

According to J. L. Austin (1962), when speaking (or writing, for that matter), we perform various "acts": locutionary acts, illocutionary acts, and perlocutionary acts. The difference between locutionary and illocutionary acts is sometimes referred to as, respectively, the difference between "saying" and "doing." Thus, if I utter Leave, I am on one level producing an imperative sentence having a specific form (the base form of the verb with an implied you) and meaning (e.g. 'depart'). This is the locutionary force of this utterance, what has thus far in this chapter been referred to as being a component of grammar. Additionally, I have intentions when uttering this sentence, specifically I am using what is known as a directive to

get someone to do something. This is the illocutionary force of the utterance. But utterances also have effects on the individuals to whom they are directed: uttering Leave may have the effect of actually causing an individual or individuals to leave, it may upset them, it may have no effect, etc. This is considered the perlocutionary force of the utterance.

Although speech act theorists have proposed these three general types of speech acts, they are primarily interested in speaker intentions: the illocutionary force of utterances. To study this facet of human communication, various types of speech acts have been proposed. Below are five described in Searle's (1979) seminal book on speech acts:

- **Assertives/Representatives:** Utterances reporting statements of fact verifiable as true or false (e.g. I am old enough to vote; Columbus discovered America in 1492; Water freezes at zero degrees centigrade)
- **Directives:** Utterances intended to get someone to do something (e.g. Stop shouting; Take out the garbage)
- **Commissives:** Utterances committing one to doing something (e.g. I promise to call you later; I'll write your letter of recommendation tomorrow)
- **Declarations:** Utterances bringing about a change in the state of affairs (e.g. I now pronounce you husband and wife; I hereby sentence you to ten years in jail)

➤ ***Expressives:*** Utterances expressing speaker attitudes (e.g. That's a beautiful dress; I'm sorry for being so late)

A speech act can be explicit or implicit, direct or indirect, and literal or non-literal. If a speech act is explicit, it will contain a performative verb, a verb that names the speech act and has a very specific structure. For instance, even though both of the examples below are apologies (a type of expressive), only the first example contains a performative verb:

I was abominably ill-mannered, and I apologize  
(BNC AN8 1949)

You guys I'm sorry that I was late  
(MICASE SGR200JU125)

Apologize is a performative verb because it literally names the speech act that the sentence represents. In addition, it is in the present tense and occurs with a first person pronoun. Note that if the subject and verb tense are changed, a very different sentence results, one in which no real apology is being made by the speaker but instead an apology given by somebody else at some other time is described:

He apologized for all the harm he'd done.

While You guys I'm sorry that I was late is also an apology, here the apology is implicit because the verb *am* (contracted in *I'm*) does not fit the structural definition of a performative verb: the naming of the speech act is conveyed by the adjective *sorry*, not the verb *am*.

However, only the first example is a direct speech act because the directive, *go away*, is in the form of an imperative sentence, a form

conventionally associated with a directive. The other two examples are indirect. The second sentence is a *yes/no* question. Typically, such structures elicit a *yes* or *no* response. But in this context, the speaker is asking an individual to leave but in a less direct manner. The third example is even more indirect. It is in the form of a declarative sentence, a form most closely associated with, for instance, a representative. But in the appropriate context, this example too could have the intent of asking someone to leave, though its high level of indirectness would certainly leave room for ambiguity and potential misinterpretation.

In English, indirectness is very common with directives and is typically associated with *yes/no* questions, particularly those of the form *could you* or *would you*:

Okay would you open the front uh the screen door for me please  
(SBCSAE)

Would you mind just moving the screen back  
(BNC H9C 3769)

Could you grab me a box of tea  
(SBCSAE)

Could you take your coats off please and come into the blue room  
(BNC F77 3)



In other cases, declarative sentences are used that contain modal verbs of varying degrees of indirectness. By using the modal verb should in the example below, the speaker is suggesting fairly strongly that the addressee take an introductory composition class.

You should take Intro Comp next semester.

(MICASE ADV700JU047)

However, if might want to/wanna is used instead, the command becomes more of a suggestion:

Well you might wanna major in English

(MICASE ADV700JU047)

Indirectness in English, as will be demonstrated in a later section, is very closely associated with politeness, since issuing a directive requires various strategies for mitigating the act of trying to get someone to do something, an act that can be considered impolite if not appropriately stated.

Finally, speech acts can be literal or non-literal. Many figures of speech in English are non-literal in the sense that the speaker does not really mean what he/she says. It is quite common in English for individuals to postpone saying or doing something by uttering an expression like I'll explain why in a minute (BNC F77 450). However, the person uttering this example does not literally mean that his/her explanation will be forthcoming in precisely sixty seconds. Likewise, in Yes I know it's taken me forever to write you (ICE-GB W1B-001 106), the speaker uses forever as a means of acknowledging that his/her letter has been long forthcoming; in and I mean there's millions

of ligaments and millions of tendons you know well not millions but I mean (SBCSAE), the speaker actually explicitly states that his utterance is non-literal: the human body does not really contain millions of ligaments or tendons. In other cases, literalness can be more ambiguous. For instance, it's quite common to open a conversation with an expression such as So how are you or How's everything. However, the person uttering these examples does not necessarily want to know how the addressee is feeling.

And embarrassment can result if the addressee does indeed respond by telling the speaker how badly, for instance, he/she is feeling. The utterance We live close enough for goodness sake let's get together one night (BNC KBK 3549) is similarly ambiguous. Does the speaker really want to get together with the addressee, or is this simply a way of closing a conversation?

For a speech act to be successful, it needs to satisfy a series of conditions referred to as either felicity or appropriateness conditions. Searle (1969) proposes four such conditions: propositional content, preparatory, sincerity, and essential. To understand how these conditions work, it is useful to see how they apply to a very common type of speech act, the apology. According to Thomas (1995: 99f.), an apology, schematized within Searle's typology, would have the following structure:

Propositional act : S [speaker] expresses regret for a past act  
A of S

- Preparatory condition : S believes that A was not in H's [hearer's] best interest
- Sincerity condition : Speaker regrets act A
- Essential condition : Counts as an apology for act A
- Propositional condition : Any speech act has to have propositional content, i.e., be expressed in a form conventionally associated with the speech act.

Apologies, as noted earlier, are typically marked with either the performative verb apologize or an expression such as I'm sorry: I apologize for the urgency on this, but to get it through to the Department of the Environment it has to be lodged at the beginning of February and then up to them by March.  
(BNC JA5 593)

### 3. THE COOPERATIVE PRINCIPLE

The philosopher H. Paul Grice proposed the cooperative principle to explain how conversation involves a certain level of "cooperation" among communicants:

Our talk exchanges do not normally consist of a succession of disconnected remarks, and would not be rational if they did. They are characteristically, to some degree at least, cooperative efforts; and each participant recognizes in them,

to some extent, a common purpose or set of purposes, or at least a mutually accepted direction.  
(Grice 1989: 26)

Grice proposed four maxims to explain how people cooperate when they speak: Quantity, Quality, Relation, and Manner. When a maxim is violated (or "flouted"), a **conversational implicature** results, i.e., the utterance receives an interpretation that goes beyond the words that are spoken. For instance, the conversational exchange below occurred at the end of an interview with three individuals – Michael Shapiro, Michael Moshan, and David Mendelson – who had created a musical CD to help prepare high school students in the United States to take the verbal section of a standardized test, the SAT (Scholastic Aptitude Test).

Linda Werthheimer (interviewer): How well did the three of you do on the verbal section of the SAT?

David Mendelson: Michael Shapiro did really well [laughter](Weekend Edition, NPR, Saturday, January 6, 2007

Quite naturally, the interviewer is interested in how the creators of the study guide did on the very test for which they are attempting to help students succeed. But because Mendelson does not really answer her question, instead commenting on how well one of his co-authors did on the exam, he has violated Grice's maxim of Quantity: he has not made his contribution to the conversation informative enough. He has said too little. And the implicature – the

additional layer of meaning in his response – is that he did not do well on the exam. The laughter following his statement clearly indicates that the other speakers had recognized his violation of the Quantity Maxim and understood the meaning of what he was saying.

Table 3.1 lists Grice’s four maxims, provides brief definitions of them, and then lists Grice’s full definitions. To best understand the maxims, it is useful to examine some examples that adhere to and violate them.

Maxim	Summary	Grice’s (1989) description
Quantity	Don’t say too much; don’t say too little	1. Make your contribution as informative as is required (for the current purposes of the exchange) 2. Do not make your contribution more informative than is required (quoted from p. 26)
Quality	Be truthful	1. Do not say what you believe to be false 2. Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence (p. 27)
Relation	Stay on topic; don’t digress	Be relevant (p. 27)
Manner	Make sure what you say is clear and unambiguous	1. Avoid obscurity of expression 2. Avoid ambiguity 3. Be brief (avoid unnecessary prolixity) 4. Be orderly (p. 27)

### 3.1 Quantity

All communicants must strike a balance between providing too much and too little information when they speak or write. In the example below, both speakers achieve this balance because they directly answer each of the questions they are asked.

A : Have any of the supervisors been in  
 B : Oh yeah I’ve had a lot of visitors lately um I went downstairs to get something to eat and somebody was waiting at the door today  
 A : Who was it  
 B : John Wood do you know him  
 A : No  
 B : He was um  
 A : Is he an old guy  
 B : No no kind of a young black guy

(ICE-USA)

Speaker B, for instance, directly answers A’s question about whether any supervisors had come in. B provides slightly more information than necessary, saying that many visitors had come in. But this extra information does not exceed the amount of detail that would be provided in a conversation of this nature.

In the next example, in contrast, too much information is provided. In this example, a former Democratic Congressman in the United States, Richard Gephardt, is responding to a question from a reporter asking him whether he thought that George Bush was the legitimate president of the United States, since Bush’s election victory in 2000 followed a highly contentious and controversial recount of votes in the state of Florida. Instead of giving a simple yes/no response to the question followed by a brief explanation, Gephardt provides a very lengthy answer: The electors are going to elect George W. Bush

to be the next president of the United States, and I believe on January 20, not too many steps from here, he's going to be sworn in as the next president of the United States. I don't know how you can get more legitimate than that.

Gephardt could have simply replied, "Yes, I think that George W. Bush was legitimately elected." However, because his party, the Democrats, had vigorously contested Bush's election and lost a legal challenge to the Republican party, many will interpret the length of his utterance as meaning that he does not think that George Bush is the legitimate president of the United States.

### 3.2 Quality

When we communicate, there is a tacit assumption that what each communicant says or writes will be truthful. For instance, when speaker A below asks B who she is going to spend the evening with, A expects B to give a truthful answer.

A : So who are you going out with tonight?

B : Koosh and Laura

(SBCSAE)

This may seem like a fairly obvious point, but conversational implicatures definitely result when an utterance is judged as not being truthful. The excerpt below was taken from the first page of a marketing survey enclosed with a child's toy:

Following this statement were a series of questions eliciting information not just about the quality of the toy but about the

occupations of household members, their annual income, the kinds of automobiles they drove, and so forth. In this context, many people will interpret the above statement as less than truthful: the manufacturer is not solely interested in improving its "advanced learning tools." Instead, it wants to gather demographic information about the parents who purchased the toy so that they can be targeted in the future with advertisements for other toys.

Even though communicants place great faith in the truth of the assertions that they make and hear, there are certain situations when violating the Quality Maxim is considered acceptable. For instance, if someone asks you "Do you like my new hairstyle?", it would be highly inappropriate in most contexts to reply "No," since this could result in hurt feelings. Therefore, in most communicative contexts, many people would reply "Yes" or "It's great," even if their replies are untruthful. Of course, the person to whom the reply is directed would undoubtedly judge the reply as truthful. But as will be noted in a later section, politeness is such an important pragmatic concept in English that it overrides other pragmatic considerations.

### 3.3 Relation

The notion of what is relevant in discourse will vary from one context to another. In casual conversation, such topic shifts are normal, since there are no real pre-planned topics that people intend to discuss when they converse casually and in many

instances we are free to change topics, digress, etc., without violating the maxim of relation.

The reasons why these instructors so explicitly mark their digressions is that if they do not, students might not only become confused but think their instructors are disorganized, confused, and not good at teaching. In formal writing, violations of the maxim of relation are even more strictly penalized, and are seen as markers of poor writing.

### 3.4 Manner

Clarity of expression is highly valued in what we say and write. For instance, someone going to a public forum on global warming expects information on this potentially technical topic that is understandable to a general audience, not scientists already quite familiar with the subject. This is why the excerpt below on this topic contains so much metadiscourse – expressions, such as **My talk will be split into four sections, that comment directly on how a particular piece of discourse is being organized (other examples of metadiscourse are in boldface):**

The speaker so explicitly tells her audience what she will discuss because she knows that the people to whom she is speaking do not have a written text at hand to refer to, and she wants to provide them with a global framework for her talk so that they will be able to anticipate what she will be discussing.

In other contexts, such signposting is unnecessary. It would be odd to begin a spontaneous dialogue with statements such as “First, I’m going to discuss the weather and then my visit with my father” because, as mentioned earlier, such dialogues have a fairly loose organizational structure. In many kinds of written texts, it is considered bad style to include commentary such as “In this paper, I will ...” because it is expected of authors that they organize what they say in a less heavy-handed manner: what they write should be implicitly well organized and not require constructions that reveal the structure.

While the previous examples focus on the maxim of manner as it applies to entire discourses, it applies to single utterances as well. Much prescriptive advice about writing focuses on telling writers how to write clear sentences. Kirkman (1992: 50) advises writers to avoid “excessive ‘nominalization’ – excessive use of ‘noun-centered’ structures ... [and to instead use] A crisper, ‘verb-centred’ style ...” Thus, he argues that the first example below, which contains three nominalizations (functions, allocating, and apportioning) as well as a verb in the passive voice (are performed), is much less clear than the second example, which is in the active voice and contains verbal equivalents (allocates and apportions) of two of the nominalizations in the first example:

The functions of allocating and apportioning revenue are performed by the ABC.

## 4. POLITENESS

In their highly influential cross-linguistic analysis of politeness conventions in language, Brown and Levinson (1987: 60–1) argue that politeness in language is centered around the notion of face – “the public self-image that every member wants to claim for himself” – and the efforts made by interlocutors to “maintain each other’s face.” Polite usage of language comes into play whenever a speaker has the potential to produce a face threatening act (FTA), an utterance that undermines the tacit understanding that all language should preserve face. In determining the exact level of politeness that will be employed to mitigate an FTA, Brown and Levinson (1987: 15) propose three considerations: the power relationships existing between speakers, their social distance, and the level of impoliteness that the FTA would create. Although numerous alternative views of politeness exist (see Watts’ (2003: 49–53) survey of them), Brown and Levinson’s work remains one of the more detailed and comprehensive treatments of politeness.

- ✓ Power relationships and social distance
- ✓ Levels of impoliteness, face-threatening acts, and tact
- ✓ Other kinds of politeness

### *Speaker variables*

The discussion so far in this chapter has focused on a series of pragmatic principles – speech acts, the cooperative principle, and

politeness – and how these principles determine how people speak in various communicative contexts. Language use of this nature is characterized by James Milroy and Lesley Milroy (1997: 50) as “contextual style ... the speaker’s relationship to the resources of language and of the situational context in which the speaker finds himself at different times.” Other variation, however, is more inherent to speakers themselves. For instance, while the form *Could you please pass the salt* is politer than *Pass the salt*, it is also the case that studies have shown that females tend to use polite linguistic forms more frequently than males. Gender is thus one of a number of speaker variables: particular characteristics of speakers that affect how they use language. Other speaker variables include geographic mobility, age, social class, ethnicity, education, and social networks. The study of speaker variables is the cornerstone of research done in sociolinguistics, an area of linguistics concerned with the study of social variation in language.

### **ACTIVITY 3!**

1. Match the construction in the left-hand column with the speech act with which it is associated in the right-hand column.

1) The English language originated in England	a) Assertive/Representative
2) I promise to do the work	b) Directive
	c) Commissure

- |                                      |                |
|--------------------------------------|----------------|
| 3) I hereby declare the meeting open | d) Declaration |
| 4) Don't take too long               | e) Expressive  |
| 5) I'm sorry I broke the glass       |                |

2. Distinguish the grammatical meaning of *I wouldn't mind another glass of wine* from its pragmatic meaning. In discussing the pragmatic meaning of the statement, briefly describe a context in which the statement would be likely to occur.
3. Discuss whether the speech acts listed below would be direct or indirect.
  - (1) A teacher says to her students: "Please leave your papers on my desk."
  - (2) One person saying to another sitting next to an open door leading to the backyard of a house: "Lots of mosquitoes are getting into the house."
  - (3) A son says to his mother: "I'll take out the garbage later."
  - (4) A guest at a dinner party says to another guest during dinner, "Could you please pass the butter?"

# CHAPTER IV

## STRUCTURE OF ENGLISH TEXT



### DO YOU KNOW ABOUT STRUCTURE OF ENGLISH TEXT ?

In this chapter, we will study the branch of linguistics, namely the structure of the text. In English, there are 13 different types of text. In this chapter, we will study the 13 types of text.

#### CONTENT:

1. Type of Text
2. Characteristics
3. Generic Structure
4. Example

Structure text is an order or general form of a narrative. The structure of the text in general has 3 structures, namely introduction, problematic, and resolution of the problem.

## 1. NARRATIVE TEXT

**Narrative text** is a type of text in English to tell a story that has a series of connected chronological events. Narrative text aims to entertain the reader about a story or story. In writing narrative text stories in the form of imaginary and factual and have a structure that focuses on a series of stages that are able to build a text.

### a. Type of narrative text

- Fairy tale
- Mystery
- Science fiction
- Romance
- Horror
- Fable
- Myth and legend
- History slice

### b. Characteristics

1. Using action verbs in past tenses.
2. Using certain nouns as personal pronouns.
3. Using adjectives that form a noun phrase.

4. Use conjunctions to order events.

### c. Generic structure

#### 1) Orientation

This stage is an introductory stage that describes who, where, and when a story occurs.

#### 2) Complication

In this stage, the problem begins to appear until the climax stage. This complicated stage usually involves the main character in the story.

#### 3) Resolution

This section is the end of the story or a solution to the problem that occurs. Problems can be solved for better or worse which will make the story have a happy ending or vice versa.

#### 4) Reorientation

Section is the closing of a story that is optional. Re-orientation can contain moral lessons, suggestions or teachings from the author.

The following is an example of a fairy narrative text table along with its structure.

Snow White	Title
Once upon a time there lived a little, named Snow White. She lived with her aunt and uncle because her parents had died.	<b>Orientation</b>



One day she heard her aunt and uncle talking about leaving Snow White in the castle because they wanted to go to America and they didn't have enough money to take Snow White with them.

Snow White didn't want her uncle and aunt to do this. So she decided to run away from home when her aunt and uncle were having breakfast, she ran away into the woods.

In the woods she felt very tired and hungry. Then she saw this cottage. She knocked but no one answered. So she went inside and fell asleep.

Meanwhile seven dwarfs were coming home from work. They went inside. There, they found Snow White awakened. She saw the dwarfs. The dwarfs said: "What is your name?". Snow White said: "My name is Snow White". One of the dwarfs said: "if you wish, you may live here with us". Snow White told the whole story about her. Then Snow White and the seven dwarfs lived happily ever after.

### **Complication**

### **Resolution**

## **2. RECOUNT TEXT**

Recount text is one type of text that contains the story of an action or writing activity or the characters in a story. The activity in question is the author's experience expressed through recount text.

Generally, in writing recount text, it uses the first person point of view because the author knows the story he has experienced himself. This recount text contains various kinds of events, both fun, funny, sad and others. The purpose of writing this recount text is to entertain the reader and provide information.

### **a. Types of recount text**

#### 1. Personal recount This

The type of recount text has a function to tell about the author's personal experience. Personal recount is the most common type commonly used to write recount text.

#### 2. Factual recount

In this type of recount text, it has a function to present reports about events that occurred based on facts (really happened). Examples include reports on scientific experiments or reports from the police.

#### 3. Imaginative

This type of recount text has a function to tell imaginative events. For example, a recount text that tells the author's experience in imagining a scene that he got from his dream.

#### 4. Historical recount mention

In this type of recount text, it has a function to be a recount text that contains history. An example is a recount text about the proclamation of Indonesian independence.

### b. The characteristics of recount text

1. Using past tense or past sentences.
2. Using part of speech adverb and adverbial to explain time, place and manner.
3. Using part of speech conjunction and time connectives to order events and events in the story to form a coherent script.
4. Using personal participants such as I, my, me and so on.
5. Using action words as in language features.

### c. Generic structure

1. Orientation  
The first structure contains information about the character, the place of the incident, when the incident took place and so on. The information provided by the author is expected to provide the knowledge or information needed by the reader in order to understand the storyline.
2. Events  
The second structure is the content of the text or in the form of stories about events or experiences that the author wants to convey to the reader.
3. Reorientation  
The third structure contains conclusions and summaries or repetitions of information in the orientation structure.

Meet Evan Dimas	Title
On Friday, there was a football match between Indonesia and Japan. It was held at Gelora Bung Karno stadium. I went to Gelora Bung Karno stadium with my friend, Jack.	<b>Orientation</b>
Before entering Gelora Bung Karno Stadium. We looked at the bus that took Indonesian football players. Then, we followed that bus to the main entrance. I found Evan Dimas left from the bus. When we wanted to get close to Evan Dimas, a security guard held me back. But, I think that security was familiar. He was my old friend, Patrick. After that, he let me in. And finally I could meet Evan Dimas and get his signature.	<b>Events</b>
Next, I went back to my seat at the stadium and the match just began. It was an amazing and good match.	<b>Reorientation</b>

### 3. DESCRIPTIVE TEXT

Descriptive text is one type of text that explains or describes people, animals, objects, both in nature, shape and number. The purpose of writing descriptive text is to explain, describe or express a person or an object.

**a. Characteristics**

1. Using attribute verbs.
2. Using the simple present tense.
3. In writing only focused on one object only.
4. Using figurative language.

**b. Generic structure**

- 1) Identification

This stage contains an introduction in the form of a general description of a topic.

- 2) Description

At this stage, the special characteristics of the object written I will be explained

<b>My Classmate</b>	<b>Title</b>
I have a classmate. Her name is Karina Afifah, and her nickname is Ina. She comes from Jakarta.	<b>Identification</b>
She is a beautiful girl. She is tall and has curly hair. She also has round eyes, and the color is brown. She has fair skin. She is very nice and has a beautiful smile. She is very lovely, friendly, patient, and she loves to help people. She also loves singing and dancing.	<b>Description</b>

## 4. REPORT TEXT

Report text is report text that is used to describe objects in detail. This report text contains information on an incident that previously has been carried out by structured investigation and observation activities. This report text is only used in the scientific field, the discussion includes various facts about objects, both physical and non-physical. The purpose of writing this report text is to provide important information to readers about a particular thing or object that has been or is being observed.

**a. Characteristics**

- 1) Write down scientific facts in the form of relevant data, theories, and examples.
- 2) Use relating verbs and action verbs
- 3) Have a common title.
- 4) Generally, use the simple present tense in writing texts.

**b. Generic structure**

- 1) General classification

In writing report text, it is usually preceded by a general statement relating to the object being written. This general statement is placed at the beginning of a paragraph containing basic knowledge that is accepted by everyone. After that stone the general statement will be explained in the next paragraph.

## 2) Description

At this stage will be discussed things that happened or experienced by the object being written. However, the writing is very limited because this text tends to use scientific reports so that any information available is based on scientific facts.

Blue Whale	Title
<p>The blue whale is not only the biggest whale living today; the blue whale is the biggest creature ever to have lived on Earth. They are mind-bogglingly gigantic; much larger than any of the dinosaurs. Blue whales and the other ocean giants live their whole lives in seawater.</p>	<b>General classification</b>
<p>Blue whales commonly reach the colossal length of 29m, that's roughly as long as three London red double-decker buses parked end to end. Blue whales in the Southern Hemisphere are generally larger than those in the Northern Hemisphere and female blues are larger than males.</p> <p>The longest blue whale on record is a female measured at a South Georgia whaling station in the South Atlantic (1909); she was 33.58m. The heaviest blue whale was also a female hunted in the Southern Ocean, Antarctica, on 20 March 1947. She tipped the scales at 190 tonnes which is equivalent to about 30 elephants or 2500 people.</p>	<b>Description</b>

Blue whales are now extremely rare due to uncontrolled commercial whaling. Some populations could be endangered to the point of extinction.

## 5. EXPLANATION TEXT

Explanation text is a type of text that describes how a process or object occurs. Or the type of text that describes a process.

### a. Characteristics

- 1) Using the simple present tense in writing,
- 2) Using action verbs that are used to describe the action that occurred.
- 3) Using the form of passive voice in writing which aims to make the reader focus on the events that are taking place.
- 4) Using noun phrases.
- 5) Using *technical terms*.
- 6) Use chronological conjunctions.

### b. Generic structure

- 1) General statement  
Contains general information about the topic to be discussed in the text.

2) Explanation

Contains a series of events (sequence of events) of a process which is the topic of the text.

3) Sequencing

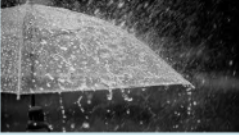
Is a writing guide so that the writing is in the form of short paragraphs. The use of sequencing is intended to make it easy for readers to read and understand the text. In addition, in writing, one must pay attention to the cause and effect of an object or phenomenon being written.

4) Conclusion

In writing this text, it must be accompanied by a conclusion from the information provided.

5) Visuals

To increase the reader's understanding and clarify the content in reading the text provided by the author is usually accompanied by visual aids such as photos, pictures, diagrams etc.

How Does Rain Happen	Title
 <p><i>Image: rain</i></p> <p>We all know that rain is the primary source of freshwater for most areas of the world, providing suitable conditions for diverse</p>	<p><b>General statement</b></p>

ecosystems. Rain is water that descends from the sky through several processes until the rain occurs. Do you know how rain happens?

The phenomenon of rain is actually a water circle. The concept of a water circle includes the sun heating the Earth's water surface and causing the water surface to evaporate. Earth's water includes water from lakes, rivers, and ocean. Then, the water vapor experiences condensation and becomes condensed vapor. Condensed vapor is formed from droplets so that when the air temperature is higher, it makes the droplets gather, condensed and formed into clouds. The presence of winds helps clouds move and gather in other places that have lower temperatures. At that time, the droplets become heavier and unstoppable and cause the droplets to fall so that there is rain.

**Explanation text**

If the droplets drop in an area with very cold temperatures, the droplets will drop as snow. However, not all rain reaches the surface. Some evaporates while falling through dry air. This is called Virga, a phenomenon which is often seen in hot, dry desert regions.

**Conclusion**

### 6. NEWS ITEM TEXT

News item text is a type of text that provides up-to-date information about events that are important to report. The purpose of writing this new item text is to provide information to readers or

listeners. The special feature of this text is that the text contains information that is a new event.

**a. Characteristics**

- 1) In writing this text is written briefly.
- 2) Using action verbs and saying verbs
- 3) Using simple past tense.
- 4) Use verbs to describe time, place and manner.

**b. Generic structure**

- 1) Main event/newsworthy  
In this case, in writing news item text, it must have a main story and must be able to explain the summary of the news to be explained.
- 2) Background event/elaboration  
A writer must tell in detail the background of the event. In this section it must be explained in detail such as the perpetrator, location, time of the incident, the parties involved and the background it happened.
- 3) Source  
source referred to in writing text this can be in the form of statements, comments, or opinions from parties related to the event.

Nepal Rescuers Find 3 Bodies Near Crashed US Marine	Title
<p>Nepalese rescuers on Friday found three bodies near the wreckage of a US Marine helicopter that disappeared earlier this week while on a relief mission in the earthquake-hit Himalayan nation, officials said. Nepal's Defense Secretary Iswori Poudyal gave no details about the nationalities of the victims. The helicopter was carrying six Marines and two Nepalese army soldiers. The wreckage was found near Gothali village in the district of Dolakha. The US Embassy in Nepal had no immediate comment Friday.</p>	<p><b>Main event/newsworthy</b></p>
<p>The discovery of the wreckage, first spotted by a Nepalese army helicopter Friday, followed days of intense search involving US and Nepalese aircraft and even US satellites. The US relief mission was deployed soon after a magnitude-7.8 quake hit April 25, killing more than 8,200 people. It was followed by another magnitude-7.3 quake on Tuesday that killed 117 people and injured 2,800. The second quake was centered between Kathmandu and Mount Everest, and hit the hardest in deeply rural parts of the Himalayan foothills, hammering many villages reached only by hiking trails and causing road-blocking landslides.</p>	<p><b>Background event/elaboration</b></p>

(Source: Nepal rescue team finds three bodies near crashed US Marine helicopter, The Globe and Mail, May 15 2015)

Source

## 7. ANALYTICAL EXPOSITION TEXT

Analytical exposition text contains the author's thoughts about things that happen around him, whether objects, events, or places. This text is included in argumentative text because it shows an opinion (argument) against something. Its social function is to convince the reader that the topic presented is an important topic to discuss.

### a. Characteristics

1. Using simple present tense
2. Using words that express the author's thoughts or feelings
3. Using *internal conjunctions*, namely connecting words that connect arguments between two clauses.
4. Using *causal conjunctions* (*reason-why*) or causation.

### b. Generic structure of analytical exposition,

1. Thesis.

In writing this text, at the beginning of the paragraph, the reader must tell the reader about the main topic to be written. Usually the thesis can be found in the first paragraph of the text.

2. Arguments

The author will write an opinion to support the main topic that has been presented previously. Usually in analytical exposition there are more than two mention arguments. The more arguments presented, the more readers will believe that the topic discussed is an important topic or requires attention.

3. Reiteration/Conclusion

This section is always located at the end of the text and becomes the closing paragraph of the article. Reiteration consist reaffirmation position and opinion of the author of the main topics.

The Importance of Reading	Title
I personally think that reading is an important activity in our life. Why do I say so?	<b>Thesis First</b>
, by reading we can get a lot of information about many things in the world such as science, technology, sports, arts and culture.  Secondly, by reading we can get a lot of news and knowledge about something happening in any part of the world which we can see directly.  Thirdly, reading can give us pleasure. When we are tired, we can read books, newspapers or magazines on the	<b>Arguments</b>

entertainment column such as short stories, comedies or quizzes to make us relax.

Fourthly, reading can also take us to other parts of the world. By reading a book about Irian Jaya we may feel that we're really sitting in the jungles, not at home in our rooms.

Based on the facts above, it is obvious that everyone needs to read books, newspapers, magazines or others to get knowledge, news, information and also entertainment. In other words, we can say reading is truly important in our life.

(Source: englishadmin.com)

**Reiteration/  
Conclusion**

## 8. HORTATORY EXPOSITION TEXT

A hortatory exposition is a type of spoken or written text that is intended to explain the listeners or readers that something should or should not happen or be done. Hortatory exposition text can be found in scientific books, Journals, magazines, newspaper articles, academic speech or lectures, research reports etc. Hortatory exposition texts are popular among science, academic communities and educated people. The purpose of this text is to persuade the reader or listener that something should or should not be the case.

### a. Characteristics

- 1) In writing hortatory exposition text, the focus is on generic human and non-human participants.
- 2) Use material process
- 3) Using present tense
- 4) Using conjunction
- 5) Using modal auxiliaries, action verbs and abstract nouns.

### b. Generic structure

- 1) Thesis
- 2) Arguments

In this stage, it presents an announcement of an issue of concern. consists of the author's point of view (thesis), preview of the arguments that will follow in the next section, and a question or emotional statement to get audience attention. This part is significant to support about The thesis. Therefore, it needs some requirements. They are explained as follow;

- ✓ A new paragraph is used for each argument
- ✓ Each new paragraph begins with topic sentence
- ✓ After topic sentence comes the details to support the arguments
- ✓ Emotive words are used to persuade the audience into believing the author.



### 3) Recommendation

It presents the statement of what ought or ought not to happen.

The Important of Reading	Title
I personally think that reading is a very important activity in our life. Why do I say so?	<b>Thesis First</b>
, by reading we can get a lot of knowledge about many things in the world such as Science, technology, sports, arts, culture, etc. written in either books, magazine, newspaper, etc.	<b>Argument 1</b>
Second, by reading we can get a lot of news and information about something happening in any part of the world which we can see directly.	<b>Argument 2</b>
Another reason, reading can give us pleasure too. When we are tired, we read books, novels, comics, newspapers or magazines on the entertainment column such as comedy, short story, quiz, etc. To make us relaxed.	<b>Argument 3</b>
Lastly, reading can also take us to other parts of the world. By reading a book about Irian Jaya we may feel we're really sitting in the jungles not at home in our rooms.	<b>Argument 4</b>
From the facts above, it is obvious that everyone needs to read to get	<b>Recommendation</b>

knowledge, information and also entertainment. Or in summary we can say reading is truly important in our life.

## 9. PROCEDURE TEXT

Procedure text is text that contains instructions or steps in doing something. The purpose of writing this text is to illustrate how something is done through sequential steps.

### a. Types of procedure text

1. Procedure text that describes how to operate using something.  
Like *how to use a rice cooker*.
2. Procedure text that provides instructions for carrying out certain activities. Like *how to play guitar, how to make a cake*.
3. Procedure text related to tips for living life such as *how to be successful in life*.

### b. Characteristics

1. Using the simple present tense.
2. Using imperative sentences.
3. Use action verbs.
4. Using numbers.
5. Using conjunctions.
6. Using adverbs.

**c. Generic structure**

1) Goal/aim

In this stage contains the intent and purpose of the author of the procedure text that is being written.

2) Materials

This stage contains the materials needed to perform the steps of a procedure text.

3) Steps

In this stage, it is intended that the stages are written sequentially.

4) Result

In these stages this displays the results of steps that have been done.

How to Make Orange Juice	Title
In this text the purpose is to make orange juice.	<b>Aim/goals</b>
1. Mature 50 ml water 2. The sweet orange fruit (orange Sunkist) 3. Ice Cubes	<b>Materials</b>
4. Prepare the fresh orange fruit. 5. Peel the skin and fiber. 6. Enter into a blender (may use a juicer to make it more practical). 7. Combine water and ice cubes (you can also mix honey). 8. Blender for about 3 minutes and then pour into a glass.	<b>Steps</b>

9. Orange juice is ready to be enjoyed.

**Result**

## 10. DISCUSSION TEXT

Discussion text is a text that contains a discussion of a matter and contains a different idea or opinion or from a different point of view. This type of text describes the problem from a different point of view. The function and purpose of this text is to present problems based on different opinions or views. so that this discussion text does not necessarily represent the author's opinion, but also responds to a problem by presenting pro and con arguments.

**a. Characteristics**

1. Using various types of tenses when writing.
2. Using general nouns.
3. Using adjectives.
4. Using conjunctions.
5. Using contraceptives.
6. Use persuasive language.
7. Using imperatives.
8. And use complex sentences.

**b. Generic structure**

1. Issue

In this section the author introduces the issues discussed and his writings.

2. Arguments pro and con

In this section contains arguments pro and arguments against the statement or issue being discussed. This argument does not only contain the argument of the author. Rather, it comes from the arguments of other parties or experts who have an opinion on the issue. Each argument written must have a main idea along with a description.

3. Recommendation or conclusion

In this section the author writes his own opinion on the issues discussed. The author can give one point from the argument given and provide a statement or recommendation.

<b>The Pros and Cons of Offline School in the Midst of a Pandemic</b>	
	<b>Title</b>
The Covid-19 pandemic affects many aspects of our lives, including school. Schools are held online at students' respective homes.	<b>Issues</b>
<p>However, there is a discourse that schools will be reopened in July 2020 or January 2021.</p> <p>Many parents are worried their children will have to return to school in the near future. It is because some local governments have included plans for</p>	<b>Pros and contra arguments</b>

reopening schools in the new normal policy. For example, the Central Java Education and Culture Office will enforce the implementation of the new normal in its region starting July 2020. Some options emerge such as imposing a shifting system, limiting the number of students, and implementing existing health protocols. On the other hand, epidemiologist dr. Dicky Budiman advises not to open the school until the situation gets better. He says that schools reopening is risky, and it probably rises to the second wave of the coronavirus. The students can go back to school only if the preparation is done and the screening process is fulfilled. Furthermore, if the screening process is not fulfilled, school reopening is not recommended for it is dangerous.

In the end, Offline School can only be done if the situation in our country gets better, or zero cases. Since the case is still rising these days, online school is the best option to avoid the new cluster.

**Conclusion or recommendation**

## 11. REVIEW TEXT

Review text is a text that contains an evaluation or review of a publication in the form of books, films, music, videos and others. In this paper, the author writes subjectively about the opinions expressed. Usually in writing a review text, the advantages and disadvantages of the thing being assessed or the object of the writing will be written. The purpose of this review text is to convey the opinion of the author and provide information to the audience.

### a. Characteristics

1. In writing, it uses the simple present tense and focuses on specific participants.
2. Using adjectives.
3. Use long and complex clauses.
4. Use metaphor styles.

### b. Generic structure of review text.

1. Introduction  
In this section, the first paragraph contains the review, it is mandatory to insert an introduction which usually consists of the product name, history, use, background, or general description of the product.

2. Evaluation

In this section the author is supposed to give an assessment of the product. This evaluation can also contain the uniqueness or quality of the product or publication.

3. Interpretative recount

In this section the author conveys various views of a work or product being reviewed. If the author is writing a review for a book or film, the author can write about the characters, plots, and so on that are in those works. Authors may also provide comparisons to other works for comparison such as pros and cons or recommendations for readers.

4. Evaluative summation

In the last section, the author provides a summary or conclusion from the publications reviewed. This is the author's final opinion on a work. Authors can include the *punchline* of the product as criticism or input on the work.

Baby	Title
"Baby" represents more of the same from Justin Bieber.	<b>Introduction</b>
It's a squeaky-clean song that finds the singer once again pouring his heart out to a girl he likes, though his crush breaks his heart in the end. "If it aren't broke, don't fix it" seems to be Justin Bieber's motto, since most of his songs — including "Baby" — all have a similar message.	<b>Evaluation</b>

Here, Bieber falls back on the heavy synth-presence and formulaic pop beats that characterize his entire last album. Though his vocals and I-want-to-be-sweet-to-you approach are still somewhat endearing, the pattern is starting to wear thin. The most interesting part of the song is the Ludacris verse.

**Interpretative  
recount**

Did you know Justin says “Baby” exactly fifty-five times in the song? The lyrics aren't the cleverer we've ever heard, we've heard worse, but it just repeats over and over. Not the best hit by my standards, but some like it and that's perfectly fine.

**Evaluative  
summation**

## 12. ANECDOTE TEXT

Anecdote text is a text which retells strange events or unusual events, either fact or imagination. The purpose of writing an anecdote text is to tell events in the past that aim to entertain the reader or listener with stories unusual that can make people laugh by telling strange events or unusual events aimed at entertaining the reader.

### a. The characteristics

1. Using simple past tense, past continuous tense and past perfect tense.
2. Using the past of time conjunction.

3. The use of rhetorical questions or questions that sometimes does not require an answer for the questioner is more to know the answer.
4. Using exclamation.
5. Using intensity words.
6. Using action words.
7. Using imperative sentences.

### b. Generic Structure

#### 1. Abstract

In this section the author will start the article by briefly introducing something unique or odd so that it invites the attention of listeners or readers and makes them curious about how it happened.

#### 2. Orientation

In this section the author will begin to introduce the setting of the place, actors, and time of a story.

#### 3. Crisis

This section emphasizes the uniqueness and oddities that occur so that the reader's curiosity graph increases.

#### 4. Reaction or incident

In this section, the author ends his curiosity about odd or unique things in the story by telling how the actor solves the problem or oddity that occurs. And it is in this section that

readers or listeners usually get curious or funny problem solving.

5. Coda

Coda is the conclusion that can be drawn in the funny story that will usually invite the laughter of the listener or the reader even greater.

<b>Big Lizard in the Bath</b>	<b>Title</b>
How might you want to locate a Big Lizard in your shower? An awful one as well!	<b>Abstract</b>
We had quite recently moved into another house, which had been unfilled for so long that everything was in a loathsome wreckage. Anna and I chose to clean the shower to begin with, so we set to, and turned on the tap.	<b>Orientation</b>
All of a sudden, sadly, a Big Lizard's head showed up in the fitting gap. At that point out crawled whatever remains of his long thin body. He wandered aimlessly on the tricky base of the shower, spitting and murmuring at us.	<b>Crisis</b>
For a moment I remained there truly deadened. At that point I shouted for my spouse, who fortunately came running and slaughtered the Big Lizard with the handle of a floor brush. Anna, who was just three at the time, was very inspired by the entire	<b>Reaction /incident</b>

business. To be sure I needed to haul her off the beaten path or she'd presumably have leant over the shower to improve look!

After then I've generally put the module solidly before running the shower water.

**Coda**

### 13. SPOOF TEXT

Spoof text is a text that tells a comedy story that has an ending for the unpredictable reader.

**a. Characteristics**

- 1) Using the past tense in writing.
- 2) Use action verbs.
- 3) Use adverbs of time and place.
- 4) Told chronologically.

**b. Generic structure**

- 1) Orientations  
In this section the author introduces the story to the reader through the introduction of characters, places, times and so on.
- 2) Events  
In this section the author tells the events that are still normal.
- 3) Twist

In this section the author tells the opposite of a normal incident that is funny and unexpected before.

<b>Penguin in the Park</b>	<b>Title</b>
Once a man was walking in a park when he came across a penguin.	<b>Orientation</b>
He took it to a policeman and said; "What should I do?" The policeman replied; "Take it to the zoo!".	<b>Event 1</b>
The next day, the policeman saw the man in the same park. The man was still carrying the penguin. The policeman was rather surprised and walked up to the man and asked; "Why are you still carrying the penguin? Didn't you take it to the zoo?"	<b>Event 2</b>
The man replied; "I certainly did. And it was a great idea because the penguin really enjoyed it. So, today I am taking it to the movie".	<b>Twist</b>

### **ACTIVITY 4!**

1. How much type of text that you know? mention and explain with your own language.
2. Explain about narrative text and type of narrative text!
3. Mention about types of recount text!

4. What do you think about report text?
5. What the characteristic about report text?
6. What the generic structure about news item text!
7. Give the example of analytical exposition text!
8. Mention generic structure of analytical exposition text!
9. Where we can find hortatory exposition text?
10. What are procedure text usually used for?
11. Make an example about procedure text!
12. Explain about review text and generic structure of review text!
13. Make an example about anecdote text with analysis structure text!
14. What do you know about spoof text!
15. Mention about characteristic and generic structure about spoof text!

# CHAPTER V

## PHONETICS & PHONOLOGY



### DO YOU KNOW ABOUT PHONETICS AND PHONOLOGY ?

In this chapter, we will study the branches of linguistics namely phonetics and phonology. The science of phonetics and phonology is important science to learn and understand to achieve a level of proficiency in the language. Maybe some students still have difficulty learning the material. In this chapter, we will examine these two materials.

#### CONTENT:

1. Forget letters, we're talking sounds
2. Articulatory phonetics
3. Acoustic phonetics
4. The problem of variation in speech
5. Phonemes and allophones
6. Phonotactics
7. Alternations

### 1. INTRODUCTION

<sup>4</sup> In most fields of study, language is thought of principally in terms of the written word, for it is in this form that we usually make permanent records of important ideas. Relatively little attention is spared for something as fleeting and unremarkable as spoken conversation. In linguistics, however, speech, rather than writing, is regarded as more central to human language, for several reasons. First, humans have probably used spoken languages for 100,000 years,



perhaps longer. Writing is a relatively recent development, only a few thousand years old. Even today, most of the world's 5,000 or so languages have no established writing system. But there is no society which communicates just by writing, without a spoken language. Furthermore, children learn to speak long before they learn to read and write; indeed, learning of spoken language takes place without formal instruction.

But does ordinary speech really warrant scientific attention? Although we generally take the processes of speech production and recognition for granted, they involve a range of surprisingly intricate mental abilities – part of the knowledge we have of the language(s) we speak. The words that we wish to express seem to emerge inexplicably from our mouths, as soundwaves. These soundwaves then hit the



hearer's ear, sending auditory signals to the brain, which are interpreted – again, seemingly magic – as the words intended by the speaker. What kind of mental system might underlie this capacity to produce *The Scream* (detail), and recognize speech? Which aspects of this system appear to be common to all humans, and which aspects vary from language to language? And what exactly goes on in the mouth and throat to produce speech? These sorts of questions are the domain of **phonetics** and **phonology** (both from the Greek root *phon-* 'sound'), the two subfields of linguistics concerned with speech sounds. In the remainder of this chapter, we examine some basic observations, terminology, and techniques of analysis used by phoneticians and phonologists to address these questions.

### **Phonetics, phonology – what's the difference?**

Traditionally, **phonetics** deals with measurable, physical properties of speech sounds themselves, i.e. precisely how the mouth produces certain sounds, and the characteristics of the resulting soundwaves; while **phonology** investigates the mental system for representing and processing speech sounds within particular languages. In recent years, however, the two fields have increasingly overlapped in scope. For our purposes, the important point is that linguists (whether they're called phoneticians or phonologists) have accumulated some basic observations about how the speech systems of human language 'work,' and these principles have a good deal to do with the physical properties of the speech sounds in question.

## **2. FORGET LETTERS, WE ARE TALKING SOUNDS**

**7** **Sound energy** is disturbance of air molecules: the disturbance radiates outward from its source, in waves of fluctuating air pressure ('soundwaves'), like ripples from a stone dropped in a pond. When we speak of an individual **sound** of speech, however, we mean something more specific: a portion of the speech in which the sound energy (and the configuration of the mouth to produce that sound energy) remains relatively stable. In the word *so*, for example, the sound energy changes, from a hissing sound at the beginning (with the mouth relatively closed) to a more open, singable sound at the end. But within each of these two portions of the word – the hissing sound of the *s*, and the singable sound of the *o*, there is relatively stability. We can therefore say that *so* is composed of two distinct sounds. Indeed, this decomposition of words into individual speech sounds is reflected to some extent in our **7** writing system, for we spell *so* with two letters.

Nevertheless, it is important to bear in mind, throughout this chapter, that we are interested in the sounds which make up words, not the letters with which they are spelled. The word *fought*, for example, has six letters, but only three sounds: the *f*, followed by a single vowel sound (written with two letters, *ou*, in this word), and the final *t*. The *gh* is, of course, 'silent'; it is not part of the word's sounds, so we disregard it.

In fact, for the purpose of representing sounds, the English spelling system is quite unreliable – as generations of schoolchildren, struggling to memorize English spellings, can appreciate. The letter *c*, for instance, is pronounced like *s* in some words (e.g. *cell*), and *k* in others (e.g. *call*). Similarly, *o* corresponds to one vowel sound in *Robert* and a different one in *robe*.

The inadequacies become even more obvious if we try to transcribe (write down) the words of other languages – as linguists must do. The language might have no established writing system, or it may have sounds which don't occur in English. We might invent our own way of transcribing such sounds, using the closest-sounding letters of English. But how is a Russian linguist going to understand our English-based transcriptions, if she is not fluent in English? And how are we to understand this Russian's transcriptions of an unusual Kurdish dialect, written in the Russian (Cyrillic) alphabet, if we are not fluent in Russian? Linguists need an internationally agreed-upon system of transcription, in which the symbols correspond straightforwardly to sounds, and in which there are enough symbols to represent all the sounds of the world's languages.

This system is called the **International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA)**, first developed in 1886 and since modified in light of subsequent linguistic discoveries. For your interest, the full chart of IPA symbols appears at the end of this chapter. For present purposes however, we'll focus on the symbols needed for the basic sounds of North American English, adding other symbols as needed.

### a. Consonants

If your first language is not English, and you are not sure how to pronounce any of the example words in Table 1, check with a native English-speaker.

**Table 1:** IPA symbols for the basic consonant sounds of North American English

IPA symbol	Example words	IPA symbol	Example
p	pat, hippy, trip	ʃ	ship, pressure, rash
t	top, return, pat	ʒ	Jacques, measure, rouge
k	cat, biker, stick	m	mice, lemon, him
b	bat, rubber, snob	n	nick, funny, gain
d	day, adore, bad	ŋ	singer, bang, bank
g	guts, baggy, rig	l	light, yellow, feel
f	photo, coffee, laugh	ʁ	rice, arrive, very
v	voice, river, live	w	winter, away
θ	think, author, teeth	j	yell, onion
ð	this, weather, teeth	h	hill, ahead
s	sit, receive, bass	tʃ	chop, nature, itch
z	zoom, fuzzy, maze	dʒ	judge, region, age

Most of these consonant symbols in Table 1 correspond to familiar letters, and represent their usual sound values. For example, [f] and [h] in IPA are pronounced exactly as an English-speaker would expect from their spellings in *force* and *horse*. Let's consider the less familiar symbols:

[θ, ð]. English has two distinct consonant sounds (*theme* vs. *these*), both spelled with *th*; since these two consonant sounds are not the same, they should each have their own symbol. Moreover, a guiding principle of the IPA is that each individual speech sound corresponds to a unique symbol, and each symbol to a sound; while a sequence of sounds must be represented as a sequence of symbols. We

therefore shouldn't use a twoletter sequence, *th*, to represent a single consonant sound, as this could be confused with a true sequence of consonants, e.g. the *th* in *sweetheart*. We therefore require two special IPA symbols, [T] and [D].

[S,Z]. For similar reasons, the *sh* sound in *ship* deserves its own symbol, [S]. And the middle consonant in *measure* (sometimes represented as *zh* in pronunciation guides) is [Z].

[N]. *Stinger* does not really contain an [ng] sequence phonetically: it's a single consonant sound, similar to *n*, but with the tongue in the position of a [g]. If you want to confirm that there's no [g] in *stinger*, compare it to *finger*, which has an [Ng] sequence.

[tS,dZ]. Why then are the *ch* and *j* (or 'soft *g*') sounds represented as a sequence of symbols? These are actually not single consonants at all: they are [t] plus [S], and [d] plus [Z], sequences. *Wheat ship* spoken quickly is indistinguishable from *wee chip*. Similarly, if you say *aid Jacques* quickly, the *d-j* sequence sounds the same as the end of *age*.

[®]. This symbol ('turned *r*') represents the English *r* sound. In IPA, [r] is reserved for the (more common) trilled *r*, as in Spanish *rojo* ('red') or *perro* ('dog').

[j]. As in German, [j] represents the sound usually written in English as *y*. [j] is never pronounced as in *just*. (In IPA, the [y] symbol refers to a different sound, not found in the basic sounds of English.)

[g]. This symbol is always pronounced as a 'hard' *g*, as in *get* or *bag*, never as in *gem* or *age*.

By the same token, a number of letters of the alphabet are not needed as IPA symbols for transcribing English consonant sounds. For example, the *qu* in *quick* is the same as [kw], and the end of *tax* is simply a [ks] sequence. As we already noted, either [s] or [k] can replace *c*, depending on the word. These extra letters are used in IPA to denote different sounds, not found among the basic sounds of English.

## 7 b. Vowels

The vowels require more careful study, as the symbols are less familiar; and even the familiar symbols generally do *not* have the phonetic values we would expect from English spelling. They're more like the spelling-pronunciation correspondences of Spanish or Italian.

7  
**Table 2:** IPA symbols for the basic vowel sounds of North American English

IPA symbol	Example words	IPA symbol	Example
i	see, funny, bead	U	pull, good, would
I	bit, sing, rib	o	go, boat, pole, sew
e	haze, great, obey	O	caught, dawn, boss
E	bet, send, affect	A	cot, Don, father
æ	stamp, pack, yeah	á	shut, come, bug'
u	loon, flute, who	'	about, Alberta, element

Note that, for many of these vowel sounds, a number of different spellings are used in English. The [U] sound, for example is spelled *oo* in *good*, but *ou* in *would*; nevertheless, the vowel sound is the same in both words: *would* and *good* rhyme, which tells us that the

vowel sounds (as well as the final consonants) in these two words are identical.

Examine the example words for the other vowel symbols as well, to satisfy yourself that the sounds corresponding to each symbol really are the same.

The point of this mental exercise is to develop an awareness of the distinct vowel SOUNDS, independent of their spelling in particular words.

[O,A]. Except in certain regions, most younger North American English speakers nowadays make no distinction between [O] (as in *caught*) and [A] (as in *cot*), instead using [O] for both cases; or [A] for both cases; or a vowel somewhere between the two ([Å]). If you pronounce *cot/caught* and *Don/Dawn* the same, you're in this group of cutting-edge English speakers.

**Dialect variation.** More generally, bear in mind that the symbols and examples in Table 2 hold true for most dialects of North American English. But if you speak a dialect distinct from the North American mainstream, your vowels may vary significantly, as English dialects differ mainly in the vowels. *Remember: the 'right' way to transcribe a word depends on its pronunciation in the speech you are transcribing, not on any external standard of correctness.*

### The Queen's English?

We beg your Majesty's pardon, but there is nothing inherently superior about any particular dialect of English – or any other language. The populations of Alabama, Manitoba, and Oxford shire are equally 'good' English speakers, from a linguist's perspective. Each distinct dialect presents an equally valid object of study. The belief that some dialects are better than others is just another form of the attitude that some ethnic groups or social classes are better than others (more simply, 'prejudice'). For we tend (often unconsciously) to attach prestige to the dialects of groups we admire, and to stigmatize the dialects of groups we look down upon.

Dude, that attitude is like so lasts millennium!



7

**Diphthongs.** English also has a few 'vowels' that are really a sequence of two vowels. These are called **diphthongs** (from Greek *dí'two* + *phthongos* 'sound'). The most common diphthong is the sound in *hide* or *eye*. It begins something like [A], and moves smoothly into [I]. If you say *eye* slowly, you can hear the one vowel change into the other. Because the sounds of a diphthong change from beginning to end, they are transcribed in IPA with two vowel symbols, as shown in Table 3.

**Table 3:** Diphthongs

IPA symbol	Examples
AI	hide, eye, sigh
AU	how, round
OI	boy, avoid

7

**Vowel + [®] sequences.** When a vowel appears before [®] in North American English, the [®] has a strong effect on the vowel's

sound, making identification of the vowel tricky, in some cases, for beginners at phonetic transcription. Here, then, is a list of examples.

**Table 4:** Vowel + [ɪ] sequences

IPA symbol	Examples	
ɪɪ	hair, cared, where, bear	
iɪ	here, weird, ear, beer	([iɪ] in many dialects)
Aɪ	barred, far, arm	
Oɪ	born, store, pour, shore	([oɪ] in a few dialects)
Uɪ	tour, poor, sure	([uɪ] or [Oɪ] in many dialects)

Check this list carefully, thinking about how you pronounce these words. Is the vowel + [ɪ] sequences in the examples on each row the same for you? Are the sounds of each row different from those of the other rows? For example, do you pronounce pour and poor differently, or the same?

A generation ago, many dialects of North American English had even more distinct vowel + [ɪ] sequences. The author's father, for example, pronounces *Mary*, *merry*, and *marry* differently: [meɪi], [mEɪi], [mæɪi]. The author himself pronounces *Mary* and *merry* both as [meɪi], while sometimes observing a distinction between these and *marry*. But most university-age speakers now pronounce all three as [meɪi].

What about the vowel sound in *her* or *bird*? In fact, there is no distinct vowel + [ɪ] sequence in these words. In the examples in Table 4, there is a clear change from the vowel into the [ɪ], much like the change in the diphthongs in Table 3, as you can confirm by pronouncing the examples slowly. But in *her* and *bird*, there is just a

single vowel sound: that is, the [ɪ] itself is 'serving as' the vowel. *Her* and *bird* should therefore be transcribed simply as [hɪ], [bɪd].

**Stress.** Consider the word *refund* [ɪfænd]. As a verb, the second vowel is **stressed** (it is a bit louder, longer and higher in pitch) than the first, whereas as a noun, the first vowel is stressed. This difference is reflecting in IPA with a vertical accent mark immediately before the stressed **syllable**. Thus, the sentence, *will you refund me the money?* is transcribed [wɪl ju ɪˈfænd mi Dˈmʌni?]; whereas the sentence, *I got my refund* is transcribed [AI gAt mAI ˈɪfænd].

### c. Summary

A few remaining points: Never capitalize IPA symbols. For example, use [g], not [G], for the initial consonant in *get*, even at the beginning of a sentence, and even in names. [G] stands for a different sound, not found in English. Also, take care to keep your IPA symbols distinct: it can be difficult for a reader to distinguish a sloppily written [U] from [u], or [ˈ] from [O], [D] from [d], etc.

No system of transcription can reflect all the minute differences between two utterances. There will be, for example, some differences in pronunciation between a forty-year-old man singing *Happy Birthday*, and a ten-year-old girl singing the same song. Indeed, even two forty-year-old men singing this will have individual voice characteristics, making the sounds somewhat different. For this level of detail, you need a recording. The IPA nevertheless provides a compact, low-tech, reasonably precise way of notating how the words

of a language are pronounced. A transcriber has to decide how much detail is needed, depending on the uses to which the transcription will be put: for a precise description of the sounds, a lot of detail is needed (**narrow transcription**); for a description of word-order in sentences, much less detail is needed – just enough to distinguish one word from another (**broad transcription**). Narrow transcriptions are enclosed in **[square brackets]**, broad transcriptions in **/slashes/**.

Here's the paragraph to the left, in IPA: [fAln'li, 'wA^nIN: bIɡn'z Of'n 'p'otS Al pi e t'œnsk'lpS'n bAI t'AIN t' t'œnzlet dAl'Ekli fr'm INɡlIS spElINz Int' Al pi e slmb'lz. bāt D' i e In ɡ'et, f' ɡzœmpl, lz nAt i, lts e. œz wiv not'd 'bāv, INɡlIS spElINz 'v sAUndz 'notO'sli INK'nslst'nt, mekIN Dis st'œt'dzi fānd'mEnt'li ānw'k'bl. 'œD', Olwiz bi 'we' 'v hAU D' w'd sAUndz In Eni Eks'sAlz InvAlVIN f'nEtIk t'œnsk'lpS'n.]

Finally, a warning: beginners often approach IPA transcription by trying to translate directly from English spellings into IPA symbols: e.g. *ea* (as in *treat*) = [i] in IPA. But the *ea* in *great*, for example, is not [i], it's [e]. As we've noted above, English spellings of sounds are notoriously inconsistent, making this strategy fundamentally unworkable. Rather, **always be aware of how the word sounds** in any exercise involving phonetic transcription.

Now here is the opening paragraph of this chapter in IPA. See if you can read it without referring back to page one:

In most fildz 'v stādi, lœNgw'dZ Iz TOt 'v prIns'pli In t@mz 'v D' @It'n w@d, f@ It Iz In Dis fO@m Doet wi juZ'li mek

p@m'n'nt @Ek@dZ 'v ImpO't'nt Aldi'z. @El'tlvli llt'l 'tEnS'n Iz spe@d f@ sãmpTIN 'z flitIN 'nd 'n@imA@k'b'l 'z spok'n kAnv@seS'n. In lINgwIstIks, hAwEv@, spitS, @œD@ D'n @AltIN, Iz @IɡA@d'd 'z mO@ sEnt@'l t' hjum'n lœNgw'dZ, f@ sEv@'l @iz'nz. f@st, hjum'nz h'v p@Ab'bli spok'n lœNgw'dZ'z f@ fliti TAuz'nd ji@z, p@hœps mâtS lONg@. @AltIN Iz a @El'tlvli @is'nt d'vEl'pm'nt, onli 'fju TAuz'nd ji@z old. iv'n t'de, De@ @ s'sAI'tiz witS spik lœNgw'dZ'z wIT no @AltIN sist'm, O@ we@ @AltIN Iz sEld'm juzd. bāt De@ Iz no s'sAI'ti wItS k'mjunIkets dZãst bAI @AltIN, wITAUt ' spok'n lœNgw'dZ. f@D@mO@, tSIld@'n l@nt' spik lON bIFO@ De l@nt' @id 'nd @Alt; Indid, l@nIN 'v spok'n lœNgw'dZ teks ples wIDAUt fO@m'l Inst@ãkS'n. bāt d'z O@dIne@i spitS @ili wO@'nt sAI'ntflk 't'nS'n? OIdo wi dZEn@'li tek D' p@AsEs'z 'v spitS p@dãkS'n 'nd @Ek'gnIS'n f@ ɡœnt'd, De InvAlv ' @endZ 'v s@p@AlzINli Int@Ik't mEnt'l 'blitiz – pA@t 'v D' nAl'dZ wi hœv 'v D' lœNgw'dZ'z wi spik. D' w@dZ D't wi wIS tu 'ksp@Es sim tu im@dZ Ot'mœtlkli f@m AU@ mAUDz, 'z sAUnd wevz. Dis sAUnd wevz DEN hlt D' hi@z i@, sEndIN Od'tO@'ni slgn'lz t' D' b@en, wItS @ Int@p@'t'd – 'ɡEn, simINli Ot'mœt'kli – 'z D' w@dZ IntEnd'd bAI D' spik@. wāt kAlnd 'v mEnt'l sist'm mAlt ānd@lAI Dis k'pœs'ti t' @Ek'gnAlz 'nd p@dus spitS? wItS œspEkts 'v Dis sist'm 'pi@ t' bi kAm'n tu Ol hjum'nz, 'nd wItS œspEkts ve@i f@m lœNgw'dZ t' lœNgw'dZ? 'nd wāt 'gzœktli goz An In D' mAUT 'nd T@ot In O@d@ t' p@dus Dis sAUndz? Diz sO@ts 'v kwEstS'ns @ D' domen 'v f'nEtIks 'nd f'nAl'dZI (boT f@m D' ɡ@ik @ut fon- 'sAUnd'), D' tu sãbfildz 'v lINgwIstIks k'ns@nd wIT spitS sAUndz. In D' @imend@ 'v Dis tSœpt@, wi 'gzœm'n s'm besIk Abz@veS'nz, t@m'nAl'dZI, 'nd tEkniks 'v 'nœl'sls juzd bAI fon'tIS'nz 'nd f'nAl'dZIs ts tu 'd@Es Dis kwEstS'nz.

Note that the pronunciation of particular words in a phrase may vary from their pronunciation in isolation, e.g. *and* as [ˈnd] rather than [ænd].

For your convenient reference, we repeat, in consolidated form, the IPA symbols discussed above:

**Table 5:** IPA symbols for the basic sounds of North American English

Consonants	Vowels
p pat, hippy, trip	i see, funny, bead
t top, return, pat	I bit, sing, rib
k cat, biker, stick	e haze, great, obey
b bat, rubber, snob	E bet, send, affect
d day, adore, bad	æ stamp, pack, yeah
g guts, baggy, rig	u loon, flute, soup, who
f photo, coffee, laugh	U pull, good, book
v voice, river, live	o go, boat, pole, sew
T think, author, teeth	O caught, dawn, boss
D this, weather, teethe	A cot, Don, father
s sit, receive, bass	ɑ shut, come, bug
z zoom, fuzzy, maze	˞ around, Alberta, element
S ship, pressure, rash	
tʃ chip, future, stitch	Diphthongs
Z Jacques, leisure, rouge	AI hide, eye, I, sigh
dʒ jerk, procedure, edge	AU how, round
m mice, lemon, him	OI boy, avoid
n nick, funny, gain	
N singer, bang, bank	Vowels + ɚ
l light, yellow, feel	Aɚ barred, far, arm
ɚ rice, very, bird, her, fur	eɚ hair, cared, where
w winter, away	iɚ here, weird, beer
j yell, onion	Oɚ born, store
h hill, ahead	Uɚ tour, moor

### ACTIVITY 5!

- Each word below (as pronounced by a native speaker of any dialect of English) has one clear mistake in its transcription. Circle the specific part of the transcription where the mistake occurs, and show what the correct symbol(s) (if any) should be. (Ex: honest, [hAnˈst], *should be* ɒ (i.e. nothing); rain, [rAIn], *should be* e.)

*Written:*                      *IPA:*                      *Should be:*

*Written:*                      *IPA:*                      *Should be:*

- |                           |                          |
|---------------------------|--------------------------|
| a. shine [shAIn] _____    | b. beauty [bjuty] _____  |
| c. wrench [wɚEntS] _____  | d. paper[papɚ] _____     |
| e. jumping [jʌmpIN] _____ | f. savage [sævœdZ] _____ |
| g. user [uzɚ] _____       | h. shed [Sed] _____      |
| i. teacher [tichɚ] _____  | j. his [hIs] _____       |

- Give the English words corresponding to the following IPA transcriptions:

- |                 |                 |
|-----------------|-----------------|
| a. [bAks] _____ | b. [bled] _____ |
| c. [sin] _____  | d. [kloD] _____ |
| e. [sʌN] _____  | f. [steɚ] _____ |
| g. [but] _____  | h. [ɚod] _____  |
| i. [jœm] _____  | j. [itS] _____  |

- Transcribe the following English words using IPA, based on your own pronunciation; if you are not a (near-) native speaker of English, use the pronunciation of a friend who is.

- |                |                |
|----------------|----------------|
| a. board _____ | b. touch _____ |
|----------------|----------------|

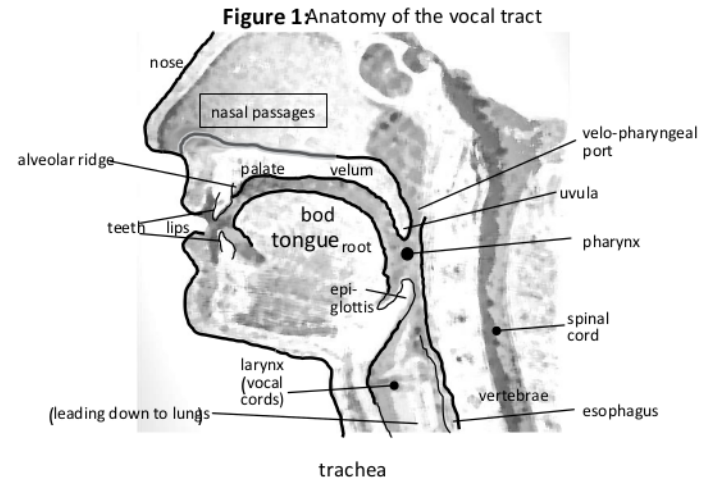
- c. queen \_\_\_\_\_ d. graph \_\_\_\_\_  
 e. feelings \_\_\_\_\_ f. laundry \_\_\_\_\_  
 g. crime \_\_\_\_\_ h. thigh \_\_\_\_\_  
 i. shoot \_\_\_\_\_ j. belong \_\_\_\_\_

4. What does this passage say? Write it in English spelling.

[wAI Iz INglIS spEIIN so INk'nsIst'nt? INglIS spEIIN @ilAI'bli  
 kO@'spAndz t' p@'nAnsieS'n - 'z D' l@Ngw'dZ w'z spok'n fAIv  
 hAnd@d ji@z 'go, D@et Iz. D' p@'nAnsieS'n 'v w@dzh'z tSendZd  
 d@m@etIkli In D@et tAlm, bAt spEIINz h@v'nt bin slst'm@etIkli  
 @pdet'd t' rIFIEkt Diz saUnd tSendZ's. EksEpS'nz Olso 'AIZ dju  
 t' bA@'wINz f@m @D@ l@Ngw'dZ's. D' spEIINgz A@ Ofn  
 bA@od tu, 'nd D' @'z@lts f@ikw'ntli k'nflkt wID nO@m'l  
 INglIS spEIIN @ulz, f@ Egz@mp'l, It@lj'n tSelo (we@ D' lEt@  
 si Iz p@'nAUnst s) v@s'z INglIS sEl (we@ si Iz p@'nAUnst s).]

### 3. ARTICULATORY PHONETICS

The study of how speech sounds are formed in the mouth (or 'articulated') is called **articulatory phonetics**. Speech sounds are produced by the **vocal tract**: the mouth, nose, throat, and lungs. Let's take a look inside:

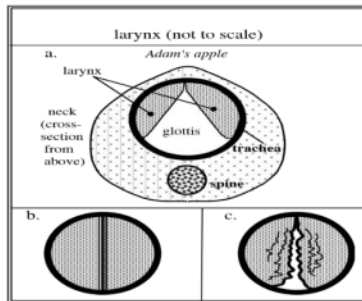


#### a. Anatomy

The **alveolar ridge** refers to the gums just behind the upper teeth. The **palate** refers to the 'hard palate,' i.e. the roof of the mouth. The 'soft palate' is called the **velum**, and ends in the **uvula** (this is the fleshy appendage you can see hanging down in the back of your throat). If the velum is raised, this closes the **velo-pharyngeal port**, preventing airflow between the nasal passages



and the rest of the vocal tract. The tongue is a mass of muscle, which we can divide into tip (the only part you usually see), body, and root. The **epiglottis** is a flap below the **pharynx** (the back of the **Figure 2**: Schematic representations of the throat): it covers the **trachea** (or 'windpipe') when you swallow, so that food goes down the esophagus instead.



Lastly, the **larynx** is a sort of valve, encased in cartilage (the 'Adam's apple,' more prominent in males, but present in all humans), at the top of the trachea. It opens wide during breathing (Fig. 2a); closes when you swallow (b); and when you say a vowel, the two sides draw together, so that they vibrate as air passes through (c). This **voicing** (pulsing of air in the **glottis** as it passes through the vibrating larynx) is what creates the sound of your voice.

## b. Consonants

Speech sounds are the result of movements of parts of the vocal tract, particularly the lips, tongue tip, tongue body, and larynx

(the major **articulators**) which affect the flow of air as you exhale. **Consonants** are formed with significant **obstruction** of this airflow by one or more of the articulators; whereas in **vowels**, the mouth remains relatively open. We can describe particular types of consonants in terms of *how much obstruction* is involved (**manner of articulation**).

**Stops** ([p,t,k,b,d,g]) involve a complete blockage of airflow, due to full closure at some point in the mouth.

**Nasals** ([m,n,N]) involve complete closure in the mouth, but the back of the velum is lowered, allowing the airflow to pass through the velo-pharyngeal port, and out the nose.

**Fricatives** ([f,v,T,D,s,z,S,Z,ʃ,h]) involve a partial constriction in the mouth, such that airflow is forced through a narrow channel, creating a hissing sound.

**Affricates** is a term sometimes used for stop + fricative sequences made with the same articulator, including ([tʃ,dʒ]).

**Approximants** ([l,ʀ,j,w]) involve less obstruction than a fricative, but more than a vowel. In an [l], the tip of the tongue often makes full contact with the alveolar ridge, but one side of the tongue is lowered: [l] is therefore called a **lateral approximant**; the others are **central**.

We can also classify consonants in terms of the state of the larynx (**phonation**) during their pronunciation.

**Voiced** consonants ([b,d,g,v,D,z,Z,m,n,l,ʀ,j,w]) are accompanied by voicing (Fig 2c).

In **voiceless** consonants ([p,t,k,f,T,s,S,h]), the glottis is more open, as in Fig. 2a, so that air passes through without vibrating.

Finally, consonants can be described in terms of *where* the obstruction occurs in the vocal tract (**place of articulation**).

**Bilabials** ([p,b,m,w]) involve closure or constriction of the two lips.

**Labiodentals** ([f,v]) involve constriction of the upper teeth and lower lip.

**Dentals** ([T,D]) involve constriction of the tongue tip and the upper teeth.

**Alveolars** ([t,d,n,s,z,ʀ,l]) involve constriction of the tongue tip and the alveolar ridge.

**Post-alveolars** (or palato-alveolars) ([S,Z]) involve constriction of the tongue tip and the palate, just behind the alveolar ridge.

**Palatals** ([j]) involve constriction of the tongue body and the palate.

**Velars** ([k,g,N,(w)]) involve constriction of the tongue body and the velum. ([w] is considered a velar as well as a bilabial because it involves constrictions both at the lips and velum.)

**Glottals** ([h]) involve constriction of the glottis (in this case, sufficient constriction to create a fricative, but not enough to cause voicing).

These classifications of consonants are summarized in the following chart:

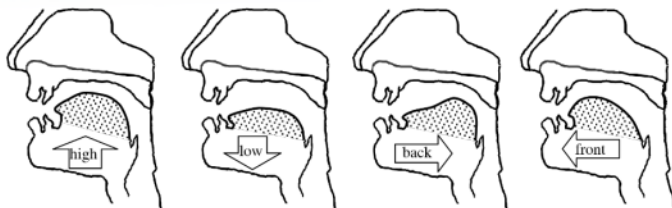
**Table 6:** Classification of English consonants by manner, place and phonation type

		bilabial	labiodental	dental	alveolar	postalveolar	palatal	Velar	glottal
stops	voiceless	p			t			K	
	voiced	b			d			G	
fricatives	voiceless		f	T	s	S			
	voiced		v	D	z	Z			h
affricates	voiceless					tS			
	voiced					dZ			
nasals		m			n			N	
approximants	central	w			ʃ		j	(w)	
	lateral				l				

We can thus articulatory describe [s] as a voiceless alveolar fricative; [N] as a (voiced) velar stop; etc. Likewise, we can refer to the *set* [b,d,g] as the class of voiced stops. A **natural class of sounds** is a set such as this, which can be defined in terms of some shared phonetic property or properties.

### c. Vowels

Unlike consonants, the various vowels are distinguished by the way the shape of the mouth – in particular, the position of the tongue body – affects the sound of your voice – in particular, the position of the **tongue body**. **Figure 3:** Tongue body positions



Using height and frontness of the tongue body (Fig. 3), we can classify the vowels of English as shown in Table 6.

**Table 7:** Classification of English vowels by height and frontness, etc.

		front	central	back
<b>high</b>	close	i		u
	open	ɪ		ʊ
<b>mid</b>	close	e	ə	o
	open	ɛ		ɔ
<b>low</b>	close	æ	ɐ	
	open		a	ɑ

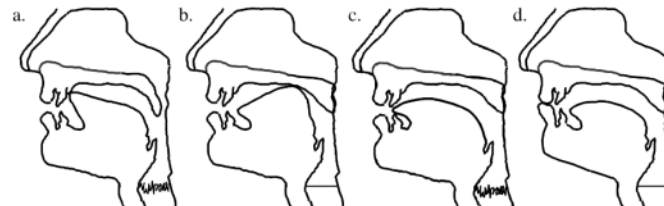
Note that the term '**mid**' refers to vowel *height*, while '**central**' refers to the front/back dimension.

We use '**close**' and '**open**' to further differentiate vowel heights within the high, mid, and low ranges.

In addition to tongue-body position, vowels are affected by **rounding** of the **lips**. The **rounded vowels** of English are enclosed in the oval in Table 6. We can thus describe [u] as a *close-high back rounded vowel*; [ɛ] is an *open-mid front unrounded vowel*; [a] is a *low central unrounded vowel*; etc.

### ACTIVITY 6!

1. Give the IPA symbols for the sounds corresponding the articulations shown in the following diagrams. (Voicing is indicated with a zig-zag line at the larynx.)



2. Give the IPA symbols for the sounds with the following articulatory descriptions:

- a. voiceless glottal fricative \_\_\_\_\_
- b. voiced bilabial nasal \_\_\_\_\_
- c. open-high back rounded vowel \_\_\_\_\_
- d. voiced palatal approx \_\_\_\_\_
- e. voiced post-alveolar fricative \_\_\_\_\_

3. Give the articulatory description for the following sounds:

- a. [N] \_\_\_\_\_
- b. [j] \_\_\_\_\_
- c. [T] \_\_\_\_\_
- d. [v] \_\_\_\_\_
- d. [e] \_\_\_\_\_

4. The following sets of sounds are natural classes, characterized by shared articulatory properties. For each of the sets, identify these properties. Examples: [t,d] are the set of *alveolar stops*. [m,n,N]

are the set of *nasals*; they are also *voiced*, but the voiced set includes other sounds as well, so only *nasals* is correct.

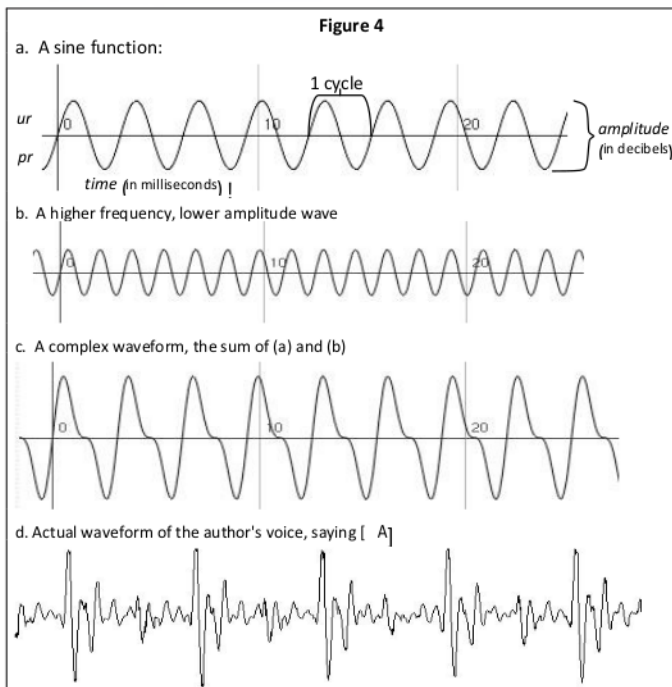
- a. [i,I,e,E,œ] \_\_\_\_\_
- b. [p,b] \_\_\_\_\_
- c. [®,l,j,w] \_\_\_\_\_
- d. [v,D,z,Z] \_\_\_\_\_
- e. [i,I,u,U] \_\_\_\_\_

## 4. ACOUSTIC PHONETICS

### a. Fundamentals of sound

Speech sounds can also be understood in terms of their **acoustic** properties, i.e. properties of the soundwaves. Soundwaves are simply waves of fluctuating air pressure, radiating out from their source. It is the structure of these waves which distinguishes one sound from another.

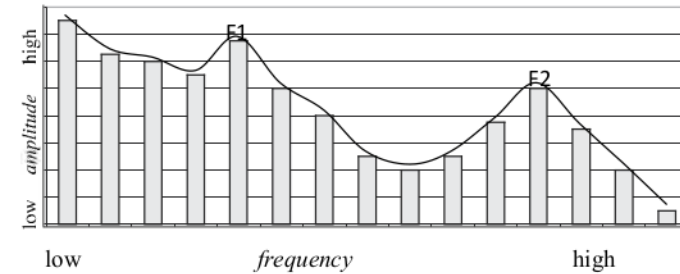
In a **pure tone** (approximated by the sound of a tuning fork) these ripples of air pressure correspond to a simple sine function, where the x-axis is *time*, and the y-axis is *pressure*. Such a wave has a particular **frequency**, measured in **Herz (cycles per second)**: the higher the frequency, the *higher* the sound is in pitch. The sine wave in Fig. 4a has a little over 3 cycles per 10 milliseconds, or 300 cycles per second, i.e. 300 Hz. Moreover, the more extreme the fluctuations in pressure, the greater the **amplitude** of the wave (measured in **decibels**), and the *louder* the sound. In comparison to Fig. 4a, the wave in Fig. 4b is higher and quieter. If we *sum* the two waves above, the result is a **complex waveform** (4c). The more individual sine waves we combine, the more complex the resulting waveform.



The sound signals of speech are always complex waveforms (see Fig. 4d). But just as we can sum simple sine waves to yield the complex wave in Fig. 4c, we can also take a complex waveform and break it down into simple waves, each with its own frequency and amplitude (a mathematical technique called **Fourier analysis**). The lowest frequency component of the waveform is called the **fundamental** frequency (**F0**), which we hear as the basic pitch of the speaker's voice. The higher-frequency waves, all natural number multiples of the fundamental, are called **harmonics**. In speech,

particular harmonics can be louder or quieter, depending on the position of the tongue and other organs of the vocal tract. The amplitude profile (the dotted line in Fig. 5) of these harmonics (the vertical bars of varying heights) forms a **spectrum**.

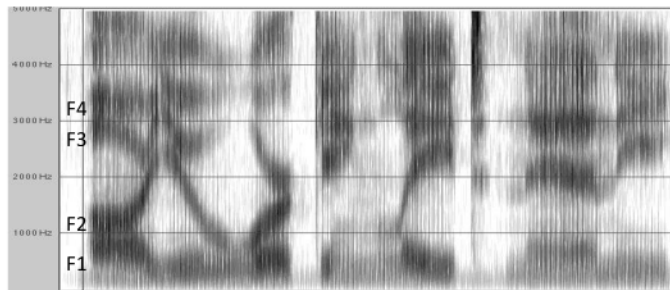
**Figure 5:** Schematic spectrum of a complex waveform



Peaks in the spectrum are called **formants**: the lowest-frequency peak above the fundamental is called the **first formant**, or **F1**; the next is **F2**, and so on (only the first three formants are relevant for speech perception).

Fig. 5 shows a spectrum of a speech sound at a single point in time. It is more informative, however, to show how the spectrum changes from moment to moment during speech. Such a display is called a **spectrogram** – with *time* on the x-axis, *frequency* on the y-axis, and the *higher-amplitude* frequency regions shown as darker areas (Fig. 6).

**Figure 6:** Spectrogram of 'Are you working late, Nanny?'



[ A ə j u w ə k l N l e t n ə n i ]

The thick horizontal bands in Fig. 6 are the formants. The grainy vertical 'ridges' (**striations**) are individual *pulses of voicing*. This display helps us understand which **cues** (acoustic properties) identify particular consonants and vowels.

#### b. Vowel cues

Vowels are acoustically distinguished principally by the **frequencies of the formants**.

- ! The **higher** the vowel articulatory, the **lower the F1 frequency**.
- ! The **backer** the vowel, the **lower the F2 frequency**.
- ! Lip **rounding** further **lowers F2**.

The formants smoothly **change** in frequency during a **diphthong**, from the values of the first vowel to those of the second.

#### c. Approximant cues

Approximants are similar in cues to vowels.

- ! [w,j] are very **similar** in their formant frequencies **to the high vowels** [u,i] respectively, but a bit **shorter** in duration, with a slightly **lower F1**, and a slight **weakening** of the higher formants, particularly in [w].
- ! [ɹ] is similar in formant frequencies to [ʻ], but with **low F3**.
- ! [l] is similar to [ɹ], but with **high F3**.

#### d. Fricative cues

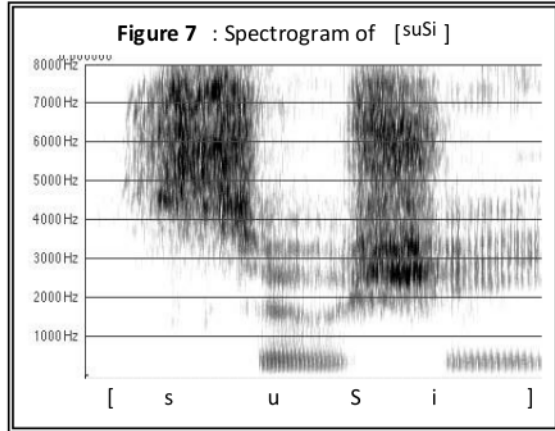
Up to this point, we have focused on **periodic** (humming) sounds. Periodic sounds, such as the vowel shown in Fig. 4d, have a repeating pattern to the waveform. Fricatives, however, involve **aperiodic** (hissing or crackling) noise. Note in Fig. 7 the fricatives [s] and [ʃ], which look like charcoal smudges, vs. the vowels [u] and [i], which have clear vertical striations and clear formants.

Although they have no fundamental frequency, aperiodic signals can be stronger in some frequencies and weaker in others.

- ! The alveolar [s] has almost all of its noise above 4000 Hz ([z] too), whereas the postalveolar fricative's noise extends down to 2000 Hz.

Voiced fricatives are generally shorter than the voiceless ones, and may have a band of voicing striations along the bottom of the spectrogram.

The other fricatives ([f,v,T,D,h]) are all much quieter than [s,S,z,Z]. The labiodentals ([f,v]) are typically slightly louder than the interdental, with more noise below 4000 Hz. [h] has bands of aperiodic energy in the same frequency regions as the formants of adjacent vowels.



#### e. Stop cues

The complete articulatory closure in a stop results in an interval of silence, which shows up as a blank column on a spectrogram, followed by a brief burst of aperiodic noise when the closure is released (see the [k] and [t] in Fig. 6). The stops are distinguished from each other by movement of the formants before and after closure (formant transitions) and by properties of the burst.

In bilabial stops, all formants move downward heading into the closure, and upward coming out of the closure.

In alveolar stops, F2 heads towards a frequency of around 1800 Hz moving into closure, and originates from the same frequency coming out of closure. The release burst has considerable energy above 4000 Hz (note the burst after the [t] in Fig. 5).

In velar stops, F2 and F3 move toward each other heading into closure, and split apart coming out of closure. Velars also frequently have a double burst note the two vertical 'blips' of noise after the [k] in Fig. 5).

Voiced stops are shorter than voiceless stops, and they may have a narrow band of dark striations (a voicing bar) at the very bottom of the spectrogram. Voiceless stops, particularly in English, have a delay between the release burst and the start-up of full voicing in the following vowel.

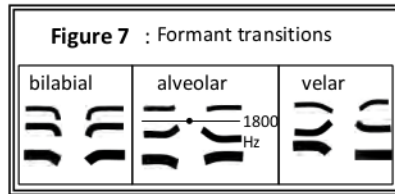
#### f. Nasal cues

Nasals are acoustically somewhat like approximants, and somewhat like stops.

They resemble approximants in that one can see formants and voicing striations during the whole consonant. Nasals have a low F1, and a marked weakening of the higher formants.

Like stops, identification of the nasal's place of articulation depends on formant transitions, into and out of closure. The

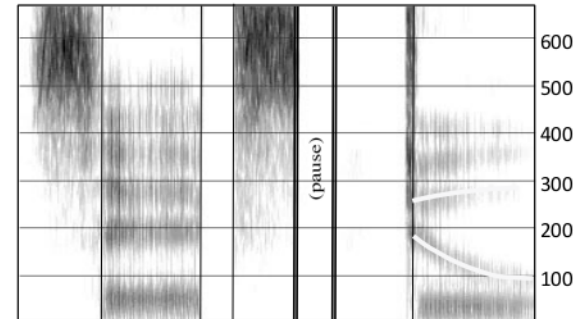
transitions in a bilabial nasal are similar to those of a bilabial stop; likewise for nasals and stops at other places of articulation.



### ACTIVITY 7:

1. Fill in the blanks:
  - a. A soundwave without a repeating pattern is \_\_\_\_\_.
  - b. A graphic display of sound showing changes in formants over time is a \_\_\_\_\_.
  - c. The basic pitch of a voice is its \_\_\_\_\_ frequency.
  - d. Voicing appears on a spectrogram as \_\_\_\_\_.
  - e. Stops appear on a spectrogram as \_\_\_\_\_.
2. Fill in the blanks:
  - a. The differences between [s] and [Z], as they appear on a spectrogram, are \_\_\_\_\_.
  - b. The differences between [m] and [N], as they appear on a spectrogram, are \_\_\_\_\_.

- c. The differences between [e] and [o], as they appear on a spectrogram, are \_\_\_\_\_.
  - d. The vowel [i] has \_\_\_\_\_ F1 frequency and \_\_\_\_\_ F2 frequency (*high or low*).
  - e. The vowel [A] has \_\_\_\_\_ F1 frequency and \_\_\_\_\_ F2 frequency (*high or low*).
3. The following spectrogram contains two single-digit numbers of English. What are they (in order)? To help you, dotted lines are drawn between the sounds, a pause between the words is marked, and F1-F3 are highlighted.





## 5. THE PROBLEM OF VARIATION IN SPEECH

*One potato, two potatoes, three potatoes, four...*



Behind this childhood counting-game lies a profound scientific puzzle. For each utterance of *potato* as someone recites this rhyme, the actual soundwaves hitting a listener's ear are somewhat different, depending on such factors as speech rate, loudness, background noise, position within the sentence. If several people say it, there are even greater differences, depending on the age, gender, and dialect of each speaker. More generally, we can say that, like snowflakes or fingerprints (or potatoes, for that matter), no two utterances of a word are ever exactly the same, in English or any other language.

But except in extreme cases, we are able to instantly recognize each utterance as a mere repetition of the same word, *potato*; indeed, we are generally not even aware of the variation. How is it that English-speakers can zero in – without any conscious thought – on the properties of the sound signal which distinguish the intended word, in this case *potato*, from similar-sounding words (e.g. *tomato* or *petunia*), without getting sidetracked by the irrelevant differences? Speakers of other languages show the same facility in recognizing words of their language, despite similar types of variation in the signal. In fact, humans' ability in this regard is far more sophisticated than that of any

existing speech recognition software, even running on the world's most powerful supercomputer.

Furthermore, the particular properties of the sound signal which distinguish one word from another vary from language to language. For example, in English, in the word *boot* ([but]), you can draw out the vowel for 400 msec (0.4 seconds), or shorten it to 150 msec (0.15 seconds): such a vowel duration difference is merely an irrelevant detail. However, in Cree, an indigenous language spoken through much of Canada, these distinct vowel durations can mean the difference between one word and another. Conversely, English has a distinction between the vowel sounds in *greet* ([g@it]) and *grit* ([g@It]), whereas this vowel distinction is absent in French.

In sum, there is no uniform set of sound properties which are relevant for speech across all languages. And since we grow up speaking the language(s) of the society around us (not necessarily those of our biological ancestors), our ability to zero in on the particular set of sound properties which are relevant for our language can't be attributed to our genes, like hair colour. Important aspects of this mental speech system have to be learned. Indeed, this is a crucial part of learning a language fluently. But in the case of a first language, we seem to pick up this knowledge within a few years of birth, without any formal instruction – in fact, without much conscious thought at all.

In the remainder of this chapter, we focus on the observation that languages obey **phonological rules** – rules concerning what

sounds may occur in the language, and how these sounds may be put together to form words of the language. Have you ever overheard someone speaking a language you don't understand – nevertheless you've been able to recognize the language as French, Spanish, Chinese, etc.? How can you identify a language without being able to recognize any of the words? The answer is that you're recognizing the phonological rules which characterize the language.

**So what do you know?**

If you speak English fluently, you must already 'know' the phonological rules of English. But how can you 'know' something that you've never even thought about before? Actually you know a great many things, without being at all conscious of that knowledge. For example, you probably know how to pick up a carton of milk, a complex task requiring nearly instantaneous assessment of the weight of the milk vs. the strength of the container, so that you neither drop nor crush it (robots are terrible at this task). But humans do this without conscious thought; and it is difficult to put this knowledge into precise words. Psychologists call this 'implicit knowledge.' Speakers' knowledge of the phonological rules of their language is likewise implicit. We're generally unaware of these rules (outside of linguistics courses). But we instantly detect violations of these rules, e.g. in speech with a foreign accent, or in computer-synthesized speech.

A plausible hypothesis is that phonological rules arise as particular languages' responses to this problem of maintaining recognizable words despite variation. Consider the fact that language sound systems (henceforth '**phonological systems**') must be able to convey a broad range of information, with a minimum of confusion, for a broad range of speakers and hearers, across a broad range of

**situations.** This practical consideration introduces two important constraints on phonological systems:

**Ease of perception:** recovery of meaning must not depend on cues which are

- ! subtle, i.e. difficult to hear, nor
- ! unstable, i.e. not always present in the signal, nor singular, i.e. differences in meaning are not supported by
- ! multiple cues; misperception of just one cue could result in confusion of meaning.

**Ease of articulation:** recovery of meaning must not depend on cues that require highly effortful or precise articulations.

**Weird phonology:**

A language might consist of nothing but sequences of [f] and [T], where [fTfT] means 'dog', [TffTf] means 'cat', etc. It might be 'spoken' by singing particular sequences of exact pitches. More imaginatively, Kurt Vonnegut's novel *Slaughterhouse Five* presents a race of extraterrestrials who communicate by tapdancing and making other bodily noises. Clearly, none of these is remotely like a real human language. But what's the difference; and why hasn't any human society ever developed anything like them? A plausible answer is that these imaginary systems seriously violate **Ease of Perception** or **Ease of Articulation**. The [fTfT] language depends upon accurate perception of quiet fricatives, which are easily confused with each other, and easily masked by background noise. Vonnegut's alien language would be considerably more strenuous (for earthlings, at any rate) than speech. And the singing language would require all speaker/hearers to have perfect pitch (in perception) and flawless intonation (in production).

On the other hand, language doesn't need sound at all. Sign languages (principally used by deaf communities) are complete human languages, independent of the sound-based languages of the societies around them; and they are sight- rather than sound-based. Nevertheless, sign languages are subject to similar functional constraints: they avoid signs which involve extreme physical exertion or dexterity (e.g. walking on one's hands), or which require perception of extremely subtle gestures (e.g. a twitch of the calf muscles).

Each language develops its own particular set of rules, as strategies for satisfying these constraints. This is not to say that anyone ever sat down and consciously *designed* a phonological system. Rather, these systems continually evolve, through the back-and forth of communication, and miscommunication, between speakers and hearers – including young children learning the language. Moreover, these rules are not **prescriptive** rules, which speakers are explicitly taught that they *should* obey (e.g. *don't say 'ain't'*): speakers follow these rules without even thinking about them. Indeed, it requires careful analysis, and some understanding of phonetics, to be able to figure out what the rules are – even for one's own language.

## 6. PHONEMES AND ALLOPHONES

### a. Allophonic variation

Because the organs of the vocal tract generally move in smooth trajectories rather than abrupt jerks, sounds are inevitably influenced by the sounds around them. As a case in point, consider

the influence of nasal consonants on preceding vowels in English. In words such as *ran*, *doom*, or *sing*, the velum begins to lower, opening the nasal passages, well before the oral closure in the nasal consonant begins. This results in a significant part of the vowel being **nasalized**. This sort of overlap in movements of the articulators is called **coarticulation**. In a narrow transcription, these examples should therefore be transcribed as [ʀœ̃n], [dũm], [sɪ̃N] ([-̃] is the IPA **diacritic**, or supplementary symbol, for nasalization).

We thus have two different sets of vowels in English:

nasal ([ĩ,ũ,Ĩ,Ũ,ẽ,ʹõ,Ẽ,Õ,œ̃,ẫ,Ã]), and oral  
! ([i,u,I,U,e,ʹo,E,O,œ,â,A]).

English speakers are generally unaware of this phonetic distinction in their speech, because there are no *words* solely distinguished by nasalization of vowels. We have *bow* ([bo]) and *bone* ([bõn]), but not [bo]. On the other hand, this nasalization is not simply an automatic physiological consequence of pronouncing a vowel before a nasal consonant. Some languages *do* have this distinction in words, e.g. French [bo] ('handsome') vs. [bõ] ('good'), or Dene Suõine (an indigenous language of Northwestern Canada) [tÃbil] ('net *for* water') vs. [tA]bil] ('net *in* water').

Languages also cope with variation by enhancing certain phonetic distinctions with additional cues. Consider the close and open mid vowels of English, [e,o] vs. [E,O]. The close vowels generally have lower F1 than the open ones; but this is a slight difference, and

it's far from 100% reliable: some [E]'s have lower F1 than [e]'s, even for the same speaker. The height distinction is therefore reinforced by a duration distinction: [e,o] are typically considerably longer than [E,O]. But the duration cue is not reliable either: in fast speech, all vowels shorten, potentially wiping out the difference between long and short vowels. English has one more trick up its sleeve: the close mid vowels are heavily **diphthongized** in most dialects. Words such as *day*, *fake*, and *so*, *boat*, are therefore narrowly transcribed [deI], [feIk] and [soU], [boUt] (the extra duration of the close mid vowels is also reflected in this transcription, since there are two vowel symbols rather than one). These three cues, all working together, make the close/open distinction in mid vowels more **robust** (i.e. less likely to be misperceived). Other languages, such as Spanish, avoid these potential problems of variation, and resulting possibilities of miscommunication, by having a simpler vowel system: [i,e,u,o,a]. Since there are no words in Spanish differentiated by the close/open distinction, Spanish speakers' mid vowels can vary between [e] and [E] without risk of confusion.

In many cases, coarticulation and perceptual enhancement are both involved in a particular pattern of variation. The English vowel nasalization coarticulation described above, for example, can also be viewed as a kind of perceptual enhancement: the nasalization of the vowel enhances perception of the following nasal consonant, thus preventing a word such as *bone* from being confused with *bowl* or

*bowed*. In sum, this pattern of variation in English can be viewed as having both an articulatory and a perceptual basis:

By allowing the velum to lower sluggishly over the course of the vowel + nasal sequence, rather than abruptly at the beginning of the nasal, less articulatory precision and effort are required.

And by extending the span of the nasal cue into the preceding vowel, perception of the nasal consonant is improved.

## b. Phonemic Analysis

To help us concisely describe the role of particular cues in particular languages' sound systems, linguists use the following terminology:

A distinction between two sounds (or sequences of sounds) is **phonemic** if it corresponds to a difference in the *meaning* of words, either by itself (e.g. vowel nasalization in French and Dene Su)Öine), or as the primary distinction among a set of cues (e.g. the open/close distinction in mid vowels in English).

Otherwise, the distinction is **allophonic** (e.g. vowel duration and diphthongization in mid vowels, and vowel nasalization, in English), from Greek *allo-* 'other' + *phon* 'sound', i.e. a variant sound.

The fact that a particular distinction can be phonemic in one language and allophonic in another, gives rise to a problem for

newcomers to a language: how do you determine which distinctions are phonemic? Most language learners eventually figure this out (more or less) through trial and error, with little awareness of what they're trying to learn (particularly in first-language acquisition). Linguists, on the other hand, who are interested in understanding and explicitly describing the structure of languages, tackle this problem using a technique called **phonemic analysis**, examining sets of words – in phonetic transcription, or in spectrograms if more detail is needed – and looking for patterns in the sounds. No further knowledge of the language is required. We will apply this technique to the following data set, from Finnish (the [...] diacritic indicates that the preceding vowel is long).

l	ku...zi	'six'	li...sa	'Lisa'	kade	'envious'
	kadot	'failures'	madon	'of a worm'	ku...zi	'six'
	kate	'cover'	maton	'of a rug'	li...za	'Lisa'
	katot	'roofs'	ratas	'wheel'	radan	'of a track'

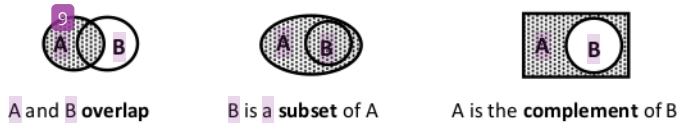
**Minimal pairs.** The first step in solving a phonemic analysis problem is to look for a **minimal pair** in the data set, i.e. two words with different meanings, which are identical except for the phonetic distinction in question: *such a minimal pair establishes that the distinction is phonemic*. Let's say we're interested in determining whether the distinction between [t] and [d] is phonemic in Finnish. In the list above, [kadot] and [katot] are identical except for this very distinction; and these two words clearly have different meanings ('failures' vs. 'roofs'). They therefore count as a minimal pair,

establishing that voicing in alveolar stops is phonemic in Finnish. There are other minimal pairs in this data set establishing the same thing ([kate] vs. [kade], [maton] vs. [madon]); but once you've found *one* minimal pair for a given distinction, its phonemic status is conclusively established, and you don't have to look any further.

**Free variation.** Now let's turn to the distinction between [s] and [z] in Finnish. We find the pair [ku...zi] vs. [ku...si]; but note that they both mean 'six'. That is, we don't have two words with different meanings here, but two transcriptions of the *same word*, with some variation in pronunciation. They are therefore *not* a minimal pair. The same is true for [li...sa] vs. [li...za]. We now have to look for positive evidence of allophonic status. We see in [ku...zi] vs. [ku...si] that voicing in alveolar fricatives does *not* correspond to a difference in meaning. This kind of allophonic pattern is called **free variation**: either sound is free to occur, in the exact same position in a word, but no difference in meaning results.

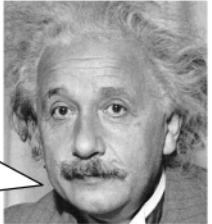
**Complementary distribution.** Recall the discussion of vowel nasalization in English: nasal vowels occur immediately before nasal consonants, and nowhere else; whereas oral vowels can occur everywhere *except* before nasal consonants. That is, one class of sounds occurs in a particular phonetic context, and the other occurs elsewhere. To describe this kind of **distribution** of sounds (i.e. which sounds can occur where), linguists borrow some terminology from set theory in mathematics:

**Figure 8:** Some set relations



As illustrated in the Fig. 8, the **complement** of a set is *everything that lies outside* that set. Two sounds (or two groups of sounds) are therefore said to be in **complementary distribution** when one group occurs in one set of contexts, and the other group occurs in the complement of contexts – i.e. everywhere else. When two phonetically similar sounds or natural classes are in **complementary distribution**, we may conclude that the distinction between them is **allophonic**. This is clearly the case for nasal and oral vowels in English. You can predict whether any given vowel will be nasal or oral just by knowing the phonetic context it occurs in. The distinction does not correspond to a difference in meaning.

phonetic similarity + complementary distribution = **allophonic variation**



We must further state a **rule** governing the contexts in which each class of allophones occur. We could state that

[i,u,I,U,e,ʻ,,,o,E,O), œ,â,a,A)] occur before [n,m,N], and that [i,u,I,U,e,ʻ,,,o,E,O,œ,â,a,A] occur elsewhere. But the pattern can be stated more simply and insightfully by referring to the phonetic properties of the natural classes affected by the rule: a vowel is nasal before a nasal consonant, and oral elsewhere. We can express this rule in a visually clear way using the following notation:

vowel ! nasal / \_\_ nasal      vowel ! oral / elsewhere

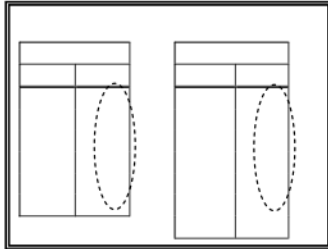
vowel ! nasal should be understood as an implicational statement: if a sound is a vowel, then it is nasalized. Everything following the '!' concerns the *context* in which the rule applies. The blank ' \_\_ ' stands for the position where the sound occurs: ' \_\_ nasal' means 'before a nasal'; conversely, 'nasal \_\_ ' would mean 'after a nasal.'

As a further example, consider the following data set, from Canadian English:

2	taI	'tie'	h'Ik	'hike'	l'If	'life'	t@'Ip	'tripe'
	k'UtS	'couch'	s'UT	'south'	'Is	'ice'	@aID	'writhe'
	@'It	'right'	sp'Ut	'spout'	'laIv	'alive'	h'Us	'house'
	t@aIb	'tribe'	gaUdZ	'gouge'	b@aUz	'browse'	laIm	'lime'
	faUnd	'found'	haU	'how'	fall	'file'	maUnt	'mount'

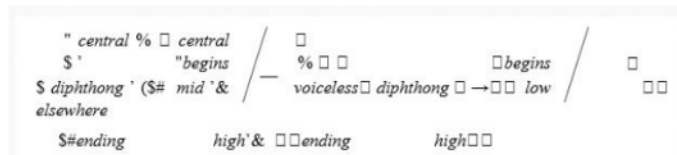
In narrow transcription, the diphthongs /AI/ and /AU/ are more accurately transcribed [aI] and [aU]. That is, they begin as a central low vowel [a], rather than a back low vowel [A]. More interestingly, these diphthongs, [aI] and [aU], each have an allophonic counterpart, [ʻI] and [ʻU] respectively: these are similar to the diphthongs, but start with a central mid vowel rather than a low one,

therefore this pattern is called *raising*. But which allophones occur where? A useful strategy is to



**Table 8:** Context chart for data set (2) make a **context chart** (see Table 7), listing

[aI] vs. [ʻI] [aU] vs. [ʻU] the adjacent sounds for each allophone. [aI] [ʻI] [aU] [ʻU] (The symbol # indicates a word boundary.) t\_#\_®\_t f\_n k\_t Looking at the sounds preceding these ®\_b h\_k ®\_b s\_T diphthongs, there is no common element: l\_v l\_f m\_n p\_t we find all manner and place of consonants, f\_l #\_s l\_v #\_s or no consonant at all. Looking at the fol®\_D ®\_p g\_d ®\_p lowing sounds, however, a generalization l\_m h\_# emerges: the raised diphthongs [ʻI, ʻU] only ®\_z occur before voiceless consonants (circled in Table 7); while [aI, aU] never occur before them – complementary distribution. We can conclude that the distinction between [aI, aU] and [ʻI, ʻU] is allophonic in Canadian English. The rule can be stated as follows:



Note that this statement of the rule claims that both diphthongs raise before any voiceless sound, though we have no evidence in the data set that [aU] raises to [ʻU] before [k], or that [aI] fails to raise before [D]. On the other hand, this rule is not *contradicted* by any of the data; and the broader formulation of the rule is in accordance with our strategy of forming the most general hypothesis that the data permit (see sidebar).

In fact, this rule is not too broad for English. The vowel + [®] sequences (which could be regarded as a kind of diphthong) are excluded from the rule, by its reference to a *high* vowel as the second half of the diphthong. The rule does not apply to [OI], [eI], or [oU], because these are not central. MORAL: you have to think carefully about how you formulate the rule, and the phonetic properties it refers to, so as to include the classes of sounds you want to include, and exclude the others.

The raising rule appears to have an articulatory basis: all vowels in English tend to be significantly shorter before a voiceless consonant. A diphthong beginning with a low vowel and ending with a high vowel involves considerable movement of the tongue body. When the tongue has less time to make this movement, due to the shortening induced by the following voiceless consonant, it 'cheats' by starting from a higher position, [ʻ] rather than [a]. Observe, however, that we can identify the pattern of allophonic variation without considering its phonetic basis at all.

### Words enough and time ...

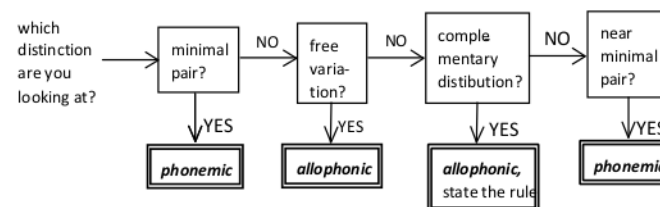
How can you be sure that your analysis wouldn't be contradicted if you just had more data? The best strategy is to form as general and far-reaching a hypothesis about the sound patterns of the language as the current data set permits. For present purposes, you can assume that any data set your given is fully representative of the sound patterns of the language. In real linguistic fieldwork, once you've collected enough words to show each consonant and vowel in a range of positions, you can form a reasonably confident analysis. But you can never be certain that your analysis will hold up in the face of further data. Scientific theories (including linguistic theories) allow us to make predictions about future data, by making sense of the data we have, and assuming future data will behave in the same way. But no scientific theory offers certainty as to how future data will turn out.

## 7. IF ALL ELSE FAILS

What do you conclude if you can find neither a minimal pair nor evidence of allophonic variation (free variation or complementary distribution)? This is a tricky issue, because there may be a pattern of complementary distribution which you have simply not spotted yet. But assuming that there really is no pattern, it must be the case that you can find, if not an exact minimal pair, then a near minimal pair. For example, imagine that the Finnish data set (1) did not contain the exact minimal pairs [katot] vs. [kadot], [kate] vs. [kade], nor [maton] vs. [madon]. This leaves us with [ratas] vs. [radan]. Though they are not strictly identical but for the [t/d] distinction, this pair shows that [t] and [d] both occur in the context /a\_\_a – that is, the distribution overlaps. Nor is it plausible that the other distinction, the final [s] vs.

[n], could play any role in the [t/d] distinction; because we see in other words (e.g. [maton]) that a [t] can occur in a word ending in [n]. The pair [ratas] vs. [radan] can therefore be treated as equivalent to a minimal pair, establishing that the [t] vs. [d] distinction is phonemic in Finnish. Solving a phonemic analysis problem thus involves the following procedure:

Figure 9: Phonemic analysis



## ACTIVITY 8!

1. The following data are from North American English. [p<sup>h</sup>,t<sup>h</sup>,k<sup>h</sup>] are *aspirated* allophones of /p,t,k/ respectively (i.e. the stop's release is accompanied by a strong puff of air). Identify the context in which the aspirated stops occur, and state a rule governing their distribution.  
t<sup>h</sup>ɒp 'tap' t<sup>h</sup>ɒl(p)N 'tipping' k<sup>h</sup>ɔi\_m 'cream' p<sup>h</sup>ɔIk® 'picker' stɒp 'stop' stʊp 'stoop' p<sup>h</sup>ɔUk 'poke' t<sup>h</sup>ɔE)n 'ten' sk<sup>h</sup>i)m 'scream' t<sup>h</sup>wɪk 'tweak'



2. The following data are from North American English. [ɹ] is *velarized* allophone of /l/ (i.e. it involves tongue body raising). Identify the contexts in which the plain vs. velarized lateral approximants occur, and state a rule governing their distribution.
- fi: 'feel' lod 'load' dâ: 'dull' mI:k 'milk'  
 slip 'sleep' pÓlk: 'pickle' kÓâ:tS® 'culture' pÓu: 'pool' IA®dZ  
 'large' pÓlâ)m 'plum' splIt 'split' jE: 'yell' fA:t® 'falter' wiz:  
 'weasel' neI: 'nail' pÓœ: 'pal'
3. The following data are from Québécois French. [y] represents a high front *rounded* vowel (like [i] with your lips in position for [u]). Is the distinction between [i] and [y] phonemic or allophonic in Québécois French? If phonemic, support your answer with examples from the data set. If allophonic, state a rule governing the distribution of [i] and [y].
- p'tsi 'little' tsy 'you' tryi 'sow (pig)' by 'drank' trE)S 'slice' lu 'wolf'  
 drapo 'flag' du 'sweet, gentle' dam 'lady' bu 'mud' pErdzy 'lost' tu  
 'all' dzimE)S 'Sunday' dzy 'of' sorti 'exit' ly 'read' to 'early' temWE)  
 'witness' pAt 'paw' kry 'believed'
4. Same data set as the previous question. Is the distinction between [t,d] and [ts,dz] phonemic or allophonic in Québécois French? If phonemic, support your answer with examples from the data set. If allophonic, state a rule governing the distribution of [t,d] vs. [ts,dz].
5. The following data are from Dene Su)Öine, an Athabaskan language widely spoken in Northwestern Canada. [Ö,V] are

voiceless lateral and voiced velar fricatives respectively. [t',k',ts',tT',tÖ] are *ejective* stops and affricates. Vowels marked with ['] are pronounced with a high tone. Determine whether the ejective vs. aspirated distinction in the stops and affricates is phonemic or allophonic in Dene. If phonemic, support your answer with examples from the data set. If allophonic, state a rule governing the distribution of ejection vs. aspiration.

tÓu Te kÓA) 'there's the water' tÓEn 'ice'  
 tÓÓEs 'lard/oil'bEk'o)lijAw 'don't you know that one?'  
 nA(hi)It'I '2 people' tT'/' 'cup'  
 k'Abi) 'morning' ts'i 'porcupine'  
 k'oaT 'cloud' bAneÖt'u ÖAVA)IdE/'they both got killed'  
 kÓo'/' 'fire' sAs jadakÓ 'a bear killed (someone) '  
 tÓot'inE/ 'English' nAkÓE 'two'  
 k'i 'birch' tÓAVE 'three'  
 tTÓe 'rock' k'EtÓAVE 'six'  
 tÖ'izE 'horse fly' EdinEk'A 'I am fat' tÓiEt'EVE  
 'night' tT'En 'bone'

## 8. PHONOTACTICS

### a. Possible and impossible words

Allophonic rules govern the distribution of variants (allophones) of the basic sounds of a language. But there are also phonological rules that restrict how even the basic sounds of the language can be assembled into words. Perhaps the clearest way to demonstrate the existence of such rules is by considering the **possible words** of a language. For example, among the many thousands of words of English, there happens *not* to be a word *spink* [spɪNk]. But English speakers would generally agree that it *could* be a word. For example, one might name a new toy, or a newly discovered subatomic particle, a *spink*, and English speakers would easily accept and use this new word. On the other hand, something like [tftkt] could not possibly be a word of English. It's not that [tftkt] is physically unpronounceable: in fact, it's an actual word (it means 'you sprained') in Tashlhiyt Berber, a language of North Africa. Nor is the unacceptability of [tftkt] due to any of the allophonic rules of English: [tʰftkt] (with allophonic aspiration of the initial /t/) is still unacceptable. The distinct status of [spɪNk] (a non-occurring but possible word) vs. [tftkt] demonstrates

! that there are certain phonological rules which English words conform to, above and beyond patterns of allophonic variation;

! that these rules are different from those of other languages (such as Berber); and

! that English speakers are in some sense *aware* of these rules, as reflected in consistent judgments about possible vs. impossible words.

These sorts of rules, concerning how the sounds can be sequenced to form possible words of a language, are known as **phonotactic rules** (or simply 'phonotactics,' from *phon* 'sound' + Latin *-tact-* 'touching'). Possible words, which obey the phonotactics, are **wellformed**; while the remaining sequences of sounds are **ill-formed**.

What are the phonotactic rules to which English words must conform? For starters, words must contain at least one vowel, a rule which [tftkt] obviously violates. Moreover, words cannot begin with a sequence of stops: indeed, a word can begin with no more than two voiceless consonants: either an affricate, or an [s] + stop sequence, as in [spɪNk]. In addition, note that

! [spɪNk] is well-formed (while \*[spɪmk] and \*[spɪnk] are not; the '\*' indicates illformedness). Similarly,

! [spɪnt], [spɪmp] (vs. \*[spɪmt], \*[spɪnt], \*[spɪnp], \*[spɪnp]).

The generalization here is that within words, a nasal + stop sequence must have the *same place of articulation*: bilabial [mp], alveolar [nt], or velar [Nk]. These are but a few examples of English phonotactic rules.

Compared to Tashlhiyt Berber, English phonotactics seem rather strict. But compared to Japanese, English seems quite

permissible. In Japanese, words can begin with no more than one consonant; words must end in a vowel or nasal; and the only permissible word-internal consonant sequences are double (**geminate**) consonants (e.g. [tootte] 'passing', [nippo-] 'Japan', [gakkoo] 'school', and nasal + stop or fricative sequences with the same place of articulation (like English) (e.g. [tombo] 'dragonfly', [kande] 'teaching', [kaNkee] 'relation', [sensee] 'teacher'). Thus, when English words are borrowed into Japanese, they are adapted to Japanese phonotactics, e.g. [s̥to|aik̚] ('strike'). ([̥] = unrounded [u], [̚] = a 'flapped' [d] (i.e. very brief closure), [-] = uvular nasal).

As we've seen from this brief glimpse at English and Japanese, phonotactic rules, like allophonic rules, refer to phonetically defined natural classes of sounds: nasals, stops, bilabials, etc., not to arbitrary collections of sounds such as [m,j,T,e]. The rule requiring nasals to be at the same place of articulation as the following stop can be expressed as follows:

#consonant & nasal " place<sub>i</sub>/\_\_ % ( \$place<sub>i</sub>'  
 (The co-indexation of the *place* variable in the two parts of the rule mean that the place of the nasal must match the place of the following consonant.)

**b. Why do languages have phonotactic rules?**

As with allophonic rules, phonotactic rules can plausibly be viewed as set of trade-offs and strategies for satisfying the two functional constraints on language sound systems: Ease of

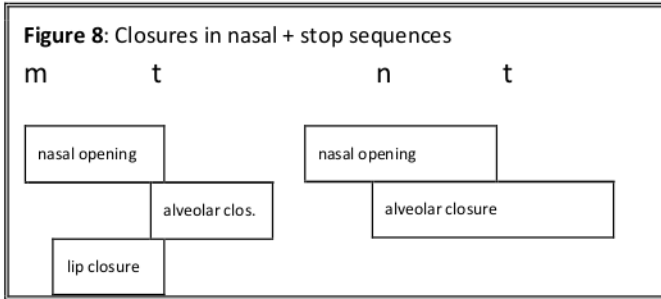
Articulation and Ease of Perception. For example, why might Japanese and English place restrictions on consonant sequences within words? Vowels are typically the loudest part of the sound

signal, and the perception of most consonants depends on, or is aided

by, formant transitions in adjacent (or at least nearby) vowels. Requiring vowels to be regularly interspersed among the consonants, i.e. placing limits on consonant sequences, thus improves the consonants' perceptibility. Tashlhiyt Berber represents the extreme end of the spectrum, in terms of languages' tolerance for consonant sequences; but even in this language, *most* of the words do have vowels interspersed among the consonants. Thus, there are languages which place strict conditions on sequences of consonants (some even stricter than Japanese), there are languages such as English, which tolerate a broader range of consonant sequences, or at the extreme end, Tashlhiyt Berber. But no language *prohibits* vowels from being interspersed among consonants.

Similarly, the requirement of shared place of articulation in nasal + stop sequences, seen in both English and Japanese, can be understood as a response to Ease of Articulation. Presumably, more energy is required to produce, e.g., an [mt] sequence – with *two* closures, than an [nt], with only a single closure (see Fig. 8). There is a perceptual side to this story as well. The cues to place of articulation in a nasal are relatively weak before a stop, due to the absence of formant transitions into a following vowel. Since the place cues to the

nasal in this position are weak to begin with, the phonological system 'decides' (so to speak), that maintaining a distinct place of articulation in the nasal, is not worth the extra articulatory effort it would require.



### ACTIVITY 9:

1. The following data are from Chumash, an indigenous language of Southern California, now extinct. [q] = back (uvular) [k]. [k',ts',tS'] = *ejective* stops and affricates (release is accompanied by a 'pop', caused by shutting and raising the larynx during closure). Identify the phonotactic rule concerning multiple fricatives within a word. osos 'heel' ats'is 'beard' SiS 'gopher hole' pSoS 'snake' SoqS 'gall' itS'itS 'young sibling' jasis 'poison oak' SoSo 'squirrel' tS'ijuS 'break wind' katskaw 'I sin' SiSk'ij 'it aches' skinus 'I saved it for him'

2. The following data are from Russian. [x] = voiceless velar fricative; [Δ] indicates a palatalized preceding consonant has a palatalized (j-like) release. Identify the phonotactic rule concerning voicing in word-final consonants and consonant sequences.

trut	'labour'	mox	'moss'	rof	'ditch'
krofΔ	'blood'	slavarΔ	'dictionary'	dΔenΔ	'day'
doStΔ	'rain'	atΔets	'father'	p'dar'k	'gift'
Zivot	'belly'	rot	'mouth'	fkus	'taste'
snΔek	'snow'	stol	'table'	zup	'tooth'
vrak	'enemy'	platok	'kerchief'	kalkos	'collective farm'
garaS	'garage'	kavΔor	'rug'	muzΔej	'museum'

## 9. ALTERNATIONS

Up till now, we have been concerned with distributional patterns – statements about what sounds can occur in what contexts. We see phonological rules applying more 'actively,' however, in **alternations**. These concern changes to a particular word's pronunciation depending on the phonetic context in which it occurs. For example, in North American English, the final consonant in *beat* changes from [t] to [ɾ] (an alveolar flap, cf. Japanese examples in sec. 4.2), when the *-ing* suffix (ending) is added: [biɪN]. In fact, as a result of this alternation, *beat* becomes indistinguishable, in most dialects, from *bead* when *-ing* is added, for the [d] also changes to [ɾ] in this context. These alternations are the result of a general rule of North American English, whereby alveolar stops ([t,d]) are 'flapped' (voiced and shortened) when they occur between two vowels, and the first vowel is stressed. The rule can be expressed as follows:

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{"alveolar"} \quad \% \\ \$ \quad ( \quad \text{flap} \$ \\ \# \quad \text{stop} \quad \& \end{array} / \begin{array}{c} \text{"stressed"} \\ \text{'vowel} \\ \# \text{vowel} \& \text{—} \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} \% \\ \$ \quad ( \$ \\ \# \text{stop} \& \# \text{flap} \& \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \text{"alveolar \%"} / \text{"not"} \\ \text{'( \$ } \\ \# \text{stop} \& \# \text{flap} \& \end{array} \quad \% \\ \text{'elsewhere} \end{array}$$

That is, in other contexts ('elsewhere'), the stop remains either a [t] or [d] (or another allophone thereof, such as [t<sup>h</sup>]). Thus ['foU|'g@æf] ('photograph'), but [f'tÓAg@fi] ('photography'); ['@E|i] ('ready'), but ['@i'dim] ('redeem').

Of further interest is the finding that English speakers readily apply this rule to words that they've never heard before. For example,

let's introduce another possible word, [klEt]; assume that it means 'to smell mouldy or rotten'. Example: *Jeez Tom, you [klEt] like a dead vulture!* What's the *-ing* form of this verb? If you're like most native speakers of North American English, you would say that Tom is [klE|I\_N] rather than [klEtI\_N]. While it's quite possible that you've heard the words *beating*, *beading*, *photography*, etc. before, and therefore learned their flapped pronunciations by direct imitation, it is quite impossible that you've ever heard [klE|I\_N] before. So how did you know that it's [klE|I\_N] rather than [klEtI\_N]? (It's not that some external authority prescribes that [klE|I\_N] is the 'correct' pronunciation; it's that speakers of North American English would overwhelmingly converge on this same pronunciation.) This result demonstrates the psychological reality of the flapping rule: North American English speakers actively (albeit unconsciously) apply this rule to the words that they come up with in the course of speaking. Whereas distributional patterns show the *effects* of the phonological system on the words of the language, alternations catch the phonological system red-handed, so to speak, in the very act of applying to new words.

Finally, note that alternations are not a different *kind* of rule from the phonotactic and allophonic rules discussed in previous sections. Alternations are a *result* of phonotactic and/or allophonic rules. Indeed, the flapping rule above is allophonic, in that it governs the allophonic distinction between [t] and [ɾ] (and also between [d] and [ɾ]).<sup>10</sup> Rather, alternations provide an additional source of data, and an

additional analytic technique, for discovering the rules of a language's phonological system. The technique is as follows:

For a given set of related words, i.e. words containing some identifiable, meaningful common subpart (e.g. {*cat, cats, catty*}; {*photograph, photography, photographed*}; {*reread, replay, resettle*}, etc.), identify a **basic form** of the **stem** (the main part of the word), and of the suffixes (or prefixes, e.g. *re-* in *reread*).

For present purposes, we can equate the basic form of the stem with its pronunciation in the absence of suffixes or prefixes. The stem in *hitting*, for example, is [hl], but its basic form is [hIt].

The basic form of a suffix or prefix can be equated with its pronunciation in the broadest range of contexts in which it occurs. For example, the basic form of the prefix seen in {*indiscreet, inherent, inactive, imprecise, imbalance, incredible, ingratitude*} is [In], which occurs in all contexts except before bilabial stops [p,b] (where we get [Im]) and velar stops [k,g] (where we get [IN]).

Whenever the resulting word (e.g. [hI|N]) differs from the basic form of the stem and the basic form of any suffix or prefix therein ([hIt]+[IN]), identify a phonotactic or allophonic rule (or set of rules) to account for the alternation(s). The alternations in the *in-* prefix, for example, can be attributed to the phonotactic rule identified in sec.

VI, requiring nasal + stop clusters to have the same place of articulation.

As a further example, consider the following data, from Dutch. The diminutive suffix indicates an attitude of endearment toward the noun, similar to English *-y* as in *birdy* or *sonny*. [c] = a voiceless palatal stop, somewhere between a [k] and a [t] with a [j]-like release. [P] = rounded [e].

3			<i>Noun</i>	<i>Diminutive</i>	<i>Noun</i>	<i>Diminutive</i>
zo...n	zo...nc'	'son'	dP...r	dP...rc'	'door'	
le...p'l	le...p'lc'	'spoon'	de...k'n	de...k'nc'	'blanket'	
zak	zakj'	'bag'	bu...k	bu...kj'	'book'	
bri...f	bri...fj'	'letter'	sxip	sxipj'	'ship'	
bo...t	bo...c'	'boat'	kat	kac'	'cat'	

We can equate the base form of the noun stem in the diminutive with the bare noun (the first column). Looking down the second column, however, we see two forms of the diminutive suffix: [c'] and [j']. A context chart would show that [c'] occurs after base forms ending in [n,l,t,r]; while [j] occurs after base forms ending in [k,f,p]. Although there are more *examples* with [c'] than with [j'], the contexts for [j'] includes velars, bilabials, and labiodentals. In contrast, the context for [c'] boils down to a single natural class: alveolars. Since [j'] occurs in a broader range of contexts, it is the basic form of the suffix. We can now state a rule:

*palatal ! stop / alveolar* \_\_\_ *palatal ! approximant / elsewhere*

This accounts for the alternations in the nouns ending in [n,l,r] (the alveolar nasal and approximants). However, it incorrectly

predicts, e.g., [kat]+[j] ! [kacʰ], whereas the actual word is [kacʰ].

This problem can be addressed with a further rule:

"alveolar %" / palatal%  
 \$ ( ! \_ \$  
 # stop & # stop &

That is, [t] deletes (i.e. it alternates with *nil*) when it precedes a palatal stop.

### ACTIVITY 10!

1. The following data are from English. State a rule to account for the alternations.

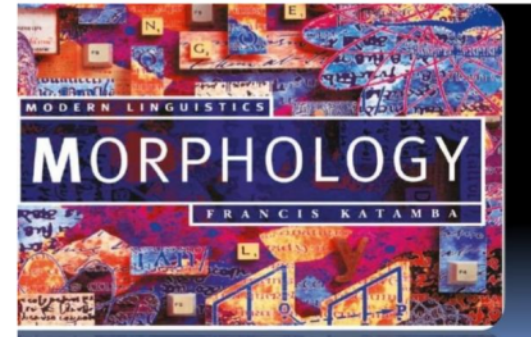
<u>Noun</u>	<u>Plural</u>		<u>Noun</u>	<u>Plural</u>	
bæk	bæks	'back'	fli	fliz	'flea'
flæNk	flæNks	'flank'	deI	deIz	'day'
hO,,d	hO,,dz	'hoard'	kÓlu	kÓluz	'clue'
dOg	dOgz	'dog'	hE)m	hE)mz	'hem'
@'It	@'Its	'right'	wIg	wIgz	'wig'
veI:	veI:z	'veil'	sON	sONz	'song'
slip	slips	'sleep'	f,,	f,,z	'fur'
b@aIb	b@aIbz	'bribe'	stlk	stlks	'stick'

2. The following data are from Karok (slightly simplified), an indigenous language of Central California. [ʔ] represents a glottal stop (the consonant in the middle of English interjection *uh-oh*). Identify the basic forms of the stems and prefixes, and state rules to account for any alternations. Are the rules phonotactic or allophonic?

<u>Imperative</u>	<u>I-form</u>	<u>You-form</u>	
pasip	nipasip	/upasip	'shoot'
si...tva	niSi...tva	/usi...tva	'steal'
kifnuk	nikifnuk	/ukifnuk	'stoop'
suprih	niSuprih	/usuprih	'measure'
/ifik	ni/ifik	/u/ifik	'pick up'
/aktuv	ni/aktuv	/u/aktuv	'pluck at'
axyar	nixyar	/uxyar	'fill'
iSkak	niSkak	/uskak	'jump'
iSriv	niSriv	/usriv	'shoot at a target'

# CHAPTER VI

## MORPHOLOGY



### THE INTERNATIONAL PHONETIC ALPHABET (revised to 1993)

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

Where symbols appear in pairs, the one to the right represents a voiced consonant. Shaded areas denote articulations judged impossible.

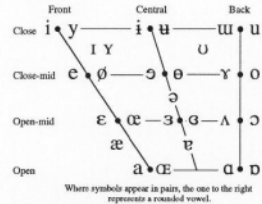
### CONSONANTS (NON-PULMONIC)

Clicks	Voiced implosives	Ejectives
ɔ Bilabial	ɓ Bilabial	ʼ as in:
ɖ Dental	ɗ Dental/alveolar	ɓ' Bilabial
ɗ Postalveolar	ɗ' Palatal	ɗ' Dental/alveolar
ɠ Palatoalveolar	ɠ Velar	ɠ' Velar
ʛ Alveolar lateral	ʛ' Uvular	ʛ' Alveolar fricative

### SUPRASEGMENTALS

TONES & WORD ACCENTS	
LEVEL	CONTOUR
Primary stress	ˈ or ˌ Extra high
Secondary stress	ˑ or ˒ Extra high
Long	ː High
Half-long	ˑ Mid
Extra-short	ˑ Low
Syllable break	ˑ Extra low
Minor (foot) group	ˑ Extra low
Major (intonation) group	˒ Downtap
Linking (absence of a break)	ˑ Uptap

### VOWELS



When symbols appear in pairs, the one to the right represents a rounded vowel.

### OTHER SYMBOLS

ɸ Voiceless labial-velar fricative	ɸ Alveolo-palatal fricatives
ɰ Voiceless labial-velar approximant	ɰ Alveolar lateral flap
ɕ Voiceless labial-palatal approximant	ɕ Simultaneous ʃ and x
ɦ Voiceless epiglottal fricative	Affricates and double articulations can be represented by two symbols joined by a tie bar if necessary.
ʕ Voiceless epiglottal fricative	
ʁ Epiglottal plosive	

### DIACRITICS

Diacritics may be placed above a symbol with a descender, e.g. ɰ̣.					
Voicelless	̥	Breathy voiced	̤	Dental	̦
Voiced	̤	Creaky voiced	̰	Apical	̱
Aspirated	̚	Linguabial	̜	Laminal	̝
More rounded	̜	Labialized	̞	Nasalized	̜
Less rounded	̝	Palatalized	̞	Nasal release	̜
Advanced	̟	Velarized	̠	Lateral release	̜
Retracted	̡	Pharyngalized	̠	No audible release	̜
Centralized	̜	Velarized or pharyngalized	̠		
Mid-centralized	̜	Raised	̡	̡ = voiced alveolar fricative	
Syllabic	̙	Lowered	̜	̜ = voiced bilabial approximant	
Non-syllabic	̙	Advanced Tongue Root	̙		
Rhoticity	̙	Retracted Tongue Root	̙		

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### CONTENT:

1. Words, Sentences, and Dictionaries
2. A Words and its Parts: Roots, Affixes and Their Shapes
3. Kind of Morpheme : ROOT, AFFIX AND COMBINING FORM
4. Semantic Blocking
5. Productivity in Compounding
6. Compounds Words, Blends, and Phrasal Words
7. Compound Noun
8. Compound Zoom

## DO YOU KNOW ABOUT MORPHOLOGY?

In this chapter, we will study a branch of linguistics, namely morphology. In general, morphology studies the intricacies of the internal structure of words and changes in these structures to the meaning and group of words.





experienced by early childhood is in the placement of words together, not separating sentences. So it is very clear that words seem to be the building blocks of language. Even as adults, there are situations where we use singular words out of context. Here are some examples. Warning shouts, such as ‘fire!’

- Conventional commands, such as ‘lights!’, ‘Camera!’, ‘Actions!’
- Items on shopping lists, such as ‘carrots’, ‘cheese’, ‘eggs’.

### b. Words as types and words as tokens

Before we go to the material of this part, please mention how many words in the sentence below are!

a) Anna goes to Paris next year, and her mother will go to Italy next week.

If our guide is the English spelling convention that it must be “a word” after a space, the answer is clearly to be fifteen. But, there is also the possibility that in that sentence, there are only less than fifteen words. The reason is because the words to and next are repeated. So that, the third word (to) is same as the twelfth word (to). So, they are | An Introduction to English Morphology, counted as one word. Then, the fifth word (next) and the fourteenth word (next) are clearly same. So, those word are counted as one word. The conclusion is there are only thirteen words in that sentence.

So, let us say that the third and twelfth words of that sentence are the different tokens of a single type, and the fifth and the fourteenth word also put in different tokens but in a single type. (In the same way, we can say that it is the two performances of the same tune. Or the two copies of the same books can define what the meaning of the different tokens of a single type is.)



(a)



(b)

a) Jane did Tor-Tor dance.

b) Bella and Calie did Tor-Tor dance.

Those pictures are the example of token and type. The tokens are “Bella and Calie” and Jane. The type is Tor-Tor dance. So, the two different dancers did the same dance, Tor-Tor. After we study about this picture. Let’s talk about Type and Token.

#### 1) Type

If we are counting a word once, no matter how many times it occurs in a sentence, we are counting word.

Example

Mary goes to Edinburg next week, and she intends going to Washington next month.

If we count word type in the sentence above, we count 12, because two of them (the words to and next) are repeated. The two tokens of the word to count as one type, likewise the word next. They are distinct tokens of a single type.

## 2) Tokens

Tokens refer to the **total number of word in a text**. Counting every words occurs in a sentence, regardless of whether that word has occurred before or not. We are counting word tokens. Example.

*Mary goes to Edinburg next week, and she intends going to Washington next month.*

If we count word tokens in the sentence above, we count 14.

### c. Word with predictable meaning

Words with predictable meaning is any words that are composed of independently identifiable parts, where the meaning of the parts is sufficient to determine the meaning of the whole words. We have know about some words whose sound seems to reflect their meaning fairly directly. These include so-called onomatopoeic words, such as words for animal cries: boru-wow, miaow, cbeep, cook-a-doodle-doo.

We must to know that onomatopoeic words are not the same in each country. There is also the term sound symbolism, namely several words that have the same sound (same consonant

at the beginning) which appear to have the same meaning, such as wetness or smoothness, or something about that, like slop, slum, slip, slide, slither, slick, slug, slaver, sleek. But, the sound But, the sound-meaning relationship in sound symbolism is less than in onomatopoeia.

### d. Non-Word with Unpredictable meaning

Non-word with unpredictable meaning is that something clear large than a word ( 2 words or more words) but is not meaning entirely predictable from the words. It is blok of structure syntax. Examples :

1. They sat against farhat and Mr. Hotman.  
(It's means that. They persuade Mr. farhat and M.r Hotman to fight with himself).
2. Klara fells good condition after she crashes on bike  
(it means that Klara is fit after her accident)

## 2. A WORDS AND ITS PARTS: ROOTS, AFFIXES AND THEIR SHAPES

Did you know that there is unit grammatical unit smaller of word? yeah, is called morpheme. The area of grammar concerned with the structure of words and with relationship between words involving the morphemes that compose them, it's called **Morphology**. Most native speakers of English will recognize that words like *unwipe*,

*headbracelet* or *MacDonaldization* are made up of several meaningful pieces, and will be able to split them into those pieces:

- (1) un / wipe
- head / bracelet
- McDonald / ize / ation

These pieces are called morphemes.

**a. Morphemes**

Morphemes are divided into two parts, namely bound morpheme and free morpheme. Bound morpheme is morpheme that cannot stand alone. Meanwhile free morpheme is morpheme that can stand alone. Bound morpheme consists of Inflectional morpheme and derivational morpheme.

**1. Inflectional morpheme**

Morpheme that indicates aspects of the grammatical function of a word, such as changing a word into a plural or possessive word. In other meaning Inflectional morpheme are morphemes that do not change word classes (part of speech) when they are attached word.

English Inflectional Morpheme	Attached to	Grammatical function	Example
Plural (-s/-es)	Noun	Marks as more than one	Regular : mugs, books, buses, rules.
			Irregular : sheep, phenomena, children.

<b>Possesive (-'s)</b>	Noun	Marks for ownership	The girl's, Mike's, The boy's.
<b>Comparative (-er)</b>	Adjective	Mark for comparison	Faster, slower, cheaper, nicer.
<b>Superlative (-est)</b>	Adjective	Marks as superlative	Fastest, slowest, cheapest, nicest.
<b>Present tense for 3<sup>rd</sup> person (-s)</b>	Verb	Marks to agree with singular third person	Reflects, forms, proves.
<b>Past tense (-ed)</b>	Verb	Marks for past action	Regular : watched, looked, washed. Irregular : taught, saw, shrank.
<b>Present participle (-ing)</b>	Verb	Marks present participle	Eating, being, drinking.
<b>Past participle (-en)</b>	Verb	Marks past participle (follows be or have)	Regular : Proven, taken, eaten. Irregular : drunk, hung, waited (same ast past tense)

## 2. Derivational Morpheme

Derivational morpheme is a morpheme that can form new words which sometimes the meaning and class of words (part of speech) can change. For example, when we add suffix *-ly* to the adjective *smart*, it become *smartly* and its part of speech also changes. At the first it is an adjective, but for the second it becomes an adverb. So, *smartly* is called as derived word because *smartly* is the word form which results from adding a derivational morpheme.

As we know that derivational morpheme divides by two namely:

### 1. Derivational prefix

Derivational prefix is a bound morpheme that attaches to the beginning of the stem of a word to form either a new word or a new form of the same word.

Derivational prefix	Meaning	Example
<b>a-</b>	Predicative adjective with progressive aspect	Awake, afloat, atremble.
<b>a-/an</b>	Not, without	Acylic, anemic, atheist
<b>bi-</b>	Two	Bilingual, bicycle, biped.
<b>bio-</b>	Life, biological	Biology, biotic.

<b>dis-</b>	Not, opposite of, reverse action	Disagree, disappointment, disconnect.
<b>ex-</b>	Former	Ex-white, ex-husband, ex-friend.
<b>Extra-</b>	Outside	Extracurricular

### 2. Derivational suffix

Derivational suffix is a bound morpheme that attaches to the end of the stem of a word to form either a new form of the same word.

Derivational suffix	Meaning	Example
<b>-able</b>		
<b>-ize</b>	Cause, treat, become	Antagonize, authorize, popularize
<b>-less</b>	Without	Careless, helpless, homeless.
<b>-ly</b>	In what manner	Badly, courageously, happily.
<b>-ment</b>	Action, result	Movement, placement, shipment.
<b>-ness</b>	State or quality	Kindness, shyness, weakness.

<b>-ful</b>	Full of	Helpfull, thankful, cheerful.
<b>-er</b>	Action or process	Flutter, ponder, stutter.
<b>-er</b>	A person who does an action	Announcer, barber, teacher, farmer, gardener.
<b>-ess</b>	Female	Actress, heiress, lioness.

Free morpheme divided by two namely lexical morpheme and functional morpheme.

### 1. Lexical Morphemes

Lexical morphemes are morphemes which provide the substance of the sentence or utterances. They include nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs.

### 2. Functional Morphemes

Functional morphemes are different from lexical morphemes because they do not have clear meanings. They provide more grammatical roles, linking words together.

## 3. KIND OF MORPHEME: ROOT, AFFIX AND COMBINING FORM

### a. Root

A root (or root word) is a word does not have prefix in front of the word and or suffix at the end of the word. Example book, read, cook, perform, brain.

### b. Affix

An affix is a word attachment to a root or stem that gives a word a different meaning. If an affix is attached to the beginning of a word, it is called a prefix. If an affix is attached to the end of a word, it is called a suffix. Some root or stem words may have both an affix and a suffix or multiple affixes and suffixes in order to make new words and to change the meaning of the root or stem word. Here example of prefix and suffix.

Type of affix	List of common prefix/ suffix	Example
<b>Prefix</b>	pre- (before)	The outcome was <u>pre</u> determined.
	mis- (wrong)	That word is <u>mis</u> spelled.
	non- (not)	The noise was <u>non</u> stop.
	un- (not)	His work was <u>un</u> satisfactory.
	dis- (lack of, not)	They were <u>dis</u> pleased

	in- (not)	The work was <u>incredible</u> .
Suffix	-ly (like)	She was <u>wonderfully</u>
	-able (able to)	The part is <u>adaptable</u>
	-ible (able to)	The writing was <u>incomprehensible</u> .
	-ful (full of)	The flower is <u>beautiful</u> .
	-less (without)	The old television was <u>worthless</u> .

12

A *combining form* is a form of a word that only appears as part of another word. There are a number of kinds of combining forms, each classified by what kind of word results when the form is used. For example, *-wise* in *clockwise* is an adverb combining form; *-like* in *birdlike* is an adjective combining form; *-graph* in *photograph* is a noun combining form; and *-lyze* in *electrolyze* is a verb combining form.

Combining forms are similar to affixes but can have a bit more lexical substance to them. Unlike affixes, combining forms are substantial enough to form a word simply by connecting to an affix, such as when the combining form *cephal-* joins with the suffix *-ic* to form *cephalic*. A combining form can also differ from an affix in its being derived from an independent word. For example, *para-* is a combining form in the word *paratrooper* because in that word it represents the word *parachute*. *Para-* is a prefix, however, in the words *paranormal* and *paramedic*. A combining form can also be

distinguished historically from an affix by the fact that it is borrowed from another language in which it is descriptively a word or a combining form, such as the French *mal* giving English the *mal-* in *malfunction*.

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## 4. PRODUCTIVITY

### a. Introduction: Kind of Productivity

In every language, there is always a word-formation pattern used by language users to form an unlimited number of new words. The new words are accepted and understood by the speakers of other language spontaneously, without difficulty. The pattern of formation tends to be extended continuously to most of the word belonging to a certain type of word if the situation allows it to be used which is called productivity. So, **Productivity** is a lexeme formation process that native speakers can use to form new lexemes, while the process of lexeme formation that cannot be used by native speakers is called **non-productivity**.

### b. <sup>15</sup>Productivity in Shape: Formal Generality and Regularity

In the earlier chapter we have discuss some process of inflectional morphemes and derivational morphemes. For example, diantaranya yakni pembentukan kata benda abstract dari kata sifat, *-ness* (*greyness*, *happiness*, *richness*) lebih sering digunakan daripada <sup>15</sup>ity (as in *sensitivity*, *purity*) or <sup>15</sup>-th (as in *depth*, *length*). Then, **formal generality** is a derivational process which the characteristic of all base words will be exploiting almost all or nearly without idiosyncratic gaps.

<sup>15</sup>

The suffix *-ness* is **formal generality** in the sense that, when attached to most adjectives, it yields an abstract noun which is either in common use (*greyness*, *richness* etc.) or would not need to be listed as a lexical item because its existence is predictable, given the existence of the adjective. For example:

Complex	<i>Complexness</i>
Happy	<i>Happiness</i>
Good	<i>Goodness</i>
Blind	<i>Blindness</i>

**Formal regularity** is the common affixes usually added to a word to make a new word formation, it can be agreed by native speakers if it has been used generally in their country. Usually non-native speakers will modify some words while they were speaking in English used the suffix *-ness* in some adjectives or nouns. For example:

<b>Rich</b> + <i>ness</i> = <b>Richness</b>
<b>Long</b> + <i>ness</i> = <b>Longness</b>
<b>Productive</b> + <i>ness</i> = <b>Productiveness</b>
<b>Truthy</b> + <i>ness</i> = <b>Truthiness</b>
<b>Chair</b> + <i>ness</i> = <b>Chairness</b>



### c. Productivity in Meaning: Semantic Regularity

**Semantic regularity** changes the class and the meaning of the word which is derived. For example: the word local has meaning confined to small area. But, if we add +ity to be locality it means neighborhood. The rules of semantic regularity is not use in past tense form and use verb which have another meaning.

### d. Semantic Blocking

Semantic blocking is as a phenomenon of a word that has a special meaning to block a morphological derivation. Semantic blocking can also be interpreted as omission or not using a new word, even though it is morphologically correct, but there is already another word that represents the word. For example, the word stealer comes from the verb steal + suffix -er to be stealer. Morphologically the formation of the word is correct and becomes a new word. However, the word stealer is not used by native speakers because there is already the word thief which has the same meaning as the word stealer. This is called semantic blocking.

### e. Productivity in Compounding

Compounding is a process of creating a word by combining the lexical items which may be categorized as words, lexemes, or stems depending on the language also on the adopted of theoretical framework. **Productivity in compounding** means

that compounding has two meaning that use in particular context. For example, *Globe Trotter*, means a person who like go around the world, not the person who study about globe. Another example is *Voice-activation*, it is not a voice activated but a machine (for example, a computer) which is activated by a spoken command rather than a keyboard or mouse.

## 5. COMPOUNDS WORDS, BLENDS, AND PHRASAL WORDS

### a. Compound words

Do you know about compound words? Well, compound words are two or more words combined together that have new meanings. Compounds words can be written in three ways namely as compound words, closed compounds and hyphenated compounds.

*Open compound words* are created in cases when the modifying adjective is used with its noun to create a new noun. Open compounds words have space between combined words and new meanings when they are read together. For example, living room, full moon, real estate, dinner table, coffee mug. Meanwhile *closed compound words* is compound words that are formed when two different words combined together. Closed compound words look like one word. Here some closed compound examples namely notebook, superman, waistcoat, bookstore, fireman. And

the last is **hyphenated compound words**. They are combined words connected by a hyphen. One important rule of thumb to remember is that in most cases, a compound adjective is hyphenated if placed before the noun it modifies, but not if placed after the noun. Here some example hyphenated compound word namely well-being, one-half, mother-in-law, over-the-counter.

**b. Blends words and acronym**

**Blends words** are words formed by combining two different words to create new ones. In blends words, meaning are usually the combination of the original words. They are three kinds of blends words. They are blends with overlapping, blends with clipping, and blends with overlapping and clipping.

Type of blend	Blends with overlapping	Blends with clipping	Blends with overlapping and clipping
	Shortening of the words	One or more part are omitted	Use both overlapping and clipping
<b>Example</b>	Slang +language =slanguage	Breakfast+brunch = brunch	Motor + hotel = motel Smoke + fog = smog

However, people also use only the initial letters of those words for creating a term. This is called **acronyms**. For example, ASEAN (*Association of Asian Nations*), NATO (*North Atlantic Treaty Organization*), ANZAC (*Australian and New Zealand Army Corps*), RAM (*Random Access Memory*).

**c. Phrasal Words**

Phrasal words can be defined as phrases that consist of verbs + prepositions, or verbs + adverbs. When they combined together, they will create new meanings. They are two kinds of phrasal words. They are transitive and intransitive phrasal words.

Transitive phrasal words should be followed by object, while intransitive ones should not (*example: I get up at 6 AM*). Transitive phrasal words are divided into two types, they are inseparable (*example: I will look after her.*) and separable transitive phrasal words (*example: Turn on the light!*).

**d. Similarities and Differences Between Compound, Phrasal and Blends Words**

<b>Similarity</b>
<b>Compound, phrasal and blends words are formed by combining two free forms.</b>
<b>There is a new meaning created.</b>

Difference	Compound words	Phrasals words	Blends words
<b>Structural</b>	May be single, separated, or hyphenated words	Separated by a space	Combined as single word, but rare occasions with a space (docudrama) and a hyphen (egg-cellent)
<b>Ways of forming</b>	Combination of two or more lexical categories only draws upon complete words cannot combine with a bound form compound verb: VN, NV, AV, PV. Compound adjective : NA, AA, PA. Compound nouns: VN, NN, AN, PN.	Combination of verb with a preposition or a an adverb only draws upon complete words verbs + preposition verb + adverb.	Abridging action and combination of various lexemes most blends words are nouns.

Meaning	Unpredictable meaning (exocentric compounds) predictable meaning(endocentric)	The meaning changes.	The meaning is predictable.
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## 6. COMPOUNDS NOUN

Compound noun is a noun that is made with two or more words. There are eight types of compounds noun. They are verb-noun (VN), noun-noun (NN), adjective-noun (AN), preposition noun (PN), noun verb (NV), verb-preposition (VP), noun-prepositional phrase (NP) and noun adjective (NA). Here is some example of compound noun.

Compound Nouns	
Type of compound noun	Example
<b>Noun + noun</b>	Bus stop, fire-fly, football.
<b>Adjective + noun</b>	Full moon, football, blackboard.
<b>Verb(-ing) +noun</b>	Washing machine, swimming pool, cleaning service.
<b>Noun + verb(-ing)</b>	Train-spotting.
<b>Verb + preposition</b>	Check-out.

<b>Noun + prepositional phrase</b>	Mother-in-law.
<b>Preposition + noun</b>	Underworld.
<b>Noun + adjective</b>	Truckful.

## 7. COMPOUNDS VERB

Verb that are made up of one or more words. They are sometimes called serial verbs because one verb follows another. Compound verb are formed with several ways namely we can add a preposition in *prepositional verbs*, make a phrase with a *phrasal verb*, add a "helping" verb in a *verb with auxiliaries*, and make a phrase or combine two words together into a *compound single-word verb*.

### a. Prepositional verb

Prepositional verb is a preposition combines with a verb to form a new verb. Prepositional verbs usually follow a noun and precede another noun or verbal phrase. Here some example of Prepositional verb.

- I **believe in** respecting our elders.
- Why does Timmy always **ask for** more ice cream?
- The success of this campaign **relies upon** voter turnout.
- Don't **laugh at** my dad's new haircut.
- **Listen to** my question before coming up with a response.

### b. Phrasal verb

Phrasal verb is when a verb combines with an adverb. Words like *up*, *in*, *out*, and *down* are common adverbs in phrasal verbs, even though they can also be used as prepositions in other contexts. Unlike prepositional verbs, phrasal verbs are idiomatic and aren't translated literally. Some examples of phrasal verbs include:

- Sharon **looks up** to her older sister.
- Can you **throw out** the garbage?
- Try to **get along** with your brother.
- Most people **take down** their holiday decorations by January 1.
- Let's **turn off** the television after this show.

### c. Verb with Auxiliaries

A verb combines with another verb called a helping, or auxiliary, verb. Common helping verbs are *have*, *has*, *had*, *am*, *be*, *been*, *is*, *are*, *was*, or *were*, and modal helping verbs include *can*, *could*, *may*, *should*, and *will*. Together with another verb, they form a compound verb. Here some example of verb with auxiliaries.

- Joe **was walking** down the street last night.
- The council **will meet** to discuss the issue tomorrow.
- Jack and Jill **are running** up the hill.
- My friends **are planning** a big surprise party for me.

- I **should start** my homework soon.

**d. Compound Single-Word Verb**

Sometimes a single verb is a combination of multiple words. Both words might be verbs or one of the words might be a descriptor word. The words may run together as one word or they may be joined by a hyphen. Regardless of the spelling, when used together, the words function as a single verb. For example:

- Jessica **babysits** Carson and his sister Stella on Saturday nights.
- Can you have someone **proofread** your essay before turning it in?
- It's important to check your facts and not become **brainwashed** by misinformation.
- The airline **overbooked** our flight, so we received vouchers for the next one.

**e. Compound Adjective**

Compound adjectives are adjectives that consist of two or more words but function like a single adjective, which is to describe a noun. It is often known as a "hyphenated adjective" because in writing, the vocabulary that makes up a compound adjective must be connected with "hyphen" or a hyphen to avoid ambiguous understanding. There is a general pattern in the use of compound adjectives. Here, some examples.

Compound adjective		
Types	Example	Apply in sentence
Adjective/ad-verb/noun + past participle	Old-fashioned, old-blooded, Well-known, Well-built, Highly-recommended, Sun-dried, Wind-powered, Tongue-tied.	<i>You can contact the highly-recommended seller by e-mail or phone.</i>
Adjective/ad-verb/noun + present participle	Good-looking, Free-standing, Never-ending, Long-lasting, Mouth-watering, Record-breaking	<i>I'm looking for a free-standing fireplace that is easy to install.</i>
Adjective/noun/number + noun	Last-minute, High-end, High-speed, Part-time, 200-page, Three-hour, Ten-mile.	<i>My sister has been a part-time teacher for three months.</i>

## **ACTIVITY 11!**

### **A. Multiple Choices**

1. What is morphology?
  - a. The study of the rules governing the sounds that form words
  - b. The study of the rules governing sentence formation
  - c. The study of the rules governing word formation
2. Which best describes the English language?
  - a. English has complex morphology and less rigid syntax
  - b. English has less complex morphology but more rigid syntax
  - c. English has complex morphology and rigid syntax.
3. What can words often be divided into?
  - a. Morphemes
  - b. Lexemes
  - c. Syllable
4. How many different lexemes are there in the following list?  
Ma, men, girls, girl, mouse.
  - a. 1
  - b. 2
  - c. 3
  - d. 4
5. Which sentence describes inflectional morphology?

6. Which sentence describes derivational morphology?
  - a. Adding a morpheme to produce a new word but the same lexeme.
  - b. Adding a morpheme to produce a new word and a different lexeme.
  - c. Adding a morpheme to produce the same word but a different lexeme.
7. In the English language inflectional morphemes can be...
  - a. Prefixes, suffixes, infixes
  - b. Prefixes and suffixes
  - c. Suffixes only
  - d. Infixes only
8. In the English language derivational morphemes can be...
  - a. Prefixes, suffixes, infixes
  - b. Prefixes and suffixes
  - c. Suffixes only
  - d. Infixes only
9. The correct definition of the following morpheme is ....
  - a. member or variant of the same morpheme
  - b. the smallest meaningful units in the structure of the language
  - c. the meaning of individual words, and the meaning of words grouped into phrases and sentences
  - d. Part of a word that form different meaning

10. "It is impossible for you to get good marks without studying hard" Based on the sentence above which is a morpheme in the word impossible is .... and which is a phoneme is ....
- Impossible – im
  - Possible, im
  - Im, possible – I, m, p, o, s, s, I, b, l, e
  - Impossible – i, o, e
11. "The teacher is telling story" The sentence above consists of ... morphemes.
- 6
  - 7
  - 8
  - 9
12. Which of the following statements is true to distinguish between morphemes and allomorphs?
- Allomorph is member or variant of the same morpheme
  - Morpheme is member or variant of the same morpheme
  - Allomorph is the formulation of at least two morpheme
  - Morpheme is part of allomorph
13. One form of morpheme that only adds grammatical information without changing its original meaning, such as the present continuous tense in the word reading is called....
- bound morpheme
  - derivational morpheme

- infectious morpheme
  - free morpheme
14. "If he can do the job well, his age is irrelevant" In the sentence above, the bound morpheme is ....
- He
  - The
  - Is
  - ir-
15. Some morphemes form new morphemes that have other meanings, such as ....., for example ....
- derivational morpheme, irrational
  - derivational morpheme, involve
  - inflectional morpheme, wanted
  - inflectional morpheme, wary
16. "I read the announcement yesterday  
"The word announcement in the sentence above functions as...
- Verb
  - Noun
  - Adjective
  - Adverb
17. When a morpheme able is added to a verb: then a category change verb will occur to ....
- Noun
  - Adjective

- c. Abstract noun
  - d. Adverb
18. In the adjective unbelievable, if described by a tree diagram, the first derivative is ....
- a. un- and adverb (believable)
  - b. un - and adjectives (believable)
  - c. un- verb (believe) - and -able<
  - d. verbs (unbelieve)
19. "She doesn't know where the man lives".  
The clause in the sentence above is of the type...
- a. Noun clause
  - b. Adverbial clause
  - c. Adjective clause
  - d. Verb less clause
20. She invited the man. The man is from America.  
If the sentence above is combined with the right type of clause it becomes ...
- a. She invited the man who is from America
  - b. She invited the man is from America
  - c. She invited who is from America
  - d. She invited who the man is from America

## B. Essay

1. What do you know about morphology? explain about it.
2. Give you example sentence about inflectional morphemes!
3. Mention type of compound noun with the example!
4. Analysis about type and token with number of words!
  - a. After watching a movie, I want to watch a concert.
  - b. Jane was eating a sandwich while her brother was watching an anime.
  - c. I want to do my homework but my brother wants me to cook fried rice for him.
  - d. My grandmother always visits her friend and someday I will accompany her to go there.
  - e. My favorite idol is D.O from EXO, but Jennifer likes Siwon from Super Junior.
5. Can you explain about phrasal word?



# CHAPTER VII

## SYNTAX



### DO YOU KNOW ABOUT SYNTAX?

In this chapter we will study a branch of linguistics, namely syntax. The syntax chapter focuses more on analyzing the structure in a sentence. Syntax in linguistics also studies the rules in determining how words form phrases and phrases form sentences.

#### CONTENT:

1. Content Word
2. Function Word
3. Type of sentence
4. Generative  
Transformational  
Grammar
5. Rules and Tree

### 1. PART OF SPEECH

Part-of-speech is basic unit of sentence. To understand sentence structure, we must learn to recognize these basic units. A part of speech explains how a word is used. Part of speech may also be classified as lexical category (Francis, 1959). Traditional grammar classifies words based on eight **parts of speech**: the verb, the noun, the pronoun, the adjective, the adverb, the preposition, the conjunction, and the interjection. In words, part of speech is divided into two classes namely content words and function words.

#### a. Content words

Content words, the most common part of speech, are words that have descriptive meanings such as Noun, Verb, Adjective, and Adverb.

**Noun (N):** a word which names a person, place, or thing. (e.g. Jack, cow, bicycle). Noun can be identified by four criteria:

- a. The most common signal of noun is noun determiner. Words includes determiners are articles, possessive pronoun, quantifier, number, and demonstrative.
- b. Noun have plural inflection (-s or -es) or possessive inflection ('s or s').
- c. Many nouns are made from other part of speech, such as verb, adjective, and other noun by giving derivational suffixes.
- d. The most common position of noun in a sentence is before verb.

**Pronoun (PRO):** a word which can replace a noun. (e.g. he, she, it,)

Pronoun				
Personal		Possessive adjective	Possessive pronoun	Reflexive pronoun
Subjective	Objective			
<b>I</b>	Me	My ....	Mine	My self
<b>You</b>	You	Your ....	Yours	Yourself
<b>They</b>	Them	Their ....	Theirs	Themselves
<b>We</b>	Us	Our ....	Ours	Ourselves
<b>He</b>	Him	His ....	His	Himself
<b>She</b>	Her	Her ....	Hers	Herself
<b>It</b>	It	Its....	-	Itself

**Adjective (ADJ):** A word which modifies a noun. (e.g. beautiful, good, tired). Adjective can be identified by their ability to fill three positions: between noun determiner and noun, after a linking verb, and after a qualifier such as very, rather, and quite. There are two kind of adjectives: based adjectives and derived adjectives. Base adjectives can get the inflectional suffixes (-er) and (-est) to form comparative and superlative degrees. Meanwhile Derived adjectives are formed by adding derivational suffixes.

**Verb (V):** a verb is a word that shows action. Verbs divided by three types: present tense verb, past tense verb and future tense verb. There are four criteria to identify verb:

- The first is Inflections. Verbs has four kinds of inflections. First is the third singular inflection (-s or -es) for present simple. Second is past tense or verb 2 inflection (-d or -ed). The third is past participle or regular verb 3 inflection (-d or -ed). The last inflection for verb is the present participle (-ing) which is usually preceded by to be.
- The second is Verbs commonly accompanied by verb determiners called auxiliaries.
- The third is derivational verb affixation, suffix and prefix)
- The fourth is position of verb which can usually be in „utterance-initial position“ whether the verb is alone or accompanied by „please“, for example in request form: love your parents and please answer the questions; or between two nouns, with or without noun determiners such as the students **submit** the assignment (n-v-n).

**Adverb (ADV):** a word which modifies a verb, adjective, or adverb, (e.g. quickly, very). Adverbs are also a class of lexical words identified by their ability into appears in utterance final position following a noun or nouns functioning as complement. The most common signal of adverb is ending „ly“ that may come after derived adjective such as traditionally, and hopefully; and base adjective like slowly and falsely.

## b. Function words

Function words are those which have little meaning outside of their grammatical purpose, to relate from class words to each other. Function words can be divided into eight Main groups as the following:

**Determiners:** is a word or a group of words that specifies, identifies, or quantifies the noun or noun phrase that follows it. Determiners include articles (*a, an, the*), cardinal numbers (*one, two, three...*) and ordinal numbers (*first, second, third...*), demonstratives (*this, that, these, those*), partitives (*some of, piece of, and others*), quantifiers (*most, all, and others*), difference words (*other, another*), and possessive determiners (*my, your, his, her, its, our, their*).

**Auxiliaries:** auxiliary words to complete the main verb in a sentence. for example, can/could, will/would, get, have, etc.

**Qualifiers:** A qualifier is a word that limits or enhances another word's meaning. Qualifiers affect the certainty and specificity of a statement. Example words are *rather, quite, sometimes, always, most, always, usually, worst, best, heaviest, etc.*

**Prepositions:** a word which shows some relationship between a noun/pronoun and another word in a sentence. For example, *in, on, at, by, to, from, under, between, etc.*

**Coordinator conjunction:** a word used to combine two elements that have the same position and syntax. Coordinator conjunction can join two verbs, two nouns, two adjectives, two phrases, or two

independent clauses. Here some example of coordinator conjunction are *and, but, nor, for, or, yet and also*.

**Interrogators:** there are two interrogators namely simple (*when, where, how, etc*) and interrogator pronouns (*who, which, etc*).

**Includer:** there are two includer category namely simple (*after, although, how, etc*) and relative pronoun (*who, which, where, etc*).

**Sentence linkers:** there are two categories namely simple (*however, hence, etc.*) and phrasal (*in addition, in fact, etc.*)

## 2. TYPES OF SENTENCES

### a. Simple Sentences

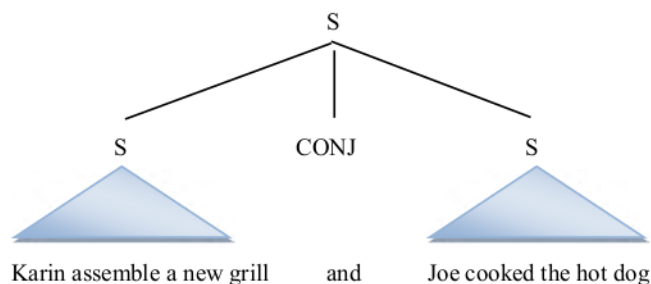
Simple sentence consists of single clause; a clause contains single verb or predicate or sentence consist of subject. Each of these sentences contain only one verb, but you can see that a verb itself can consist of a single word (as in *washed, assemble, cooked*) or of more than one word (as in *will buy*). The clauses just cited are called sentences because they stand independently as sentences; if they were incorporated into other sentences, they would be called *clauses*. Here example of simple sentences:

- Karin assemble a new grill.
- Joe cooked the hot dog.
- Chloe will buy a new dress.
- Her parent had put the gift in the car.
- Jack washed the dishes.

## b. Compound sentences

Compound sentences consists two clauses that joined by coordinating conjunctions such as *and*, *but*, and *or*. To repeat a point made in the preceding section, when clauses are combined to form a single sentence we generally reverse the word *sentence* for larger structure and refer to the structures that make it up as *clauses*.

The clauses in coordinate sentence hold equal status as parts of the sentence; neither is part of the other one, and each could stand by itself as an independent sentence. The following figure represents the structure of a coordinate sentence and illustrates the equivalent status of the clauses (called *coordinate clauses*). We use the label S for both the whole sentence and for each coordinate clause in it; CONJ stands for conjunction.



## c. Complex sentences

Complex sentences are formed by incorporating clause(s) into another clause. Embedded clause is a clause that is embedded

or incorporate into another clause to form complex sentence. The clause *Dan washed the dishes* can be incorporated into another clause to produce sentence *Sue said Dan washed the dishes*. In each of the following examples, the underlined portion is a clause that is incorporated (or embedded) into another clause:

- Sue said Dan washed the dishes
- That the runner from Ohio won the marathon surprised me.
- She is wondering whether Denise will buy a new raincoat.
- She didn't suspect a party until her uncle put the gifts in the car.
- It was clear that the patient should have received a refund.

In sentence (a), the clause *Dan washed the dishes* is embedded into the clausal structure *Sue said* \_\_\_\_\_. The clause *Dan washed the dishes* functions as the direct object of the verb *said*. It is thus functionally equivalent (though not semantically equivalent) to the word *something* in the sentence *Sue said something*; both are direct objects. In (b), the clause *That the runner from Ohio won the marathon* is embedded into the clausal structure \_\_\_\_\_ *surprise us*. In this case, the embedded clause in (b) (*that the runner from Ohio won the marathon*) is grammatically equivalent to *It* in *It surprised us* or to *The news* in *The news surprised us*. In (c), the clause *whether Denise will buy a new raincoat* is embedded into the clause *She is wondering* \_\_\_\_\_; it serves as a complement to the verb *is wondering*.

9 Complex sentence sometimes is introduced by subordinators. In most of the examples given, the embedded clause is introduced by a word that would not occur there if the clause were standing as an independent sentence: words like *that* in (b) and (e), *whether* in (c), and *until* in (d). When a clause is embedded into another clause, it is often introduced by such subordinator. **Subordinators** serve to mark the beginning of an embedded clause and to help identify its function in the sentence. Not all embedded clause must introduce by a subordinator, although in English they usually can be. Compare these sentence pairs:

- a. Sue said that Dan washed the dishes
- b. Sue said Dan washed the dishes
- c. That she won surprised me.
- d. She won surprised me

Notice that (a) and (b) are well formed with or without the subordinator. But of the pair (c) and (d), only (c) is well formed. (The asterisk preceding (d) indicates a structure that is not well formed.)

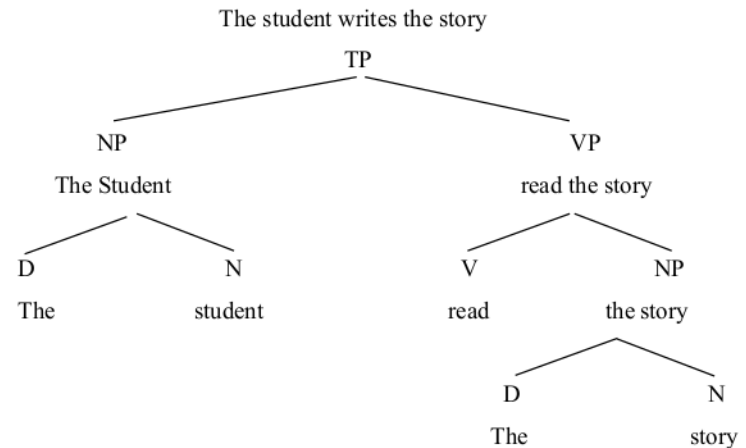
### 3. STRUCTURE

#### a. Generative Transformation Grammar

**Constituents** is about the words in sentence are grouped into units. Constituency is the most important and basic notion in

syntactic theory. For example, *the student read the story*. The word of *the student* is one constituent and *read the story* is also one constituent.

**Tree structure represents the units with a group of lines. The picture in below is a typical hierarchical tree structure.** The sentence constituent (represented by the symbol TP) consists of two constituents: a subject **noun phrase** (NP) [*the student*] and a predicate phrase or verb **phrase** (VP) [*read the story*]. The subject NP in turn contains a **noun** (N) *student* and a **determiner** (or article) (D) *the*. Similarly, the VP contains a **verb** (V), and an object NP [*read the story*].



A diagram with syntactic category information provided is called a phrase structure tree. Three aspects of speakers' syntactic

knowledge of sentence structure are disclosed in phrase structure trees:

1. Linear order of words in the sentence
2. The groupings of words into syntactic categories
3. The hierarchical structure of syntactic categories. (e.g. a Sentence is made up of a Noun Phrase followed by a Verb Phrase, and so on)

Verb phrase (VP) consist of a verb followed by a noun phrase followed by prepositional phrase (PP). Noun phrases (NP) may occur in three different structural positions: immediately below the S, below the VP and below the PP.

As we know that hierarchical constituents structure can also be represented with brackets. Each pair of brackets ([ ]) represents a constituent. We normally put the label of the constituent on the left member of the pair. Here some example of bracketed diagram.

[<sub>TP</sub> [<sub>NP</sub> [<sub>D</sub> The] [<sub>N</sub> student]]] [<sub>VP</sub> [<sub>V</sub> write] [<sub>NP</sub> [<sub>The</sub>] [<sub>story</sub>]]]

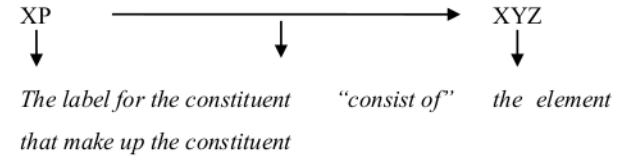
## b. Rules and tree

Generalizations about structure are represented by rules and rules to generate tree. We are going to learn about phrase structure rules (PSRs).

### 1. Noun Phrases (NPs)

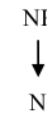
The simple of NPs contain only noun (usually a proper noun [+proper], pronoun [+pron], mass noun [-count] or a plural

noun [+plural]). For example, cat, book, girl. Here the format for PSRs:

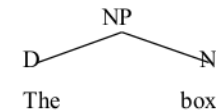


### a. NP → N

This rule says that an NP is composed of (written as →) an N. This rule would generate a tree like



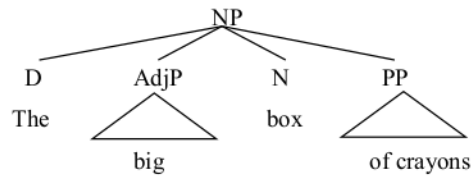
Many NPs (e.g., those that are [+count]) that are more complex. For example, *the box*. Format for noun to be NP → D N. So the generated tree like:



Nouns can also take prepositional phrase (PP) modifiers (see below where we discuss the structure of these constituents). So, the rules to be:

**NP → (D)(AdjP)N(PP)**

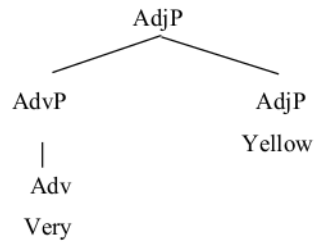
For clearness, let's apply the rules



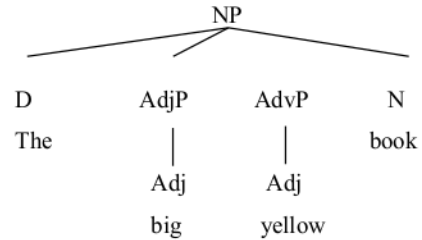
## 2. Adjective Phrases (AdjPs) and Adverb Phrases(AdvPs)

Adjective phrases of course consist adjective.

AdjP → (AdvP) Adj. Adverb phrase (AdvP) as modifier



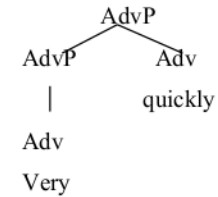
This will give us the following structure *the very yellow book*.



A very similar rule is used to introduce AdvPs:

AdvP → (AdvP) Adv

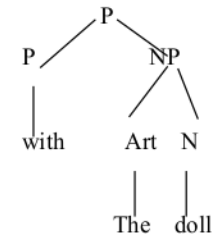
For this rules, this is the example (very quickly)



## 3. Prepositional phrases (PPs)

The next major kind of constituent we consider is the prepositional phrase (PP). Most PPs take the form of a preposition (the head) followed by an NP. PP rules appears to be: PP

The PP rule appears to be: PP → P NP



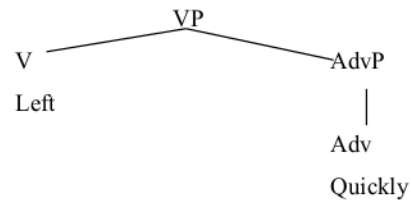
## 4. Verb Phrases

VP consists of a single verb.

VP → V

Verbs may be modified by adverbs (AdvPs)

VP → (AdvP)



### ACTIVITY 12!

1. "She doesn't know where the man lives".

The clause in the sentence above is of the type ....

- Noun clause
- Adverbial clause
- Adjective clause
- Verbless clause

2. She invited the man. The man is from America.

If the sentence above is combined with the right type of clause it becomes ...

- She invited the man who is from America
- She invited the man is from America
- She invited who is from America
- She invited who the man is from America

3. Structuralists argue that ....

- The same structure does not always have the same meaning
- Different structures don't always have different meanings
- The same structure can have different meanings
- The same structure has the same meaning

4. In the phrase "an English book" can be classified in the structure of ....

- Coordination
- Prediction
- Complementation
- Modification

5. In the transformational approach, sentences are analyzed based on the following dimensions, namely...

- surface structure, deep structure, and transformation
- structure of modification, structure of predication, structure of complementation, structure of coordination
- wrong because it is only part of the transformation analysis
- surface structure, modification structure, prediction structure

6. Benny is handsome.

The sentence above is seen from the deep structure; the structure is ....

- Benny is handsome
- The handsome man is Benny
- Benny isn't handsome
- Is Benny handsome?



7. The students write the lesson.

Based on the surface structure analysis, the sentence becomes ....

- a. The students write the lesson
- b. The students the lesson to write
- c. The lesson is written by the students
- d. The lesson for the students to write

8. "The man who wrote this module teaches syntax". The type of test that cannot be used to identify the Noun Phrase (NP) in the sentence above is....

- a. passive test
- b. interrogative test
- c. cleft sentence test
- d. Reflexive test

9. "The girls speaks English"

In the sentence above, if described in a tree diagram, it is described as....

- a. The girl (VP) and speaks English (VP)
- b. The girl (VP) becomes The (art) and girl (N), then speaks English (VP) is broken down into speaks (V) and English (Ap)
- c. The girl (VP) becomes The (art) and girl (N), then speaks English (VP)
- d. The girl (NP) and speaks English (VP) are broken down into speaks (V) English (Ap)

10. "He said that his father saw the old man was talking to himself.

The underlined word refers to....

- a. his father
- b. the old man
- c. he
- d. he and his father

# CHAPTER VIII

## PRAGMATIC & SEMANTIC



### DO YOU KNOW ABOUT SEMANTIC AND PRAGMATIC ?

In this chapter, we will discuss one of the branches of linguistics, namely semantics, and pragmatics. This chapter will explain things related to the meaning of semantic and pragmatic, the difference between semantic and pragmatic, and so on.

#### CONTENT:

1. *Semantics and Pragmatics*
2. *Type of Semantics*
3. *Semantics in Linguistics*
4. *Semantics in Psychology*
5. *Linguistic Semantics and Grammar*
6. *Semantics vs. Language Manipulation*
7. *Pragmatic*

### 1. SEMANTICS AND PRAGMATICS

Semantics is a linguistic term that refers to the study of linguistics meaning. Twentieth century semantics, especially in the period 1960-2000, has roots that stretch back to the Pre-Socratics of Greece in the sixth to fifth centuries BCE. Pragmatics deals with the context dependent assignment of meaning to language expressions used in acts of speaking and writing. Though pragmatics is often said to have arisen from the work of Peirce (1931), Aristotle also wrote on certain aspects of pragmatics (Allan 2004) and illocutionary types (acts performed through speaking) were identified by the Stoics (second century BCE), Apollonius Dyscolus, St. Augustine, Peter Abelard, and Thomas Reid before being rediscovered by speech act theorists such as Austin (1962) and Searle (1969; 1975) (for discussion see Allan 2010). Furthermore, at least since the time of Aristotle there have been commentaries on rhetoric and oratory. So, various aspects of pragmatics have a long history.

### 2. TYPE OF SEMANTICS

**9** Semantics is a study of the meaning of lexical items and other parts of language. There are seven types of meaning in Semantics; conceptual, connotative, stylistic, affective, reflected, collocative and thematic meaning. This study focuses on only two of the types of meaning: conceptual meaning and connotative meaning.

### a. Conceptual Meaning

Conceptual meaning means logical, cognitive, or denotative content. It is based on two structural principles, which are contractiveness and constituent structures (in a scientific way). It is usually derived from definitions we find in dictionaries and the appearance of these lexical items. We give these lexical items features (constituent structures) and eliminate other features which are not present (contractiveness structures).

The conceptual meaning of a language can be studied in terms of **contrastive feature**, depends on the given lexical field, so that (for example) the meaning of the word *woman* could be specified as (+ *human*, + *adult*, - *male*), as distinct from, *man*, which could be defined (+ *human*, + *adult*, + *male*), man is incompatible with woman because of the distinct feature which is (male feature). The second principle, that of structure, is the principle by which larger linguistic units are built up out of smaller units, (for example) in this sentence:

{[(**All**) (men)] [(are)] [(mortal)]}

(We are able to analyze the sentence syntactically into a its constituents parts)

The semantic representation of conceptual meaning is governed by two linguistic principles: that of contrast and that of arrangement. These principles are comparable to the paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations observed in phonological and syntactic analyses.

### b. Associative Meaning

The associative meaning of an expression has to do with individual mental understandings of the speaker. They, in turn, can be broken up into six sub-types: connotative, collocative, social, affective, reflected and thematic

### c. Connotative Meaning

*“The communicative value an expression has by virtue of what it refers to” (Leech 1981: 12).*

Connotation is the real-world value a speaker associates with an expression. In other words, it is the meaning above the conceptual meaning and it may vary according to culture, background or society. Thus, connotative meaning can be subjective or unstable. It depends very much on how an individual or society perceives a word. It is the association that we make in our mind of what these lexical items represent. (For example), In English, the word **dog** may have the connotation **loyalty**, apart from its referential meaning.

When we analyze word meanings we should distinguish two separate concepts called denotative and connotative meaning; “**sea**” denotes a large body of water but connotes a sense of danger, instability. One aspect concerning the connotative meaning is the **social meaning** (sometimes termed stylistic meaning) which varies between age-groups, sex, social class and cultures. Dialect can be a good example. It is a piece of

language that conveys about the social circumstances of its use. Pavement is used in British English and sidewalk in American English. Residence is formal and home is casual.

#### **d. Affective Meaning**

Is what is communicated of the feeling or attitude of the speaker/writer toward what is referred to? (For example), by scaling our remarks according to politeness with the object of getting people to be quiet, we might say either:

1/ I'm terribly sorry to interrupt, but I wonder if you would be so kind as to lower you voices a little

2/ will you belt up

Factors such as intonation and voice-timber (tone of voice) are also important here. And there are elements of language such as interjections, like (Aha! Yippee!), Whose main function is to express emotions.

#### **e. Reflected Meaning**

What is communicated through association with another sense of the same expression. So it is the meaning that arises in cases of multiple conceptual meaning, when one sense of a word forms part of our response to another sense. In the church service, the synonymous expression (the comforter), it sounds warm 'comforting' but in the religious context it means the strengthener or supporter. i.e. sense of the word seems to 'rub off' on another

sense.

#### **f. Collocative Meaning**

Collocative meaning is the associated meaning a word acquires in line with the meaning of words which tend to co-occur with it. Both pretty and handsome mean good-looking but they differ in collocative meaning. Pretty often co-occurs with girl, woman, flower, skirt, etc. Handsome often collocates with boy, man, car, overcoat, etc.

*See (green ideas sleep furiously) to more understand the meaning of collocation.*

#### **g. Thematic Meaning**

It concerns itself with how the order of words spoken affects the meaning that is entailed.

If we say:

1/ I will do it tomorrow. In a neutral way.

2/ tomorrow, I will do it. Showing a promise.

3/ Mrs. Bessi Smith donated the first prize.

4/ The first prize was donated by Mrs. Bessi Smith.

Certainly these have different communicative value: the active sentence seems to answer 'what did Mrs. Bessi Smith donate?', while the passive sentence seems to answer 'who donated the first prize'.

**Furthermore...**

**Antonymy** (A is the opposite of B; e.g. cold is the opposite of warm). **Homonymy**. Two concepts, A and B, are expressed by the same symbol. Ex-ample: Both a financial institution and a edge of a river are expressed by the word bank (the word has two senses).

**Hyponymous relationships** ("is a" relation or hyponym-hyperonym), generic relation, genus-species relation: a hierarchical subordinate relation. (A is kind of B; A is subordinate to B; A is narrower than B; B is broader than A). The "is a" relation denotes what class an object is a member of. For example, "CAR - is a - VEHICLE" and "CHICKEN - is a - BIRD". It can be thought of as being a shorthand for "is a type of". When all the relationships in a system are "is a", is the system a taxonomy. The "generic of" option allows you to indicate all the particular types (species, hyponyms) of a concept. The "specific of" option al-lows you to indicate the common genus (hypernym) of all the particular types. **Incompatibility**. It has to do with the **componential analysis** which is also called *feature analysis* or *contrast analysis*, refers to the description of the meaning of words through structured sets of [semantic](#) features, which are given as "present", "absent" or "indifferent with reference to feature". (Example)

See the example of man and woman\_ under the conceptual meaning\_ 1/ they must share the same lexical field (in semantics)\_ Hyponymous relationships\_ (the human race)

1/they differ in only one feature. (Male feature)

So man is incompatible with woman (meaning exclusion)

### 3. SEMANTICS IN LINGUISTICS

In linguistics, semantics is the subfield that studies meaning. Semantics can address meaning at the levels of words, phrases, sentences, or larger units of discourse. Two of the fundamental issues in the field of semantics are that of compositional semantics (which pertains on how smaller parts, like words, combine and interact to form the meaning of larger expressions such as sentences) and lexical semantics (the nature of the meaning of words). Other prominent issues are those of context and its role on interpretation, opaque contexts, ambiguity, vagueness, entailment and presuppositions.

Several disciplines and approaches have contributed to the often contentious field of semantics. One of the crucial questions which unites different approaches to linguistic semantics is that of the relationship between form and meaning, and some major contributions to the study of semantics have derived from studies in the 1980-90s in related subjects of the syntax–semantics interface and pragmatics.

The semantic level of language interacts with other modules or levels (like syntax) in which language is traditionally divided. In linguistics, it is typical to talk in terms of "interfaces" regarding such interactions between modules or levels. For semantics, the most crucial interfaces are considered those with semantics (the syntax–semantics interface), pragmatics and phonology (regarding prosody

and intonation). There are disciplines and paradigms in linguistic semantics

### 1. Formal semantics

Formal semantics seeks to identify domain-specific mental operations which speakers perform when they compute a sentence's meaning on the basis of its syntactic structure. Theories of formal semantics are typically floated on top of theories of syntax such as generative syntax or Combinatory categorial grammar and provide a model theory based on mathematical tools such as typed lambda calculi. The field's central ideas are rooted in early twentieth century philosophical logic as well as later ideas about linguistic syntax. It emerged as its own subfield in the 1970s after the pioneering work of Richard Montague and Barbara Partee and continues to be an active area of research.

### 2. Conceptual semantics

This theory is an effort to explain properties of argument structure. The assumption behind this theory is that syntactic properties of phrases reflect the meanings of the words that head them. With this theory, linguists can better deal with the fact that subtle differences in word meaning correlate with other differences in the syntactic structure that the word appears in. The way this is gone about is by looking at the internal structure of words. These small parts that make up the internal structure of words are termed *semantic primitives*.

### 3. Cognitive semantics

Cognitive semantics approaches meaning from the perspective of cognitive linguistics. In this framework, language is explained via general human cognitive abilities rather than a domain-specific language module. The techniques native to cognitive semantics are typically used in lexical studies such as those put forth by Leonard Talmy, George Lakoff, Dirk Geeraerts, and Bruce Wayne Hawkins. Some cognitive semantic frameworks, such as that developed by Talmy, take into account syntactic structures as well. Semantics, through modern researchers can be linked to the Wernicke's area of the brain and can be measured using the event-related potential (ERP). ERP is the rapid electrical response recorded with small disc electrodes which are placed on a person's scalp.

### 4. Lexical semantics

A linguistic theory that investigates word meaning. This theory understands that the meaning of a word is fully reflected by its context. Here, the meaning of a word is constituted by its contextual relations. Therefore, a distinction between degrees of participation as well as modes of participation are made. In order to accomplish this distinction any part of a sentence that bears a meaning and combines with the meanings of other constituents is labeled as a semantic constituent. Semantic constituents that

cannot be broken down into more elementary constituents are labeled minimal semantic constituents.

## 5. Cross-cultural semantics

Various fields or disciplines have long been contributing to cross-cultural semantics. Are words like *love*, *truth*, and *hate* universals? Is even the word *sense* – so central to semantics – a universal, or a concept entrenched in a long-standing but culture-specific tradition? These are the kind of crucial questions that are discussed in cross-cultural semantics. Translation theory, ethnolinguistics, linguistic anthropology and cultural linguistics specialize in the field of comparing, contrasting, and translating words, terms and meanings from one language to another (see Herder, W. von Humboldt, Boas, Sapir, and Whorf). But philosophy, sociology, and anthropology have long established traditions in contrasting the different nuances of the terms and concepts we use. And online encyclopaedias such as the Stanford encyclopedia of philosophy, Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy, and more and more Wikipedia itself have greatly facilitated the possibilities of comparing the background and usages of key cultural terms. In recent years the question of whether key terms are translatable or untranslatable has increasingly come to the fore of global discussions, especially since the publication of Barbara Cassin's *Dictionary of Untranslatables: A Philosophical Lexicon*, in 2014.

## 6. Computational semantics

Computational semantics is focused on the processing of linguistic meaning. In order to do this concrete algorithms and architectures are described. Within this framework the algorithms and architectures are also analyzed in terms of decidability, time/space complexity, data structures that they require and communication protocols.

## 4. SEMANTIC IN PSYCHOLOGY

### a. Semantic memory

In psychology, *semantic memory* is memory for meaning – in other words, the aspect of memory that preserves only the *gist*, the general significance, of remembered experience – while episodic memory is memory for the ephemeral details – the individual features, or the unique particulars of experience. The term 'episodic memory' was introduced by Tulving and Schacter in the context of 'declarative memory' which involved simple association of factual or objective information concerning its object. Word meaning is measured by the company they keep, i.e. the relationships among words themselves in a semantic network. The memories may be transferred intergenerationally or isolated in one generation due to a cultural disruption. Different generations may have different experiences at similar points in their own time-lines. This may then create a vertically

heterogeneous semantic net for certain words in an otherwise homogeneous culture. In a network created by people analyzing their understanding of the word (such as Wordnet) the links and decomposition structures of the network are few in number and kind, and include *part of*, *kind of*, and similar links. In automated ontologies the links are computed vectors without explicit meaning. Various automated technologies are being developed to compute the meaning of words: latent semantic indexing and support vector machines as well as natural language processing, artificial neural networks and predicate calculus techniques.

#### **b. Ideasthesia**

Ideasthesia is a psychological phenomenon in which activation of concepts evokes sensory experiences. For example, in synesthesia, activation of a concept of a letter (e.g., that of the letter *A*) evokes sensory-like experiences (e.g., of red color).

#### **c. Psychosemantics**

In the 1960s, psychosemantic studies became popular after Charles E. Osgood's massive cross-cultural studies using his semantic differential (SD) method that used thousands of nouns and adjective bipolar scales. A specific form of the SD, Projective Semantics method uses only most common and neutral nouns that correspond to the 7 groups (factors) of adjective-scales most consistently found in cross-cultural studies (Evaluation, Potency,

Activity as found by Osgood, and Reality, Organization, Complexity, Limitation as found in other studies). In this method, seven groups of bipolar adjective scales corresponded to seven types of nouns so the method was thought to have the object-scale symmetry (OSS) between the scales and nouns for evaluation using these scales. For example, the nouns corresponding to the listed 7 factors would be: Beauty, Power, Motion, Life, Work, Chaos, Law. Beauty was expected to be assessed unequivocally as "very good" on adjectives of Evaluation-related scales, Life as "very real" on Reality-related scales, etc. However, deviations in this symmetric and very basic matrix might show underlying biases of two types: scales-related bias and objects-related bias. This OSS design meant to increase the sensitivity of the SD method to any semantic biases in responses of people within the same culture and educational background.

## **5. LINGUISTIC SEMANTICS AND GRAMMAR**

### **a. Semantics vs. Language Manipulation**

As David Crystal explains in the following excerpt, there is a difference between semantics as linguistics describe it and semantics as the general public describes it. "The technical term for the study of meaning in language is semantics. But as soon as this term is used, a word of warning is in order. Any scientific approach to semantics has to be clearly distinguished from a



pejorative sense of the term that has developed in popular use, when people talk about the way that language can be manipulated in order to mislead the public.

"A newspaper headline might read. 'Tax increases reduced to semantics'—referring to the way a government was trying to hide a proposed increase behind some carefully chosen words. Or someone might say in an argument, 'That's just semantics,' implying that the point is purely a verbal quibble, bearing no relationship to anything in the real world. This kind of nuance is absent when we talk about semantics from the objective point of linguistic research. The linguistic approach studies the properties of meaning in a systematic and objective way, with reference to as wide a range of utterances and languages as possible," (David Crystal, *How Language Works*. Overlook, 2006).

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## b. Pragmatics

Pragmatics is the study of "how to do things with words" (the name of a well-known book by the philosopher J.L. Austin), or perhaps "how people do things with words" (to be more descriptive about it). According to George in book Pragmatic. He defines about pragmatics become four terms.

### 1. Pragmatics is the study of speaker meaning

Pragmatics is concern with the study of meaning as a communicated by a speaker/ a writer and interpreted by listener / a reader.

### 2. Pragmatics is the study of contextual meaning

Pragmatics involves the interpretation of what people mean in a particular context and how the context influences what is said.

### 3. Pragmatics is the study of how more gets communicated than is said

Pragmatics explores how listeners can make inferences about what is said in order to arrive at an interpretation of the speakers intended meaning.

### 4. Pragmatics is the study of expression of relative distance

It is to determine the choice between the said and unsaid. It means, how close/distant the listener is, speakers determine how much need to be said.

## c. Speech Act Language Function

In this chapter, language has various functions. It can be distinguished by various functions including:

- 1) Cognitive Function (propositional or descriptive function as communication of a situation) for example, today is Sunday. The table is in the middle of the room.
- 2) Expressive Function (affective function) in this case language functions as an expression of the speaker's attitudes, emotions, feelings. For example, shit, ohhh.

- 3) Directive Functions. In this section, language functions as to influence the behavior or attitude of the listener. For example, can I borrow your book for one week?
- 4) Phatic Function. In this case language serves to establish and maintain contact with listeners. For example, nice to meet you.
- 5) Metalinguistic Functions. In this case language serves to clarify something and to ensure communication can take place without obstacles. For example, the word 'Violin' is of Italian origin.
- 6) Poetic function (aesthetic function) in this case language functions for personal use for its own sake and for the pleasure given to speakers and listeners through sound or rhythm.

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**We'll consider four aspects of pragmatics in this lecture:**

*speech acts; rhetorical structure; conversational implicature; and the management of reference in discourse.*

**a) Speech Acts**

People use language to accomplish certain kinds of acts, broadly known as **speech acts**, and distinct from **physical acts** like drinking a glass of water, or **mental acts** like thinking about drinking a glass of water. Speech acts include *asking* for a glass of water, *promising* to drink a glass of water, *threatening* to drink a glass of water, *ordering* someone to drink a glass of water, and so on. Most of these ought really to be called "communicative acts",

since speech and even language are not strictly required. Thus someone can ask for a glass of water by pointing to a pitcher and miming the act of drinking. It's common to divide speech acts into two categories: direct and indirect.

**b) Direct speech acts**

There are three basic types of **direct speech acts**, and they correspond to three special syntactic types that seem to occur in most of the world's languages. Examples are given in English, French and Buang (a Malayo-Polynesian language of Papua New Guinea).

Speech Act	Sentence Type	Function	Examples
Assertion	Declarative	Conveys information; true or false.	18 "Jenny got an A on the test". "Les filles ont pris des photos"(the girls took photos)
Question	Interrogative	Elicits information	18 "Did Jenny get an A on the test?" "Less filles ont-elles pris des photos"(did the

			girls take photos')
Orders and Requests	Imperative	Cause others to behave in certain ways.	"Get an A on the test!" "prenez des photos!"(take some photos!)

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Although assertions, questions and orders are fairly universal, and most of the world's languages have separate syntactic constructions that distinguish them, other speech acts do not have a syntactic construction that is specific to them. Consider the English sentence,

a) *If you cross that line, I'll shoot you!*

Most English speakers would have no trouble identifying such an utterance as a **threat**. However, English has no special sentence form for threats. The if-construction used in (a) is not specific to the speech act of threatening. Such a construction might also express a **promise**, as in:

b) *If you get all A's, I'll buy you a car!*

or simply a cause and effect relationship between physical events:

c) *If you heat water to 212 degrees Fahrenheit, it will boil.*

A consideration of the syntactic means available for expressing the various speech acts leads us to see that even for the three basic speech acts laid out in the table above, speakers may choose means

of expression other than the basic syntactic type associated with the speech act in question. To some extent, this just reflects the existence of a diversity of means of expression, but a more pervasive reason is that speakers may use **indirect** rather than **direct** speech acts.

### 1) Rhetorical Structure Rhetorical structure theory (RST)

is a theory of text organization that describes relations that hold between parts of text. It was originally developed by William Mann, Sandra Thompson, Christian M.I.M. Matthiessen and others at the University of Southern California's Information Sciences Institute (ISI) and defined in a 1988 paper.<sup>[1][2][3]</sup> The theory was developed as part of studies of computer-based text generation. Natural language researchers later began using RST in text summarization and other applications. It explains coherence by postulating a hierarchical, connected structure of texts.<sup>[3]</sup> In 2000, Daniel Marcu, also of ISI, demonstrated that practical discourse parsing and text summarization also could be achieved using RST.

### 2) Conversational Implicature

In the work of H.P. Grice he focused on pragmatics into the material of speech acts. The purpose of writing his work in pragmatics is to be able to understand how the "meaning of the speaker" i.e. the meaning one gets in a teaching emerges from the

# CHAPTER IX

## DISCOURSE ANALYSIS



"meaning of the sentence". Grice called it the Cooperative Principle. In cooperative implicature has four sub parts.

1. The maxim of equality. The speaker's contribution must be good and correct.
2. The maxim of quantity. The speaker's contribution should be informative and not say too much or too little.
3. The maxim of relevance. At this point the contribution must be related to the purpose of the exchange.
4. The maxim of manners. In this case the contribution must be clear, concise and orderly.

### **ACTIVITY 13!**

1. What are the type of semantics?
2. Collocative is one sub-type from?
3. What's Semantics?
4. Please make 3 (three) example from direct speech?
5. What is Rhetorical Structure?

### **DO YOU KNOW ABOUT DISCOURSE ANALYSIS?**

In this chapter, we will study the branch of linguistics, namely discourse analysis which is a linguistic context in conversation which is one part of the study of pragmatics. This chapter will explain matters related to discourse analysis.

#### **CONTENT:**

1. *Definition of Discourse Analysis*
2. *Different views of discourse analysis*
3. *Discourse and Defining*

## 1. WHAT IS DISCOURSE ANALYSIS?

*Discourse analysis* examines patterns of language across texts and considers the relationship between language and the social and cultural contexts in which it is used. Discourse analysis also considers the ways that the use of language presents different views of the world and different understandings. It examines how the use of language is influenced by relationships between participants as well as the effects the use of language has upon social identities and relations. It also considers how views of the world, and identities, are constructed through the use of discourse.

The term *discourse analysis* was first introduced by Zellig Harris (1952) as a way of analyzing connected speech and writing. Harris had two main interests: the examination of language beyond the level of the sentence and the relationship between linguistic and non-linguistic behavior. He examined the first of these in most detail, aiming to provide a way for describing how language features are distributed within texts and the ways in which they are combined in particular kinds and styles of texts. An early, and important, observation he made was that: connected discourse occurs within a particular situation – whether of a person speaking, or of a conversation, or of someone sitting down occasionally over the period of months to write a particular kind of book in a particular literary or scientific tradition. (3) There are, thus, typical ways of using language in particular situations. These *discourses*, he argued, not only share

particular meanings, they also have characteristic linguistic features associated with them. What these meanings are and how they are realized in language is of central interest to the area of discourse analysis.

### Studies in Discourse Analysis

1. Discuss how language users digest what is written by the author in the textbook, understand what is conveyed by the addressee verbally in conversation.
2. Examine the organization of discourse analysis above the sentence or clause level.
3. Examine larger linguistic units such as text, conversation.
4. Examine the use of language in social contexts, including interactions between speakers of the language.
5. The term “discourse” refers to a complete linguistic record of communication events. Therefore, discourse is very close to tools in fields related to sociolinguistics.
6. The study of discourse analysis is close to pragmatics

## 2. DIFFERENT VIEWS OF DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

There are in fact a number of differing views on what discourse analysis actually is. Social science researchers, for example, might argue that all their work is concerned with the analysis of discourse, yet often take up the term in their own, sometimes different,

ways (Fairclough 2003). Mills (1997) makes a similar observation showing how through its relatively short history the term discourse analysis has shifted from highlighting one aspect of language usage to another, as well as being used in different ways by different researchers.

Fairclough (2003) contrasts what he calls 'textually oriented discourse analysis' with approaches to discourse analysis that have more of a social theoretical orientation. He does not see these two views as mutually exclusive, however, arguing for an analysis of discourse that is both linguistic and social in its orientation. Cameron and Kulick (2003) present a similar view. They do not take these two perspectives to be incompatible with each other, arguing that the instances of language in use that are studied under a textually oriented view of discourse are still socially situated and need to be interpreted in terms of their social meanings and functions.

David Crystal's (2008) analysis of Barack Obama's victory speech when he won the US presidential election is an example of textually oriented discourse analysis. One of the features Crystal notes in Obama's speech is the use of *parallelism*, where he repeats certain grammatical structures for rhetorical effect. In the following extract from the opening lines of his speech Obama repeats 'who clauses' (highlighted below) lowering the processing load of the speech so that listeners will focus on the content of each the clauses that follow. Crystal also shows how Obama follows the rhetorical 'rule of three' in this section of his speech in a way that mirrors the speeches of

former political leaders such as Winston Churchill. If there is anyone out there *who still doubts* that America is a place where all things are possible, *who still wonders* if the dream of our founders is alive in our time, *who still questions* the power of our democracy, tonight is your answer. (CNNPolitics.com 2008) Obama also uses lists of pairs in his speech to rhetorical effect, as in: It's the answer spoken by young and old, rich and poor, Democrat and Republican, black, white, Hispanic, Asian, Native American, gay, straight, disabled and not disabled. (ibid.)

Higgins' (2008) analysis of Obama's speech is an example of more socially oriented discourse analysis. Higgins traces Obama's speech back to the oratory of the ancient Greeks and Romans showing how the use of the 'tricolon' (series of threes), as in the example above, was one of Cicero's, as well as Julius Caesar's, rhetorical techniques, as in Caesar's 'Veni, vidi, vici' (I came, I saw, I conquered). In doing this, Obama recalls both the politics and traditions of ancient Athens where oratory was 'the supreme political skill, on whose mastery power depended' (ibid., online). Williams (2009) discusses Obama's speech within the context of the political (and economic) moment of his victory, highlighting the central message of optimism in his speech captured in the repetition of the refrain 'Yes, we can'.

Higgins (2008) also discusses how this 'Yes, we can' relates, intertextually, to the call and response preaching of the American church and the power that effective preachers have on their congregations. Obama's reference in his speech to previous leaders,

thus, draws on the *social stock of knowledge* (Luckmann 2009) he shares with his audience and their social and cultural histories.

We can see, then, that discourse analysis is a view of language at the level of text. Discourse analysis is also a view of language in use; that is, how people achieve certain communicative goals through the use of language, perform certain communicative acts, participate in certain communicative events and present themselves to others. Discourse analysis considers how people manage interactions with each other, how people communicate within particular groups and societies as well as how they communicate with other groups, and with other cultures. It also focuses on how people do things beyond language, and the ideas and beliefs that they communicate as they use language.

#### a. Discourse as the social construction of reality

The view of discourse as the *social construction of reality* see texts as communicative units which are embedded in social and cultural practices. Discourse, then, is both shaped by the world as well as shaping the world. Discourse is shaped by language as well as shaping language. It is shaped by the people who use the language as well as shaping the language that people use. Discourse is shaped, as well, by the discourse that has preceded it and that which might follow it. Discourse is also shaped by the medium in which it occurs as well as it shapes the possibilities for that medium. The purpose of the text also

influences the discourse. Discourse also shapes the range of possible purposes of texts (Johnstone 2007).

Wetherell's (2001) analysis of the BBC *Panorama* interview with the late Diana, Princess of Wales (BBC 1995) provides an example of the role of language in the construction (and construal) of the social world. She shows how, through the use of language, Diana 'construes' her social world, presenting herself as a sharing person and Prince Charles as 'a proud man who felt low about the attention his wife was getting' (Wetherell 2001: 15). That is, as she speaks, the Princess creates a view of herself and the world in which she lives in a way that she wishes people to see. As Wetherell points out:

*As Diana and others speak, on this and many other occasions, a formulation of the world comes into being. The world as described comes into existence at that moment. In an important sense, the social reality constructed in the Panorama interview and in other places of Diana's happy marriage bucking under media pressure did not exist before its emergence as discourse.*

#### b. Discourse and Socially Situated Identities

When we speak or write we use more than just language to display who we are, and how we want people to see us. The way we dress, the gestures we use and the way/s we act and interact also influence how we display social identity. Other factors which influence this include the ways we think, the attitudes we display

and the things we value, feel and believe. As Gee (2011) argues, the ways we make visible and recognizable *who* we are and *what* we are doing always involves more than just language. It involves acting, interacting and thinking in certain ways. It also involves valuing and talking (or reading and writing) in appropriate ways with appropriate 'props', at appropriate times and in appropriate places.

The Princess of Wales, for example, knows in the *Panorama* interview not only how she is expected to speak in the particular place and at the particular time but also how she should dress, how she can use body language to achieve the effect that she wants as well as the values, attitudes, beliefs and emotions it is appropriate for her to express (as well as those it is not appropriate for her to express) in this situation. That is, she knows how to enact the *discourse* of a Princess being interviewed about her private life in the open and public medium of television. This *discourse*, of course, may be different from, but related to, the *discourses* she participated in in her role as mother of her children, and the public and private roles and identities she had as wife of the Prince of Wales. A given discourse, thus, can involve more than just the one single identity (ibid.).

Discourses, then, involve the *socially situated identities* that we enact and recognize in the different settings that we interact in. They include culture-specific ways of performing and culture-specific ways of recognizing identities and activities.

Discourses also include the different styles of language that we use to enact and recognize these identities; that is, different *social languages* (Gee 1996). Discourses also involve characteristic ways of acting, interacting and feeling, and characteristic ways of showing emotion, gesturing, dressing and posturing. They also involve particular ways of valuing, thinking, believing, knowing, speaking and listening, reading and writing (Gee 2011).

### c. Discourse and Performance

As Gee explains:

*a Discourse is a 'dance' that exists in the abstract as a coordinated pattern of words, deeds, values, beliefs, symbols, tools, objects, times, and places in the here and now as a performance that is recognizable as just such a coordination. Like a dance, the performance here and now is never exactly the same. It all comes down, often, to what the 'masters of the dance' will allow to be recognized or will be forced to recognize as a possible instantiation of the dance. (36)*

This notion of performance and, in particular, *performativity*, is taken up by authors such as Butler (1990, 1991, 1997, 1999, 2004), Cameron (1999), Eckert and McConnell-Ginet (2003), Hall (2000) and Pennycook (2004, 2007). The notion of performativity derives from speech act theory and the work of the linguistic philosopher Austin. It is based on the view that in *saying* something, we *do* it (Cameron and Kulick 2003). That is, we bring



states of affairs into being as a result of what we say and what we do. Examples of this are *I promise* and *I now pronounce you husband and wife*. Once I have said I promise I have committed myself to doing something. Once a priest, or a marriage celebrant, says *I now pronounce you husband and wife*, the couple have 'become' husband and wife. Performance, thus, brings the social world into being (Bucholtz and Hall 2003).

Butler, Cameron and others talk about doing gender in much the way that Gee talks about discourse as performance. Discourses, then, like the performance of gendered identities, are socially constructed, rather than 'natural'. People 'are who they are because of (among other things) the way they talk' not 'because of who they (already) are' (Cameron 1999: 144). We, thus, 'are not who we are because of some inner being but because of what we do' (Pennycook 2007: 70). It is, thus, 'in the doing that the identity is produced' (Pennycook 2011).

Social identities, then, are not pre-given, but are formed in the use of language and the various other ways we display who we are, what we think, value and feel, etc. The way, for example, a rap singer uses language, what they rap about and how they present themselves as they do this, all contributes to their performance and creation of themselves as a rap singer (Pennycook 2007). They may do this in a particular way on the streets of New York, in another way in a show in Quebec, and yet another way in a night club in Seoul. As they *do* being a rap singer,

they bring into existence, or repeat, their social persona as a rap singer.

Nor are we who we are because of how we (physically) look or where we were originally born. Otsuji (2010: 189) gives the example of asking a student (in a Japanese class) with an Indonesian name and Indonesian appearance 'How is it in Indonesia?' to which the student simply replied (in Japanese) 'I am Australian'. Similarly, she asks another student 'Where are you from?' to which the student replies 'Well, maybe China . . . my parents are from Shanghai but I don't know much about China. Cause I grew up here'. Otsuji's parents are ethnically Japanese. She was born, however, in the United States. She has lived in Japan, as well as in Scotland, Singapore, Holland and Australia. When she tells this to a Japanese person in a casual meeting a frequent reply is 'Then you are not Japanese'. Otsuji, however, is Japanese in appearance, she speaks Japanese, she has lived in Japan and she has strong family connections in Japan. So what, then, does it mean 'to be Japanese', or to have a 'Japanese' identity? (see Choi 2010, Otsuji 2010 for further discussions of this).

#### d. Discourse and Intertextuality

All texts, whether they are spoken or written, make their meanings against the background of other texts and things that have been said on other occasions (Lemke 1992). Texts may more or

less implicitly or explicitly cite other texts; they may refer to other texts, or they may allude to other past, or future, texts. We thus 'make sense of every word, every utterance, or act against the background of (some) other words, utterances, acts of a similar kind' (Lemke 1995: 23). All texts are, thus, in an *intertextual* relationship with other texts. As Bazerman (2004: 83) argues:

*We create our texts out of the sea of former texts that surround us, the sea of language we live in. And we understand the texts of others within that same sea.*

Umberto Eco (1987) provides an interesting discussion of intertextuality in his chapter 'Casablanca: Cult movies and intertextual collage'. Eco points out that the film *Casablanca* was made on a very small budget and in a very short time. As a result, its creators were forced to improvise the plot, mixing a little of everything they knew worked in a movie as they went. The result is what Eco (1987) describes as an 'intertextual collage'. For Eco, *Casablanca* has been so successful because it is not, in fact, an instance of a single kind of film genre but a mixing of stereotyped situations that are drawn from a number of different kinds of film genres. As the film proceeds, he argues, we recognize the film genres that they recall. We also recognize the pleasures we have experienced when we have watched these kinds of films

### 3. DISCOURSE AND DEFINING FUNCTIONS

#### a. Context of Situation

The context of situation might be said to coincide with the extra textual context of the text, and points to the fact that, in order to interpret a message correctly, we must understand both linguistic and situational clues, identifying with precision the communicative environment of the text itself. This, basically, is the implication of Jacobson's model of communication (which could perhaps be considered the first model of the context of situation), according to which, as we have seen in the first chapter, the meaning of a message resides not in a single factor of the speech act, but in the total act of communication.

Knowing the context of situation thus implies interpreting language appropriately in relation to the social context, thereby acquiring what Hymes calls 'communicative competence', which means that the speaker knows 'when to speak, when not and [...] what to talk about with whom, when, where and in what manner' (1972, 277). In order to identify correctly the context of situation, then, we ought to bear in mind a set of variables which, to an extent, might be compared to the various components which make up a context.

# CHAPTER X

## APPLIED LINGUISTIC



### ACTIVITY 14!

1. What is discourse analysis in your own?
2. What can we learn in discourse analysis?
3. Please give example discourse analysis in social construction!
4. Please give example discourse analysis in intertextuality!
5. Please give example discourse analysis in context of situation!

### DO YOU KNOW ABOUT APPLIED LINGUISTIC?

In this chapter, we will study the branch of linguistics namely applied linguistics. Applied linguistics is an interdisciplinary field that aims to identify and provide solutions to things related to life that are the result of language relationships.

#### CONTENT :

1. *History and Definition*
2. *Applied Linguistic and Institutional Problems*
3. *Factors relevant to the optimum-age problem*
4. *Doing applied linguistics: the process*

## 1. HISTORY AND DEFINITION

### a. Definitions

Applied linguistics has been defined as “the theoretical and empirical investigation of real-world problems in which language is a central issue” (Brumfit, 1995, p. 27)—for example, problems of miscommunication in social life, institutional discourses of courtrooms, classrooms, and hospitals, language policies and testing procedures. In addition, it has been, since its inception, the foundational field of research for second language acquisition and learning. Researchers have made recommendations for language teachers based on their findings; in turn, language educators have drawn on applied linguistic research to illuminate and solve problems they encounter in their practice. The name “applied linguistics” was given to the field when the first program of that name was founded at the University of Edinburgh in 1957, leading in the 1970s to the *Edinburgh Course in Applied Linguistics* (Allen and Corder, 1973–1977). According to Davies and Elder (2004),...Applied to Schmitt and Celece-Murcia(2002:1). Applied linguistic use what we know about language, how it is learned, and how it is used. In order to achieve some purposes or solve some problems in the real world.

Guy Cook defines applied linguistics as ‘the academic discipline concerned with the relation of knowledge about language to decision making in the real world’. He recognizes that

‘the scope of applied linguistics remains rather vague’ but attempts to delimit its main areas of concern as consisting of language and education; language, work and law; and language information and effect (ibid 7/8). Delimitations of this kind are helpful, even if they remain contestable. What is important is that applied linguistics is protected from the sneer that because language is everywhere, applied linguistics is the science of everything. In the thirty-two contributions to the *Handbook of Applied Linguistics* (Davies and Elder 2004) we attempted to provide a wide coverage, ranging from an interest largely in language itself (for example language descriptions, lexicography) to a concern for interventions in institutional language use (for example language maintenance, language teacher education).

### b. Source and Target

Applied linguistics must also draw on psychology, sociology, education, measurement theory and so on. It may be that we shall gain a clearer picture of the nature of applied linguistics if we turn our attention away from the source (what applied linguistics draws on) to its target (what applied linguistics equips you to do). The target clearly cannot be anything and everything to do with language. Corder’s solution (Corder 1973) was to focus on language teaching, widely interpreted and therefore including, for example, speech therapy, translation and language planning. Such narrowing of the target still makes sense

today, which is why most of the entries in the *Glossary of Applied Linguistics* (Davies 2005a) have some connection with language teaching. My reasoning is that it remains true that many of those who study applied linguistics have been and will continue to be involved at some level in language teaching, which is, after all, the largest profession involved in language studies. This is not to say, once a language teacher always one: some, perhaps many, of those who engage with applied linguistics move on to research, administration and so on. But in preparing the *Glossary* I have found it helpful to provide myself with this constraint on what it is we claim as applied linguistics.

### c. Language Learning

Getting rid of the label ‘applied linguistics’ has been widely canvassed, on the grounds that it was the wrong term in the first place, introduced only to give academic respectability to degrees, courses and departments. Such was the view taken in the 1960s by the authors of the key text (Halliday, McIntosh and Stevens 1964). They recognized the oddity of the label ‘applied linguistics’ but seemed prepared to live with it. The label was, they opined, misleading. It was misleading because (at the time of writing) it excluded many activities of linguistics (for example, machine translation, sociolinguistics) as well as activities which had a bearing on language teaching (for example psychology, educational theory). They wrote: ‘the aim of courses in applied

linguistics, such as are now available, for example at Edinburgh, Leeds and London, is not to produce specialists in linguistics and phonetics ... but to give a solid grounding in those aspects of these and other subjects which lie behind the language class’. In consequence, the label ‘applied linguistics’ was not used in the title of their book: *The Linguistics Sciences and Language Teaching*.

### d. Restricting The Scope

Experts agreed that applied linguistics is a broad and macro-level term that includes many areas of concern. Brumfit (in Liddicoat 2010) stated that “applied linguistics is theoretical and empirical investigation of real world problems in which language is a central issue “. Therefore, the combination of language and real world problems is the constituent feature of applied linguistics. The following table shows some activities which have been included under the umbrella of applied linguistics (based on AILA scientific commissions):

Adult language learning	Language and the media
Child language	Language contact and language change
Communication in the professions	Language for special purposes
Contrastive linguistics and error analysis	Language planning
Discourse analysis	

Educational technology and language learning	Learner autonomy in language learning
Evaluation, assessment, and testing	Lexicography and lexicology
Foreign language teaching methodology and teacher education	Literacy
Forensic linguistics	Mother tongue education
Immersion education	Psycholinguistics
Interpreting and translating	Rhetoric and stylistics
Language and business	Second language acquisition
Language and ecology	Sign language
Language and education in multilingual Settings	Language and gender

Next, Spolsky (in Davies 2007) stated “applied linguistics (is now) a cover term for sizeable group of semiautonomous disciplines, each dividing its parentage and allegiances between the formal study of language and other relevant fields, and each working to develop its own methodologies and principles.” From those ideas, then, it can be inferred that the scope of applied linguistics is really broad or that it may cover a lot of things such

as: language technology, language teaching, education, language acquisition, translation, language policy, and many other things.

#### e. Some Sub Fields of Applied Linguistic

##### ➤ Second language acquisition

SLA theory deals with the range of variables in particular, age of immersion, quantity of input etc. which many interactively determine the level of ultimate attainment.

##### ➤ Language assessment and testing

Language assessment plays a gate keeping roles in terms of the functions they serve for instruction and the corresponding preponds of institutions to invest in their development and validation. It also helps measure students’ progress overtime.

##### ➤ Language policy and planning

The practical nature of language planning deals with analysis of policy making in contexts where language is a part. Language problems always arises, which could involve rival interest reflecting relations among ethnic, political, social, bureaucratic and class grouping. And language policy planning researches helps solves those problems.

##### ➤ Lexicography

It is concerned with the writing and the study of dictionaries for first/ second/ foreign language education. It is also involving mono-bi-and multilingual works and general

children's school, college, and specialized technical dictionaries.

➤ **Multilingualism**

This is the use of more than two languages within a speech community. Applied linguistics deals with sociological, psychological, attending problems and the applications of these on the speech community.

➤ **Corpus linguistics**

This is aimed at improving language description and theory. the task of applied linguistics is to assess the relevance of language description to practical application.

## 2. APPLIED LINGUISTICS AND INSTITUTIONAL PROBLEMS

Language problems are the key to understanding applied linguistics. Many of these problems will manifest themselves in individual interactions (my failure to make myself understood when asking directions in a foreign language, your hasty judgement about your interlocutor's social status in the first few seconds of a telephone conversation, and so on) but the applied linguistics enterprise engages itself with such problems only when they are considered by society to be matters of institutional concern. The applied linguist is therefore called on to intervene, to train, to explain and possibly to solve

recurring problems in the school, the hospital, the workplace, the law court or the television studio.

Applied linguistics as an enterprise is therefore a research and development activity that sets out to make use of theoretical insights and collect empirical data which can be of use in dealing with institutional language problems. It is not primarily a form of social work with immediate access to individuals in the happenstance of their ongoing social communication, although its findings may of course be helpful to counsellors and teachers faced with these particular problems.

The starting-point is typically to be presented with an institutional language problem. The purpose of the activity is to provide relevant information which will help those involved understand the issues better; in some cases, on the basis of the information it will be possible to offer a solution to the problem. More likely is an explanation of what is involved, setting out the choices available, along with their implications. In earlier chapters we have discussed some of these language problems and indicated certain of the choices that would face those interested in finding a solution. We have suggested that if they are to contribute to a solution, all choices must be fully informed by the local context.

We distinguish this problem-based view of applied linguistics from other views which begin from theory. The applied linguist is deliberately eclectic, drawing on any source of knowledge that may illuminate the language problem. Proceeding eclectically is legitimate

because for the applied linguist language problems involve more than language. They involve (some or all of) these factors:

- the educational (including the psychometric or measurement)
- the social (and its interface with the linguistic, the sociolinguistic)
- the psychological (and its interface, the psycho-linguistic)
- the anthropological (for insights on cultural matters)
- the political
- the religious
- the economic
- the business
- the planning and policy aspect
- and, of course, the linguistic, including the phonetic.

We turn now to a consideration of two 'problems', that of the optimum age for starting to learn a foreign language and that of the validation of a language proficiency test so as to consider the factors that the applied linguist needs to take into account when faced with a language-learning problem.

### **3. FACTORS RELEVANT TO THE OPTIMUM-AGE PROBLEM**

The range of factors taken into account was hinted at above in our discussion of the optimum age for starting a second/foreign language in an Australian secondary school. In relation to that school they include:

#### **a. The Educational**

The project described was school-based, and therefore subject to the relevant institutional constraints of what can be done in the school setting, including what kind of measurement was acceptable, tests, interviews and so on.

#### **b. The Social and Sociolinguistic**

It was necessary to consider the status of the school, girls only, middle class, including a large proportion of migrant parents, independent and therefore not constrained by State regulations with regard to textbooks, hours of instruction, teacher qualifications, examinations, size of class, choice of target language, school resources available; attitudes of stakeholders to foreign language instruction, and especially to French which, in the Australian context, is seen as less instrumental than for example Indonesian or Japanese.

#### **c. The Psychological and Psycho-Linguistic**

At issue was the relevance of the sensitive or critical period, as well as the relevance of the age of starting a foreign language to the mode of learning; at issue also were findings from studies of second-language acquisition research.



#### **d. The Anthropological and Cultural**

Two aspects here were particularly relevant, the issue of the language classrooms in the school under study as independent cultural communities and the need to investigate these communities using ethnographic techniques; and the role more generally of culture, in this case French culture, however interpreted, in supporting and facilitating the learning of the language.

#### **e. The Political**

Quite apart from its role in Australia as still the most prestigious foreign language taught in schools and therefore potentially advantaged as against other foreign languages, even those with large numbers of bilingual or 'background' speakers, French in Australia has in the last three years been under strain because of the French Government's insistence on carrying out controlled nuclear explosions on one of its last colonial territories in the South Pacific. As a result, some Australia-based French restaurants and other businesses suffered during this period. It was therefore relevant to investigate whether this negative attitude carried over into school French language learning.

#### **f. The Religious**

Unlike Italian, which has a largely Catholic client base and Hebrew, which is studied largely by Jews, French seems to be neutral with regard to religion.

#### **g. The Economic**

Given the current emphasis in education on marketing products for customers, it was necessary to investigate whether French was seen as instrumental, that is vocationally well placed, and what reasons children and their parents might have in choosing French rather than another language, since the school offered a choice of six languages in its secondary department.

#### **h. The Business Aspect**

More relevant perhaps in a private language school which tailors its courses to the fluctuations in student demand and market share.

#### **i. The Planning/Policy Aspect**

Within the context of a national language policy, it was necessary to consider the school's overall curriculum in order to determine whether there was indeed a plan which incorporated work in the primary and secondary departments or whether the various components at the two levels had evolved planned. It seemed likely that the teachers who raised the problem in the first instance

were convinced that there was no single plan which encompassed both primary and secondary departments; the question that needed addressing therefore was whether this was the case and to consider whether it was necessary to bring to bear techniques derived from the planning literature.

#### **j. The Linguistic**

Relevant here were the materials used to teach French in the primary and secondary departments as well as in the two streams, Beginners and Continuers in the first two years of the secondary department. It turned out that both streams used the same textbooks. Relevant also were the models of French, in particular whether native-speaking teachers (and which kinds of native speaker) were used at the two levels and in the two streams. It was also important to examine the judgements made of the children's spoken French by their teachers, and whether similar judgements were being made at the primary and secondary levels.

### **4. DOING APPLIED LINGUISTICS: THE PROCESS**

Taking into consideration so many factors, such wide-ranging eclecticism by the applied linguist is open to criticism on (1) the grounds of superficiality (trying to look at everything and as a result observing nothing very much), (2) the lack of a strong theoretical base, and (3) what may be the excessive demands on professional training.

These are all related matters but it is important to say something here about the criticism of superficiality. What the superficiality criticism means is that if the attempt is made to take account of so much information, appealing to the various factors mentioned above, then the result must be the collection of too much data for sifting to take place and for the necessary priority ranking of the various pieces of information to enable a way forward to be planned. But this is to ignore the way in which applied linguistics activities actually proceed. Yes, an analysis is made which takes account of the various factors we have mentioned; but then the first elimination takes place because not all factors will be thought to be relevant: as we saw with our example earlier in this chapter on the optimum age for starting French in a private girls' school in Australia, where the religious factor was discounted. Those factors which are seen to be of direct relevance are then investigated and data collected for analysis. As in any applied profession (e.g. general medicine) the data are not necessarily collected or analyzed by the same person: applied linguistics has its own specialisms which provide for professional expertise where necessary. Thus there are within applied linguistics those who specialize in pedagogic grammar, curriculum planning, applied sociolinguistics, programed evaluation, language testing, language-teacher training, second-language acquisition research, applied stylistics, language planning for education, computer-assisted language learning, language-teaching methodology, language in the workplace, languages for specific purposes, bilingualism, cross

cultural communication, clinical applied linguistics, forensic language studies, and so on. In addition, there are textbook writers, lexicographers, interpreting and translating specialists, as well as theoretical and descriptive linguists, whose advice and expertise may be called on.

### **ACTIVITY 14!**

1. What is applied linguistics in your own?
2. What is the relationship between source and target?
3. There some activities which have been included under the umbrella of applied linguistics (based on AILA scientific commissions). Mention 5!
4. There some Sub Fields of Applied Linguistic. Mention 3!
5. What's mean that the education is factors relevant to the optimum age problem?

# CHAPTER XI

## SOCIOLINGUISTIC



### DO YOU KNOW ABOUT SOCIOLINGUISTIC ?

In this chapter, we will study the branch of linguistics, namely sociolinguistics. In sociolinguistics, we learn how language is used, where language is used, language level grammar, language that is formed from the contact of two or more languages, and the use of language at different times.

#### CONTENT:

- 1.A. *Concept and meaning of Sociolinguistic*
2. *The Reason Why We Need Study about Linguistics*
3. *The Most Important Thing In The Development Of Sociolinguistics*
4. *Languages and Communities*
5. *Applied Linguistics*

## 1. CONCEPT AND MEANING OF SOCIOLINGUISTIC

Given the social role of language, it stands to reason that one strand of language study should concentrate on the role of language in society. Sociolinguistic is concerned with investigating the relationships between language and society with the goal being a better understanding of the structure of language and of how languages function in communication (Wardhaugh, 1998). That is, how social factors affect our use of language. Sociolinguistics has become an increasingly important and popular field of study, as certain cultures around the world expand their communication base and intergroup and interpersonal relations take on escalating significance.

From its term, sociolinguistics is derived from two different disciplines: sociology and linguistics. Sociology is a study about social structure, social organizations, relationship between and within groups of people, and social behaviour. LINGUISTICS (often called general linguistics, or structural linguistics) is a study about phones (phonology), words (morphology) and sentences (syntax). Only very recently, it studies discourses (texts).

Sociolinguistics is the field that studies the relation between language and society, between the uses of language and the social structures in which the users of language live. It is a field of study that assumes that human society is made up of many related patterns and behaviors, some of which are linguistic. One of the principal uses of

language is to communicate meaning, but it is also used to establish and to maintain social relationships.

Watch a mother with a young child. Most of their talk is a) devoted to nurturing the social bond between them, b) listen to two friends talking c) much of their conversation functions to express and refine their mutual compact of companionship. When you meet strangers, the way they talk informs you about their social and geographical backgrounds, and the way you talk sends subtle or blatant signals about what you think of them. It is these aspects of language use that sociolinguists study. Sociolinguistics (often called a functional linguistics, and a cross disciplinary study) of which terms was first coined in 1950's to try to bring together the perspectives of linguists and sociologists to bear on issues concerning the place of language in society, and to address the social contexts of linguistic diversity.

Sociolinguistics assumes: (1) *every language has its own variations, (2) every dialect is also varied, (3) human speech is also varied depending on whom he speaks to, (4) language is closely related to social system and social structure, (5) language is a system which is not separated from the characteristics of its speakers, and the sociocultural values applied by its speakers.*

There are some social factors that affect our language use

1. The social background (education, social class, ethnic group).
2. The relationship between the speaker and receiver (such as friend, family, employer).

3. The context and manner of interaction (when, where, how, the act of language occur).
4. The factor has significant effect on the way we use language in our daily conversation.

The way we use language with our friends, is not the same as that we use with our employer. For example, if we want to request to bring something. We can use different sentences like this:

*Friends* : "can you bring the book"

*Employer* : "would you bring the book, please"

So we can conclude that the relationship between the participant affects our language.

## 2. THE REASON WHY WE NEED STUDY ABOUT LINGUISTICS

As learners we need to know why sociolinguistic learning is very important. Here's the explanation:

### a. Language and society are interrelated and we cannot speak one without the other

Language by definition is a social entity and defining society cannot be done without referring to language. Meanwhile, society is a group of people as a society who share the same language. We cannot characterize a group of people as a society unless they share the same language.

### b. The value of language is based on the society and the people who use that language not on language itself

We produce judgement on a language based on the attitude we hold for the people who use the language. For example, *if I have a negative attitude about the French people for one reason or another. It is more likely to hold a negative attitude towards their language too.*

### c. Language is an act of identity

Language plays an essential role in understanding and defining ourselves and others. For example, from one language we can say:

*Whether he/she is a man or woman.*

*Educated or not.*

*Which social class he or she belongs to.*

*Where he/she is from etc.*

Language has a clue hearing function. One's language provides clues and hints that define who they are.

### d. Language plays an essential role in understanding social structure and culture around us.

From the way we think to the way we perceive things, all is determined by the language we use. To study or talk about any group of people and their way of life, it is highly recommended to refer to the language they use (Sapir – WHORF Hypothesis)

**e. Language is not only mean of communication in society**

But it is also means of establishing and maintaining social relationship through exchanging the free goods or safe topics (greeting, congratulating, etc.). In every society this aspect is mandatory/obligatory. Otherwise your behavior would be accountable. It would be negative explanation. For example, your friend passed by you and did not greet you. You would have assigned negative explanation to such behavior.

It is very important to study language in relation to society because these is a strong relationship between them and they cannot have separated.

### **3. THE MOST IMPORTANT THING IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF SOCIOLINGUISTICS**

**a. Print Language and Literature Culture**

The technology of writing and print technology have over time not only changed the medium of language use, but irrevocably changed our way of thinking and talking about culture. It will deal with issues of text, power, and the cultural politics of literacy.

**b. Written Language, Textual Culture**

We' first need to take an historical perspective on the way technology has affected the relationship of language and culture.

The invention of writing around 3000 BC transformed oral tradition, transmitted through storytelling, bardic epics, mythical re-enactments and performances, into textual tradition, handed down by scribes. The culture of the text, as exemplified in the Chinese scribal culture, passed on its wisdom not through reading, but through the faithful copying of texts. It was through the rewriting of fixed texts in one's own handwriting that the truths of the ancestors got embodied anew into new generations. Copying texts was the major way of getting at the texts' meaning, and of obtaining the social prestige that came with a literate education.

The culture of the text and its respect for and obedience to textual authority was also central to the Judaic and early Christian traditions. But writing, uprooted from its original context through the passing of time and through its dissemination in space, increases also the absurdity of the quest for the one true 'original' meaning. Ancient texts can only be understood though the multiple meanings given to them by latter-day commentators, exegetes, translators. Even legal documents, that try to control and legislate people's lives, have to be re-interpreted anew for every particular case.

**c. Print and Power**

Institutional power has traditionally ensured cultural continuity by providing a safeguard against the unbounded interpretation texts. In medieval times, monks, scribes, and

commentators served as the gate-keepers and interpreters of tradition against cultural change. With the advent of print culture, the need to hand-copy texts disappeared, and so did the caste of scribes. At the same time, ecclesiastical authority itself was on the wane. Thus, while the written medium has been viewed as potentially more subversive than the spoken medium, in reality it has also been constrained by institutions like the academy, the law, the publishing industry, that have always been in control of new technologies. The academic monopoly over the meaning of written texts has manifested itself up to recently by its definition of literacy as merely the ability to read and write. The importance was given to the formal linguistic aspects of texts, to the etymology of words and literal meanings, to correct grammar and accurate spelling, ensured attention to, and compliance with, the letter of the texts, but not necessarily with their spirit.

#### d. Cultural Identity

It is widely believed that there is a natural connection between the language spoken by members of a social group and that group's identity. By their accent, their vocabulary, their discourse patterns, speakers identify themselves and are identified as members of this or that speech and discourse community. From this membership, they draw personal strength and pride, as well as a sense of social importance and historical continuity from using the same language as the group they belong to. But how to define which group one

belongs to? In isolated, homogeneous communities like the Trobrianders studied by Malinowski, one may still define group membership according to common cultural practices and daily face-to-face interactions, but in modern, historically complex, open societies it is much more difficult to define the boundaries of any particular social group and the linguistic and cultural identities of its members. (Kirmsch, 2000). Wardaugh (1998) states that there is one important change when Java was modernized and that is the spread of the national language in Indonesia: Bahasa Indonesia. It is considered as a 'more' democratic language that enables a person to talk about issues without having to choose a particular level of speech which necessarily conveys attitudes you might not want to convey. Bahasa Indonesia is a sign of group identity and is used all over Indonesia as the national language for Indonesians, no matter what the ethnic group they belong to.

One would think that national identity is a clear-cut either/or affair (either you are or you are not a citizen), but it is one thing, for example, to have a Turkish passport, another thing to ascribe to yourself a Turkish national identity if you were born, raised and educated, say, in Germany, are a native speaker of German, and happen to have Turkish parents. Despite the entrenched belief in the one language = one culture equation, individuals assume several collective identities that are likely not only to change over time in dialogue with others, but are liable to be in conflict with one another.

### <sup>13</sup> e. Language Crossing as an Act of Identity

One way of surviving culturally in immigration settings is to exploit, rather than stifle, the endless variety of meanings afforded by participation in several discourse communities at once. More and more people are living, speaking and interacting in in-between spaces, across multiple languages or varieties of the same language: Latinos in Los Angeles, Pakistanis in London, Arabs in Paris, but also Black Americans in New York or Atlanta, choose one way of talking over another depending on the topic, the interlocutor and the situational context. Such language crossings, frequent in inter-ethnic communication, include the switching of codes, i.e. the insertion of elements from one language into another, be they isolated words, whole sentences, or prosodic features of speech. Language crossing enables speakers to change footing within the same conversation, but also to show solidarity or distance towards the discourse communities whose languages they are using, and whom they perceive their interlocutor as belonging. By crossing languages, speakers perform cultural acts of Identity.

### f. Linguistic Nationalism

The association of one language variety with the membership in one national community has been referred to as linguistic nationalism. For example, during the French Revolution, the concept of a national language linked to a national culture was

intended to systematically replace the variety of regional dialects and local practices.

This is what has happened in Europe with the Basque and Catalan identities that cross, linguistically and culturally, the national borders of France and Spain, and thus replace the nation by the region, and the national language by the regional language as units of cultural identification. Nation-states respond to such separatist tendencies by refocusing national identity either around a national language or around the concept of multiculturalism. Current efforts by the US English Movement in the United States to amend the Constitution by declaring English the official national language have to be seen as the attempt to ensure not only mutual linguistic intelligibility, but cultural homogeneity as well. In periods of social fragmentation and multiple identities, each clamoring to be recognized, language takes on not only an indexical, but a symbolic value, according to the motto 'Let me hear you speak and I will tell you who you are loyal to'. The link between the US English legislation and anti-immigration legislation has been frequently pointed out by critics. Besides being used as a means of excluding outsiders, the use of one, and only one, language is often perceived as a sign of political allegiance.

### g. Current Issues

The relationship of language and culture in language study is one of the most hotly debated issues at the present time. Because



language is closely related to the way we think, and to the way we behave and influence the behavior of others, the notion that our sense of social reality may be but a construction of language or 'language game' is disturbing. The notion that a person's social and cultural identity may not be the immutable monolithic entity it is usually taken for, but a kaleidoscope of various presentations and representations of self through language, is unsettling. These uncertainties explain in part the current debates surrounding the role of the native speaker, the concept of cultural authenticity, the notions of cross-, inter-, and multicultural communication and what has become known as the politics of recognition.

#### **h. Cross-Cultural, Intercultural, Multicultural**

Depending on how culture is defined and which discipline one comes from, various terms are used to refer to communication between people who don't share the same nationality, social or ethnic origin, gender, age, occupation, or sexual preference. The nomenclature overlaps somewhat in its use. The term 'cross-cultural' or Intercultural usually refers to the meeting of two cultures or two languages across the political boundaries of nation-states. They are predicated on the equivalence of one nation-one culture-one language, and on the expectation that a 'culture shock' may take place upon crossing national boundaries. In foreign language teaching a cross-cultural approach seeks ways to

understand the other person on the other side of the border by learning his/her national language.

The term intercultural may also refer to communication between people from different ethnic, social, gendered cultures within the boundaries of the same national language. Both terms are used to characterize communication, say, between Chinese-Americans and African-Americans, between working-class and upper-class people, between men and women. Intercultural communication refers to the dialogue between minority cultures and dominant cultures which are associated with issues of bilingualism and biculturalism.

The term multicultural is more frequently used in two ways. In a societal sense, it indicates the coexistence of people from many different backgrounds and ethnicities, as in 'multicultural societies'. In an individual sense, it characterizes persons who belong to various discourse communities, and who therefore have the linguistic resources and social strategies to affiliate and identify with many different cultures and ways of using language. The cultural identity of multicultural individuals is not that of multiple native speakers, but, rather, it is made of a multiplicity of social roles or 'subject positions' which they occupy selectively, depending on the interactional context in which they find themselves at the time.

## 4. LANGUAGES AND COMMUNITIES

### a. Language and Dialect

For many people there can be no confusion at all about what language they speak. For example, they are Chinese, Japanese, or Korean and they speak Chinese, Japanese, and Korean respectively. It is as simple as that; language and ethnicity are virtually synonymous (Coulmas, 1999). A Chinese may be surprised to find that another person who appears to be Chinese does not speak Chinese, and some Japanese have gone so far as to claim not to be able to understand Caucasians who speak fluent Japanese. Just as such a strong connection between language and ethnicity may prove to be invaluable in nation-building, it can also be fraught with problems when individuals and groups seek to realize some other identity, e.g., to be both Chinese and American, or to be Canadian rather than Korean-Canadian. As we will see (p. 368), many Americans seem particularly reluctant to equate language with ethnicity in their own case: although they regard English as the 'natural' language of Americans, they do not consider American to be an ethnic label. The results may be the same; only the reasons differ.

Most speakers can give a name to whatever it is they speak. On occasion, some of these names may appear to be strange to those who take a scientific interest in languages, but we should remember that human naming practices often have a large

'unscientific' component to them. Census-takers in India find themselves confronted with a wide array of language names when they ask people what language or languages they speak. Names are not only ascribed by region, which is what we might expect, but sometimes also by caste, religion, village, and so on. Moreover, they can change from census to census as the political and social climate of the country changes. While people do usually know what language they speak, they may not always lay claim to be fully qualified speakers of that language. They may experience difficulty in deciding whether what they speak should be called a *language* proper or merely a *dialect* of some language. Such indecision is not surprising: exactly how do you decide what is a language and what is a dialect of a language? What criteria can you possibly use to determine that, whereas variety X is a language, variety Y is only a dialect of a language? What are the essential differences between a language and a dialect?

Haugen (1966a) has pointed out that *language* and *dialect* are ambiguous terms. Ordinary people use these terms quite freely in speech; for them a dialect is almost certainly no more than a local non-prestigious (therefore powerless) variety of a real language. In contrast, scholars often experience considerable difficulty in deciding whether one term should be used rather than the other in certain situations. As Haugen says, the terms 'represent a simple dichotomy in a situation that is almost infinitely complex.' He points out that the confusion goes back to

the Ancient Greeks. The Greek language that we associate with Ancient Greece was actually a group of distinct local varieties (Ionic, Doric, and Attic) descended by divergence from a common spoken source with each variety having its own literary traditions and uses, e.g., Ionic for history, Doric for choral and lyric works, and Attic for tragedy. Later, Athenian Greek, the *koiné* – or ‘common’ language – became the norm for the spoken language as the various spoken varieties converged on the dialect of the major cultural and administrative center. Haugen points out (p. 923) that the Greek situation has provided the model for all later usages of the two terms with the resulting ambiguity. *Language* can be used to refer either to a single linguistic norm or to a group of related norms, and *dialect* to refer to one of the norms.

#### **b. Regional dialect**

Regional variation in the way a language is spoken is likely to provide one of the easiest ways of observing variety in language. As you travel throughout a wide geographical area in which a language is spoken, and particularly if that language has been spoken in that area for many hundreds of years, you are almost certain to notice differences in pronunciation, in the choices and forms of words, and in syntax. There may even be very distinctive local colorings in the language which you notice as you move from one location to another. Such distinctive varieties are usually called *regional dialects* of the language. As

we saw earlier (p. 28), the term *dialect* is sometimes used only if there is a strong tradition of writing in the local variety. Old English and to a lesser extent Middle English had dialects in this sense. In the absence of such a tradition of writing the term *patois* may be used to describe the variety.

However, many linguists writing in English tend to use *dialect* to describe both situations and rarely, if at all, use *patois* as a scientific term. You are likely to encounter it only as a kind of anachronism, as in its use by Jamaicans, who often refer to the variety of English spoken on the island as a ‘patois’. ‘The *dialect*–*patois* distinction actually seems to make more sense in some situations, e.g., France, than in others. In medieval France, a number of languages flourished and several were associated with strong literary traditions. However, as the language of Paris asserted itself from the fourteenth century on, these traditions withered. Parisian French spread throughout France, and, even though that spread is still not yet complete (as visits to such parts of France as Brittany, Provence, Corsica, and Alsace will confirm), it drastically reduced the importance of the local varieties: they continue to exist largely in spoken forms only; they are disfavored socially and politically; they are merely *patois* to those who extol the virtues of Standard French. However, even as these varieties have faded, there have been countervailing moves to revive them as many younger residents of the areas in which

they are spoken see them as strong indicators of identities they wish to preserve.

There are some further interesting differences in the use of the terms *dialect* and *patois* (Petyt, 1980, pp. 24–5). *Patois* is usually used to describe only rural forms of speech; we may talk about an *urban dialect*, but to talk about an *urban patois* seems strange. *Patois* also seems to refer only to the speech of the lower strata in society; again, we may talk about a *middle-class dialect* but not, apparently, about a *middle-class patois*. Finally, a dialect usually has a wider geographical distribution than a *patois*, so that, whereas *regional dialect* and *village patois* seem unobjectionable, the same cannot be said for *regional patois* and *village dialect*. However, as I indicated above, many Jamaicans refer to the popular spoken variety of Jamaican English as a *patois* rather than as a dialect.

So again the distinction is in no way an absolute one. This use of the term *dialect* to differentiate among regional varieties of specific languages is perhaps more readily applicable to contemporary conditions in Europe and some other developed countries than it would have been in medieval or Renaissance Europe or today in certain other parts of the world, where it was (and still is) possible to travel long distances and, by making only small changes in speech from location to location, continue to communicate with the inhabitants. (You might have to travel somewhat slowly, however, because of the necessary learning that

would be involved!) It has been said that at one time a person could travel from the south of Italy to the north of France in this manner.

### c. **Styles, Register, Beliefs**

<sup>11</sup> The study of dialects is further complicated by the fact that speakers can adopt different *styles* of speaking. You can speak very formally or very informally, your choice being governed by circumstances. Ceremonial occasions almost invariably require very formal speech, public lectures somewhat less formal, casual conversation quite informal, and conversations between intimates on matters of little importance may be extremely informal and casual. (See Joos, 1962, for an entertaining discussion.) We may try to relate the level of formality chosen to a variety of factors: the kind of occasion; the various social, age, and other differences that exist between the participants; the particular task that is involved, e.g., writing or speaking; the emotional involvement of one or more of the participants; and so on. We appreciate that such distinctions exist when we recognize the stylistic appropriateness of *What do you intend to do, your majesty?* and the inappropriateness of *Waddy intend doin', Rex?* While it may be difficult to characterize discrete levels of formality, it is nevertheless possible to show that native speakers of all languages control a range of stylistic varieties. It is also quite possible to predict with considerable confidence the stylistic features that a

native speaker will tend to employ on certain occasions. <sup>11</sup> *Register* is another complicating factor in any study of language varieties. Registers are sets of language items associated with discrete occupational or social groups. Surgeons, airline pilots, bank managers, sales clerks, jazz fans, and pimps employ different registers. As Ferguson (1994, p. 20) says, 'People participating in recurrent communication situations tend to develop similar vocabularies, similar features of intonation, and characteristic bits of syntax and phonology that they use in these situations.' This kind of variety is a register.

Ferguson adds that its 'special terms for recurrent objects and events, and formulaic sequences or "routines," seem to facilitate speedy communication; other features apparently serve to mark the register, establish feelings of rapport, and serve other purposes similar to the accommodation that influences dialect formation. There is no mistaking the strong tendency for individuals and communicators to develop register variation along many dimensions.' Of course, one person may control a variety of registers: you can be a stockbroker and an archeologist, or a mountain climber and an economist. Each register helps you to express your identity at a specific time or place, i.e., how you seek to present yourself to others.

Dialect, style, and register differences are largely independent: you can talk casually about mountain climbing in a local variety of a language, or you can write a formal technical

study of wine making. You may also be judged to speak 'better' or 'worse' than other speakers who have much the same background. It is quite usual to find some people who are acknowledged to speak a language or one of its varieties better or worse than others. In an article on the varieties of speech he found among the 1,700 or so speakers of Menomini, an Amerindian language of Wisconsin, Bloomfield (1927) mentioned a variety of skills that were displayed among some of the speakers he knew best: a woman in her sixties who spoke 'a beautiful and highly idiomatic Menomini'; her husband, who used 'forms which are current among bad speakers' on some occasions and 'elevated speech,' incorporating forms best described as 'spelling pronunciations,' 'ritualistic compound words and occasional archaisms' on others; an old man who 'spoke with bad syntax and meagre, often inept vocabulary, yet with occasional archaisms'; a man of about forty with 'atrocious' Menomini, i.e., a small vocabulary, barbarous inflections, threadbare sentences; and two halfbreeds, one who spoke using a vast vocabulary and the other who employed 'racy idiom.'

<sup>10</sup>  
d. **Pidgins and Croles**

Among the many languages of the world are a few often assigned to a somewhat marginal position: the various lingua francs, pidgins, and creoles. To the best of our knowledge all have existed since time immemorial, but, in comparison with what we

know about many 'fully fledged' languages, we know comparatively little about them. There is a paucity of historical records; the history of serious study of such languages goes back only a few decades; and, because of the circumstances of their use, they have often been regarded as being of little intrinsic value or interest. Until recently, pidgins and creoles have generally been viewed as uninteresting linguistic phenomena, being notable mainly for linguistic features they have been said to 'lack,' e.g., articles, the copula, and grammatical inflections, rather than those they possess, and those who speak them have often been treated with disdain, even contempt.

Hymes (1971, p. 3) has pointed out that before the 1930s pidgins and creoles were largely ignored by linguists, who regarded them as 'marginal languages' at best. (Some linguists were even advised to keep away from studying them lest they jeopardize their careers!) He points out that pidgins and creoles 'are marginal, in the circumstances of their origin, and in the attitudes towards them on the part of those who speak one of the languages from which they derive.' They are also marginal 'in terms of knowledge about them,' even though 'these languages are of central importance to our understanding of language, and central too in the lives of some millions of people. Because of their origins, however, their association with poorer and darker members of a society, and through perpetuation of misleading stereotypes. most interest, even where positive, has considered

them merely curiosities.' He adds that much 'interest and information, scholarly as well as public, has been prejudicial. These languages have been considered, not creative adaptations, but degenerations; not systems in their own right, but deviations from other systems. Their origins have been explained, not by historical and social forces, but by inherent ignorance, indolence, and inferiority.' As languages of those without political and social power, literatures, and 'culture,' they could be safely and properly ignored, for what could they possibly tell us about anything that English and French or even Greek, Latin, and Sanskrit could not?

Fortunately, in recent years such attitudes have changed and, as serious attention has been given to pidgins and creoles, linguists have discovered many interesting characteristics about them, characteristics that appear to bear on fundamental issues to do with all languages, 'fully fledged' and 'marginal' alike. Moreover, pidgins and creoles are invaluable to those who use them. Not only are they essential to everyday living but they are also frequently important markers of identity. In an interview in 1978 a schoolboy in Belize had this to say about his language: 'Well, usually in Belize you find the language, the main language you know is this slang that I tell you about, the Creole. And you'd recognize them by that, you know. They usually have this, you know, very few of them speak the English or some of them usually speak Spanish' (Le Page and Tabouret-Keller, 1985, p. 216). The study of pidgins and creoles has become an important part of linguistic and,

especially, sociolinguistic study, with its own literature and, of course, its own controversies. With pidgins and creoles, we can see processes of language origin and change going on around us. We can also witness how people are attracted to languages, how they exploit what linguistic resources they have, and how they forge new identities. We do not have to wait a millennium to see how a language changes; a few generations suffice. To some extent, too, the speakers of such languages have benefited as more and more of them have come to recognize that what they speak is not just a 'bad' variety of this language or that, but a language or a variety of a language with its own legitimacy, i.e., its own history, structure, array of functions, and the possibility of winning eventual recognition as a 'proper' language.

## 5. APPLIED SOCIOLINGUISTICS

### a. Presupposition and Entailment

The idea that speakers assume certain information is already known by their listeners, such information will generally not be stated and consequently will count as part of what is communicated but not said. The technical terms presupposition and entailment are used to describe two different aspects of this kind of information. It is worth noting at the outset that presupposition and entailment were considered to be much more central to pragmatics in the past than they are now. In more recent

approaches, there has been less interest in the type of technical discussion associated with the logical analysis of these phenomena.

A presupposition is something the speaker assumes to be the case prior to making an utterance. Speakers, not sentences, have presuppositions. An entailment is something that logically follows from what is asserted in the utterance. Sentences, not speakers, have entailments.

### b. Presupposition

Presupposition is treated as a relationship between two propositions. In the analysis of how speakers' assumptions are typically expressed, presupposition has been associated with the use of a large number of words, phrases, and structures. We shall consider these linguistic forms here as indicators of potential presuppositions, which can only become actual presuppositions in contexts with speakers. The possessive construction in English is associated with a presupposition of existence. The existential presupposition is not only assumed to be present in possessive constructions (for example, 'your car' » 'you have a car'), but more generally in any definite noun phrase. Generally speaking, in lexical presupposition, the use of one form with its asserted meaning is conventionally interpreted with the presupposition that another (non-asserted) meaning is understood. Each time you say that someone 'managed' to do something, the asserted meaning is

that the person succeeded in some way. When you say that someone 'didn't manage', the asserted meaning is that the person did not succeed. In both cases, however, there is a presupposition (non-asserted) that the person 'tried' to do that something. So, 'managed' is conventionally interpreted as asserting 'succeeded' and presupposing 'tried'.

### c. Particularized Conversational Implicatures

The implicatures have been calculated without special knowledge of any particular context. However, most of the time, our conversations take place in very specific contexts in which locally recognized inferences are assumed. Such inferences are required to work out the conveyed meanings which result from particularized conversational implicatures. Because they are by far the most common, particularized conversational implicatures are typically just called implicatures.

### d. Properties of Conversational Implicatures

So far, all the implicatures we have considered have been situated within conversation, with the inferences being made by people who hear the utterances and attempt to maintain the assumption of cooperative interaction. Because these implicatures are part of what is communicated and not said, speakers can always deny that they intended to communicate such meanings, conversational implicatures are deniable. They can be explicitly

denied (or alternatively, reinforced) in different ways. Implicatures can be calculated, suspended, cancelled, and reinforced. None of these properties apply to conventional implicatures.

Studies on sociolinguistics can be seen in the abstract below with the title: "The Nature of Taboos in The Dayak Kanayatn Community" by Regina, from State University Malang. If you are interested in writing a research report or a thesis when you continue your studies, you will know that topics of sociolinguistics are easily found in your community. Read the following abstract and enjoy the additional information that you can get from it.

### ACTIVITY 15!

1. The function of language is not only to enable people to store knowledge but also to ...
  - a. incorporate social and cultural factors
  - b. transmit their culture to succeeding generations
  - c. function the real world in different circumstances
  - d. transfer sounds and letters that have meaning



- 8
2. According to Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis, language influences the way people see the world, which means every language has ..... upon what the people who use, see, feel, think and talk about it.
- a. a different meaning
  - b. natural aspects
  - c. an effect
  - d. its own characters
- 8
3. The difference between speech and written language is that speech tends to be people-centered while written tends to be ... centered
- a. Redundancy
  - b. Context
  - c. Expression
  - d. Topic
- 8
4. Which of the following doesn't influence social structure toward the language usage?
- a. Status
  - b. Size
  - c. Boundaries
  - d. Culture
5. Sociolinguistics is concerned with investigating the relationship between language and society with the goal being a better understanding of the structure of language and of how ....
- a. communication is applied in a society
  - b. language function in communication
  - c. to maintain social relationship

- d. society in relation to language
6. Sociolinguistics takes as its primary task to map linguistics variation on to ....
- a. professional organization
  - b. historical fields
  - c. social conditions
  - d. cultural events
7. The language change in such a synchronic way is happened by variation ....
- a. over time
  - b. at a single point of time
  - c. sociolinguistics approach
  - d. social context
8. The relationship of language and culture in language study is closely related to the way we think, and to the way we behave and ....
- a. influence the behaviors of others
  - b. identify person's social
  - c. classify construction of language
  - d. indicate the existence of certain people
9. One of the applied sociolinguistics field which is something the speaker assumes to be the case prior to make an utterance is called ....
- a. cultural identity
  - b. intercultural

- c. presupposition
  - d. linguistic nationalism
10. The followings are included as switch code factors, except ....
- a. to whom you are talking
  - b. for what you are talking
  - c. the social context of the talk
  - d. the function and the topic of the discussion
11. Someone from West Java then comes to his village and he or she can only share one code or variety, the most probable language or code to be used is ....
- a. Javanese
  - b. Sundanese
  - c. Indonesian
  - d. Padangese
12. The social distance is a dimension that influences language usage toward the code choice which deals with ....
- a. the factors affecting code
  - b. the patterns of language used
  - c. selecting an appropriate variety or code
  - d. how well do they know each other?
13. In situational code-switching, the switch is in response to a change in situation whereas in conversational code-switching, the switch ....
- a. has a stylistic or textual function
  - b. takes varieties in utterances

- c. defines the use of two or more languages
  - d. perceives social and cultural distance
14. Language interference refers to the use of formal elements of one code within the context of another in a given language that could be explained by the effect of contact with another language which includes the following except ... element.
- a. Phonological
  - b. Lexical
  - c. Grammatical
  - d. syntactical
15. Which of the following is not a reason why people do code switching?
- a. the solidarity with the listeners
  - b. the choice of the topic
  - c. perceive and cultural distance
  - d. the rule of the communication
16. Diglossia refers to the situation where two distinct varieties are used in ....
- a. different functions
  - b. daily communication
  - c. certain community
  - d. social life
17. Tono is sixteen years old and he is a native speaker of Indonesian. He learns English in school. But he has lived in France since ten

years old so he speaks France very fluently. We can say that France is his ... language.

- a. First
- b. Second
- c. Mother
- d. foreign

18. Bilingual competence is classified into two categories that is receptive bilingualism and ... bilingualism.

- a. Alternative
- b. Descriptive
- c. Productive
- d. relationship

19. A dialect accepted as the norm because of the power or prestige of that dialect group is called Language, meanwhile a variety of a language spoken in different geographical or social area that are mutually understandable is called ....

- a. linguistics norm
- b. dialect
- c. common language
- d. dialog

20. One of the standard criterion used to determine a language which refers to the feelings speakers have about the purity they speak is called ...

- a. Vitality
- b. Historicity

- c. Reduction
- d. Mixture

21. Look at the following dialogue

Rob: Have you got a cigarette?

Tom: No, I haven't. I don't smoke

Rob: Oh, I'm sorry

Tom: By all means

The above dialogue is a typical of ... spoken or dialect.

- a. British English
- b. American English
- c. Intra-National
- d. English-American

22. Social dialects are distinguished by features of pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar according to social group of the speakers, whereas regional dialects involve features of pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar according to ...

- a. The first variety of regional variation
- b. Two dialogue in the border of two regions
- c. Geographical areas the speakers come from
- d. The chain between a dialect and another dialect

23. Standard dialect is the dialect having the variety of speaking and writing granted the most public prestige, whereas nonstandard dialect is ....

- a. associated with the speech of politicians and educators

- b. not afforded general public prestige and differ from standard varieties in terms of grammar and vocabulary
  - c. the process of standardization which usually doesn't involve the development of grammars and dictionaries
  - d. accepted as the norm because of the power or prestige of that dialect group
24. Which of the following words is correct according to British spelling?
- a. Recognize
  - b. Customize
  - c. Honor
  - d. Color
25. Which word of the followings belongs to American English?
- a. Rubber
  - b. Apartment
  - c. Motorway
  - d. Pavement
26. Language variety is the language we use in everyday living remarkably varied in which the language will exhibit considerable internal variation and ....
- a. single style speaker will not be found
  - b. for many different purposes
  - c. it is used in contexts of communication
  - d. bound up with culture in multiple

27. The followings are the relation between language and culture, except ....
- a. language expresses cultural reality
  - b. language symbolizes cultural reality
  - c. language emphasizes cultural reality
  - d. language embodies cultural reality
28. A speech community is all the people who speak a single language and so share notions of what is same or different in ....
- a. social appropriateness
  - b. the same linguistic code
  - c. phonology and grammar
  - d. language users
29. Which of the followings is not included as the layers of culture combined?
- a. the social
  - b. the historical
  - c. the community
  - d. the imagination
30. A speaker who can control more than one variety chooses a level of speech according to the audience he or she addressing. When he or she speaks to strangers in order to seem friendly, he or she might choose a/an ... style
- a. common
  - b. community
  - c. informal

- d. formal
31. The more formal the situation, the more attention we pay to our language and so the more we are likely to conform to the favored and educated norms of our society, it is one of the style aspects namely ....
- Place
  - Audience
  - Expression
  - care
32. A register is a variety of language most likely to be used in a specific situation and with ...
- particular roles and statuses involved
  - labeling varieties of language
  - a specific set of social features
  - a set of typical domains
33. In an interaction, politeness can be defined as the means employed to show awareness of another person's face whereas face means ....
- the emotional and social sense
  - the situation of social distance
  - the public self-image of a person
  - the idea of polite social behavior
34. Which of the following is the example of positive politeness?
- I want you to lend me your dictionary, please?
  - How about letting me use your dictionary?

- c. Can I ask you for a dictionary?
- d. I need a dictionary, please?
35. sociolinguistics transfer refers to the use of the rules of speaking of one's own speech community or cultural group when interacting with ....
- people who have the same native language
  - members of another community
  - communities having different rules of speaking
  - speakers trying to achieve a particular language
36. Sociolinguistics transfer is classified into three types as the following except ....
- transfer of a native language sociolinguistics variable rule
  - transfer of native, discourse level, sociocultural competence
  - transfer as an explanation of error in second language
  - socially motivated transfer where the transfer pattern may not be sociolinguistics itself
37. A speech act is an act that a speaker performs when ....
- speaking in front of public
  - making an utterance
  - interacting with someone
  - talking in formal situation
38. One of the potential sources of intercultural miscommunication is if there is frequently interactional trouble when members of one cultural group compliment in situation in which compliments are ....

- a. considered as the means of communication
- b. appropriate for other cultures
- c. recognized by the members of the cultural group
- d. inappropriate for members of other groups

39. Interlocutor is someone who ....

- a. takes part in a conversation, often formally or officially
- b. presides over an assembly, meeting, or discussion
- c. speaks in public
- d. presides over a public ceremony, formal dinner, entertainment, etc.

40. Varieties of a language consists of continuum with the original language at one extreme and ....

- a. used by people with various linguistic background
- b. the most different variation at the other
- c. more complicated or ambiguous entity
- d. the same variety are much more comfortable with each other

41. There are two opinions about bilingual education, those who favor bilingual education argue that children cannot learn in a language they do not understand therefore the language one is necessary, whereas the other ones say that bilingual education ....

- a. doesn't provide language minority students with maximum exposure to English
- b. is illogical in its implication that less English instruction will lead to more English achievement

- c. has less to the majority language for students who do learn very effectively in a second language
- d. is far more than just being able to read, write and speak two languages

42. A model of bilingual education which focuses on the development of full bilingualism, encouraging oral fluency and literacy in both English and the students' native language as well as academic learning is called ... model.

- a. late-exit
- b. the transitional
- c. dual immersion
- d. the transferred

43. The idea underlying of international English is to discard the choice of any particular variety to be taught to students from the expanding circle countries and to ....

- a. choose whether English is taught as a second language in a country where it is spoken by the majority of the population
- b. expand circle countries where English has no official status but it is acquired by many people for use in international communication
- c. have some form of English that is equally comprehensible to speakers of all the varieties
- d. develop varieties of English that are now recognized as varieties for those that are worth teaching to students from the expanding circle countries

- 8
44. An English Immersion model which uses a simplified form of English as the language of instruction in all classes is called ... model.
- English as a second language (ESL)
  - limited English proficient
  - structured or sheltered immersion classes
  - the submersion or sink or swim
- 8
45. The followings are some bilingualism dichotomies, except ...
- early vs late bilingualism
  - simultaneous vs successive bilingualism
  - coordinate vs sub coordinate bilingualism
  - additive vs subtractive bilingualism
46. Kind of data needed for sociolinguistics studies which include its place, its topic, the role relations of the speakers is in part ....
- the nature of speech encounter
  - the speech variation
  - the characteristics of the speaker
  - the community of the speaker
47. To obtain statistically analyzable data about attitudes and behavior the proper instrument can be used is ....
- non-intrusive responses
  - interview
  - ethnographic observation
  - questionnaires

48. The first step to conduct sociolinguistics studies is to determine ....
- the variable
  - the result of examined variables
  - the problem
  - the subject
49. The weakness of technique of collecting data by using questionnaires is that they ....
- are too standard
  - might leave out questions that seem interesting later
  - recognize significant exchanges
  - are expensive in time and effort
50. Look at the following data:

Strategies	Frequency of use	
	Indonesian Speakers	Western Speakers
Offer a help	10	5
Expression of regret	9	15
Request for forgiveness	12	8
Total	24	27

Based on the above data we can conclude that ....

- Indonesian speakers have a tendency to ask for forgiveness more than western speakers
- It's less common for western speakers to express their regret
- For Indonesian speakers to offer a help is not a common thing to do

- d. Western speakers have a tendency to express of regret less than Indonesian speakers

## CHAPTER XII

# SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION



### WHAT IS SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION ?

When you were still a very young child, you began acquiring at least one language what linguists call your L1 probably without thinking much about it, and with very little conscious effort or awareness. Since that time, you may have acquired an additional language your L2 possibly also in the natural course of having the language used around you, but more likely with the same conscious effort needed to acquire other domains of knowledge in the process of becoming an "educated" individual.

#### CONTENT:

1. *What Is Second Language Acquisition?*
2. *Foundations of second language acquisition*



## 1. WHAT IS SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION?

A second language is typically an official or societally dominant language needed for education, employment, and other basic purposes. It is often acquired by minority group members or immigrants who speak another language natively. In this more restricted sense, the term is contrasted with other terms in this list.

Saville-Troike states that Second Language Acquisition (SLA) refers to individuals and groups who are learning a language after their first language since childhood, and also refers to the learning process. This additional language is called language second language (second language / L2), although it could actually be a language their third, fourth, or tenth. Usually, L2 is also referred to as target language (TL), which refers to the target language learning. The scope of the SLA consists of informal L2 learning that occurs naturally, and formal L2 learning that occurs in the classroom and also occurs in a mixture of various situations.

**Second language acquisition (sla)** refers both to the study of individuals and groups who are learning a language subsequent to learning their first one as young children, and to the process of learning that language. The additional language is called a **second language (l2)**, even though it may actually be the third, fourth, or tenth to be acquired. It is also commonly called a **target language (tl)**, which refers to any language that is the aim or goal of learning. The scope of sla includes **informal l2 learning** that takes place in naturalistic

contexts, **formal l2 learning** that takes place in classrooms, and l2 learning that involves a mixture of these settings and circumstances. For example, “informal learning” happens when a child from Japan is brought to the US and “picks up” English in the course of playing and attending school with native English-speaking children without any specialized language instruction, or when an adult Guatemalan immigrant in Canada learns English as a result of interacting with native English speakers or with co-workers who speak English as a second language.

“formal learning” occurs when a high school student in England takes a class in French, when an undergraduate student in Russia takes a course in Arabic, or when an attorney in Colombia takes a night class in English. SLA has emerged as a field of study primarily from within linguistics and psychology (and their subfields of applied linguistics, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, and social psychology).

## 2. FOUNDATIONS OF SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

### a. The world of second language

**Multilingualism** refers to the ability to use two or more languages. (Some linguists and psychologists use **bilingualism** for the ability to use two languages and **multilingualism** for more than two. **Monolingualism** refers to the ability to use only one.

No one can say for sure how many people are multilingual, but a reasonable estimate is that at least half of the world's population is in this category. Multilingualism is thus by no means a rare phenomenon, but a normal and common occurrence in most parts of the world. Most of us, especially in countries where English is the majority language, are not aware of the prevalence of multilingualism in the world today, nor the pervasiveness of second language learning.

#### b. The Natural of Language Learning

Much of your own L1 acquisition was completed before you ever came to school, and this development normally takes place without any conscious effort. By the age of six months an infant has produced all of the vowel sounds and most of the consonant sounds of any language in the world, including some that do not occur in the language(s) their parents speak. If children hear English spoken around them, they will learn to discriminate

Among those sounds that make a difference in the meaning of English words (the **phonemes**), and they will learn to disregard those that do not. If the children hear Spanish spoken around them, they will learn to discriminate among some sounds the English speaker learns to ignore, as between the flapped *r* in *pero* 'but' and the trilled *rr* in *perro* 'dog,' and to disregard some differences that are not distinctive in Spanish, but vital to English word-meaning, as the *sh* and *ch* of *share* and *chair*.

On average children have mastered most of the distinctive sounds of their first language before they are three years old, and an awareness of basic discourse patterns such as conversational turn-taking appear at an even earlier age. Children control most of the basic L1 grammatical patterns before they are five or six, although complex grammatical patterns continue to develop through the school years. The same natural and generally effortless learning processes take place when there is significant exposure to more than one language in early childhood. If young children hear and respond to two (or more) languages in their environment, the result will be **simultaneous multilingualism** (multiple L1s acquired by about three years of age). As noted in the first chapter, simultaneous multilingualism is not within the usual scope of study in SLA, which focuses on **sequential multilingualism** (L2s acquired after L1).

Our understanding of (and speculation about) how children accomplish the early mastery of L1(s) has changed radically in the past fifty years or so, primarily owing to developments in linguistics and psychology. It was once suggested that first language acquisition is in large part the result of children's natural desire to please their doting parents, who wait impatiently for them to utter a recognizable word. Yet the offspring of even relatively indifferent parents successfully acquire language at about the same rate. Others argued that children's language acquisition is purposive, that they develop language because of

their urge to communicate their wants and needs to the people who take care of them. This has not proven to be an adequate explanation, however, since within children's limited sphere of activity, communicative needs seem to be largely satisfied by gesture and such non-speech sounds as squeals, whines, grunts, and cries.

Perhaps the most widely held view by the middle of the twentieth century was that children learn language by imitation (the **stimulus response theory**). While it is true that much of children's initial language learning can be attributed to their imitation of sounds and words around them, many of their utterances are quite original and cannot be explained as imitations at all, since they can never have heard them before.

### 3. STAGES OF SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

6

Stephen Krashen divides the process of second-language acquisition into five stages: preproduction, early production, speech emergence, intermediate fluency, and advanced fluency.

#### a. The first stage, preproduction,

is also known as the silent period. Learners at this stage have a receptive vocabulary of up to 500 words, but they do not yet speak their second language. Not all learners go through a silent period. Some learners start speaking straight away, although their output may consist of imitation rather than creative

language use. Others may be required to speak from the start as part of a language course. For learners that do go through a silent period, it may last around three to six months.

#### b. The second of Krashen's stages of acquisition is early production

during which learners are able to speak in short phrases of one or two words. They can also memorize chunks of language, although they may make mistakes when using them. Learners typically have both an active and receptive vocabulary of around 1000 words. This stage normally lasts for around six months.

#### c. The third stage is speech emergence

Learners' vocabularies increase to around 3000 words during this stage, and they can communicate using simple questions and phrases. They may often make grammatical errors.

#### d. The fourth stage is intermediate fluency

At this stage, learners have a vocabulary of around 6000 words, and can use more complicated sentence structures. They are also able to share their thoughts and opinions. Learners may make frequent errors with more complicated sentence structures.

e. **The final stage is advanced fluency**

which is typically reached somewhere between five and ten years of learning the language. Learners at this stage can function at a level close to native speakers.

Krashen has also developed a number of hypotheses discussing the nature of second language learners' thought processes and the development of self-awareness during second language acquisition. The most prominent of these hypotheses are monitor theory and the affective filter hypothesis.

## 4. FACTORS AND APPROACHES TO SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

a. <sup>6</sup> **Cognitive factors**

Much modern research in second language acquisition has taken a cognitive approach. Cognitive research is concerned with the mental processes involved in language acquisition, and how they can explain the nature of learners' language knowledge. This area of research is based on the more general area of cognitive science, and uses many of the concepts and models used in more general cognitive learning theory. Thus, cognitive theory views second language acquisition as a special case of a more general learning mechanism in the brain. This puts them in direct contrast to linguistic theory, which presupposes that language acquisition

uses a unique process that is different from other types of learning.

The dominant model in the cognitive approach to second language acquisition, and indeed in all second language acquisition research, is the computational model. The computational model involves three stages. In the first stage, the learner retains certain features of the language input in short-term memory. (This retained input is known as intake.) Then, the learner converts some of this input into second language knowledge, which is stored in long-term memory. Finally, the learner uses this knowledge of the second language to produce spoken output. Cognitive theory seeks to codify both the nature of the mental representations of language intake and knowledge, and the mental processes that underlie these stages.

b. **Socio-cultural factors**

<sup>6</sup> According to Rod Ellis, this plurality means that "the sociolinguistic slal is replete with a confusing array of terms referring to the social aspect of L2 acquisition.". However, common to each of these approaches is the denial of language as a purely psychological phenomenon; on the other hand, sociolinguistic research views the social context in which language is learned as essential for a proper understanding of the acquisition process.

Ellis identifies three types of social structures that influence second language acquisition: sociolinguistic setting, specific social factors, and situational factors. Sociolinguistic setting refers to the role of a second language in society, such as whether the language is spoken by a majority or a minority of the population, whether its use is widespread or limited to several functional roles, or whether the community is predominantly bilingual or monolingual. Ellis also includes the distinction of whether a second language is learned in a natural or educational setting. Certain social factors that can influence second language acquisition include age, gender, social class, and ethnic identity, with ethnic identity being one of the most researched attention. Situational factors are factors that vary between each social interaction. For example, a student might use politer language when talking to someone of a higher social status, but more informal language when talking to a friend.

### c. Linguistic Factor

The linguistic approach to explaining second language acquisition has emerged from the broader study of linguistics. They differ from cognitive approaches and sociocultural approaches in that they consider linguistic knowledge to be unique and distinct from other types of knowledge. The linguistic research tradition in second language acquisition has developed in relative isolation from the cognitive and sociocultural research

traditions, and as of 2010 the influence of the broader field of linguistics is still strong. Two main strands of research can be identified within the linguistic tradition: a generative approach informed by universal grammar, and a typological approach.

Typological universals are principles that apply to all languages in the world. They were discovered empirically, by surveying different languages and deducing which aspects of them could be universal; these aspects were then checked with other languages to verify the findings. The interlanguages of second language learners have been shown to adhere to typological universals, and some researchers have suggested that typological universals may hinder interlanguage development.

The theory of universal grammar was proposed by Noam Chomsky in the 1950s, and has enjoyed considerable popularity in the field of linguistics. It focuses on describing an individual's linguistic competence. He believed that children not only acquire language by learning the rules of descriptive grammar; he claims that children creatively play and form words as they learn languages, creating the meanings of these words, as opposed to the mechanics of memorizing language. It consists of a set of principles, which are universal and constant, and a set of parameters, which can be set differently for different languages. "universals" in grammatical universals differ from typological universals in that they are mental constructs handed down by researchers, whereas typological universals are easily verified by

data from world languages. It is widely accepted among researchers within the universal grammar framework that all first language learners have access to a universal grammar; this is not the case for second language learners, however, and much research in the context of second language acquisition has focused on the level of access that learners may have. There is an ongoing debate among generative linguists around whether L2 users have full or partial access to a universal grammar. This can be seen through the acceptability assessment test. For example, one study found that during comprehension tasks, while L1 English speakers learning Spanish were able to accept imperfect aspects under appropriate conditions, even at higher proficiency levels, they did not resist the use of the preterit form in a continuous and habitual context.

## 5. FORMAL AND INFORMAL LINGUISTIC ENVIRONMENTS IN LANGUAGE ACQUISITION AND LANGUAGE LEARNING

The question of the optimal linguistic environment for the adult second language student has been approached empirically in the last few years in a number of studies. It is a question of obvious importance to the teacher and language student and has also become a matter of concern to the psycholinguist interested in the nature of primary linguistic data, or linguistic input necessary for language acquisition to occur.

In these studies, two sorts of linguistic environments are contrasted: artificial, or formal environments, found for the most part in the classroom, and natural or informal environments. Krashen and Seliger (1975) have noted that all language teaching systems utilized for the adult use activities in which linguistic rules are presented one at a time and in which some sort of feedback (error correction and/or error detection) is present. Other features of formal instruction (e.g. deductive presentation of rules) are not common to all teaching methods and, while their presence may sometimes be catalytic, are not necessary for learning to take place. Krashen and Seliger also note that these features (rule isolation and feedback) do not seem to be present in informal environments.

Several studies, which will be considered in some detail below, suggest that adults can not only increase their second language proficiency in informal environments, but may do as well as or better than learners who have spent a comparable amount of time in formal situations. Other studies present evidence that seems to indicate that "exposure" has little or no effect on increasing adult second language proficiency. In the literature review that follows, it will be argued that these studies are not definitive. Even taken as a group, they do not

Two hypotheses:

- |   |  |
|---|--|
| 1. The informal environment can be efficiently utilized by the adult second language learner. | 2. Formal study, or its essential characteristics, is significantly more efficient than informal exposure in increasing second language proficiency in adults. |
|---|--|

## 6. CONTRIBUTIONS OF FORMAL AND INFORMAL ENVIRONMENT

It is not simply the case that informal environments provide the necessary input for *acquisition* while the classroom aids in increasing *learned* competence. The reinterpretation of the Krashen *et al.* Series as well as the Friedlander *et al.* Data described above suggests, first of all, that informal environments must be intensive and involve the learner directly in order to be effective. One might then distinguish "exposure-type" informal environments and "intake-type" environments. Only the latter provide true input to the language acquisition device. Second, it seems plausible that the classroom can accomplish both learning and acquisition simultaneously. While classwork is directly aimed at increasing conscious linguistic knowledge of the target language, to the extent that the target language

is used realistically, to that extent will acquisition occur. In other words, the classroom may serve as an "intake" informal environment as well as a formal linguistic environment.

Both of these points are illustrated and confirmed by new data on proficiency and linguistic environment using the SLOPE test with adult learners of English. The subject pool was the same as used in Krashen, Sferlazza, Feldman, and Fathman (1976): sixty-six subjects were tested, with thirteen first language groups being represented. Some had studied English intensively while others had encountered English only in informal environments. Table 2 shows the relationship between overall SLOPE scores and measures of exposure. Despite our findings that the SLOPE, as administered, is primarily an *acquisition* measure (because it yielded a "natural" difficulty order and allowed no monitoring time), no relationship was found between the measure of exposure and SLOPE scores.

These results confirm the suspicions voiced above about using "exposure-type" measures of informal linguistic environments, and underline the claim that active involvement is necessary for acquisition.

**Slope performance and measures of exposure and formal instruction**

	<b>Years in English speaking country</b>	<b>Years of formal English study</b>
<b>SLOPE scores</b>	r p 0.014 ns	r p 0.42 p<0.001

*Partial correlations were used, as years in English-speaking country and years of formal study were correlated,  $r = -0.24, p < 0.01$ . Ordinary correlations were computed, however, and were quite similar to those reported above; for SLOPE and exposure,  $r = 0.003$ , and for SLOPE and formal study,  $r = 0.40$ .*

To take place. Thus, if the SLOPE is a test of acquired competence only, it must be concluded that the question asked in the Krashen *et al.* Series is a measure of time spent in "exposure-type" environments only, and this apparent counter-evidence to hypothesis I disappears entirely. No studies in the literature survey, however, are counter-evidence to the hypothesis that an "intake type" informal environment may be quite efficient in increasing adult second language proficiency.

The significant correlation in Table 2 between years of formal instruction and SLOPE scores supports the hypothesis that the classroom can be of value, and in fact generally *is* of value, in language acquisition as well as in language learning.

While all studies described here are consistent with a revised version of hypothesis II, that in general formal instruction increases second language proficiency, none of the studies gives evidence to indicate that "learning" does indeed take place in formal situation in addition to acquisition. Note that "learning" occurs in the Upshur and Mason studies only under the "self-study" hypothesis, while in the Krashen *et al.*

Series the evidence for learning is the positive correlation between years of formal study and proficiency. The SLOPE data indicated, however, that the classroom second language experience may also influence the acquired competence and we thus have no direct evidence that learning takes place at all. The hypothesis that the classroom contributes to acquisition only is sufficient to predict all the data covered above, as all proficiency tests, according to the Monitor Theory, involve some acquired competence.

## 7. SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION AND RELATED DISCIPLINES

There are many research areas that are related to the field of second language acquisition. This chapter briefly touches on some of these "neighboring" disciplines as a way of introducing the reader to these areas, showing similarities and dissimilarities. While SLA is now an autonomous area of research, it had its roots and initial justification in other areas—for example, language teaching—and it



has been strongly influenced by other disciplines, such as linguistics and psychology. However, it had a special relationship with child language acquisition in that child language acquisition formed the basis of research in second language acquisition, with many of the original second language research questions stemming from the same questions in child language acquisition. Other areas, such as third language acquisition or heritage language acquisition, are special instances of second language acquisition and, particularly in the case of heritage language learning, have developed in recent years. Finally, bilingual acquisition blends issues related to second language acquisition and those related to first language acquisition.

We begin this chapter with a brief overview of some of the issues addressed in these related fields. We only give cursory coverage because to do otherwise would take us away from the main focus of this book, second language acquisition. We feel that it is important to give some information on these related areas, however, because they shed light on some of the complexities of SLA. They each have a well-developed history of their own and in most cases even have journals devoted to their issues. In this chapter, we are able to do little more than summarize the scope of work in these areas.

The relationship of each to second language acquisition is different. Some, namely third language acquisition and heritage language acquisition, have a derivative relationship, developing out of related but more specific concerns. Bilingual research has a parallel development with concerns that diverge to some extent from those of

second language acquisition, considering, for example, the onset of learning for both languages.

#### a. Third language acquisition/multilingualism

Second language acquisition has become a cover term for acquisition after a first language has been learned. It often incorporates many different types of acquisition, including third, fourth, and so on, and includes heritage language learning (to be discussed in the subsequent section). This notwithstanding, there is a research area that is becoming more prominent, that of third language acquisition. Since there are multiple languages involved, the questions addressed are quite interesting and inherently more complex than those involved in true second language acquisition. And, individual histories become important.

As noted by Cenoz and Genesee (1998, p. 16),

Multilingual acquisition and multilingualism are complex phenomena. They implicate all the factors and processes associated with second language acquisition and bilingualism as well as unique and potentially more complex factors and effects associated with the interactions that are possible among the multiple languages being learned and the processes of learning them.

As we will see throughout this book, there a number of variables that can impact the extent to which one of the languages involved (the L2 or the L1) will influence the acquisition of the

L3. Among these are the age at which L3 learning begins, the context of acquisition, individual characteristics, and language distances among the three (or more) languages.

Examples of language influence can be seen in a number of areas. In 2-1, from Selinker and Baumgartner-Cohen (1995), an English speaker who has just come from France is attempting to speak German.

Tu	As	mein fax	bekommen?
you	have	my fax	gotten
French	French	German	German
Did you get my fax?			

The sentence is built on German grammar with split verbs, as . . . *bekommen* (“have . . . gotten”), but with the French subject pronoun (*tu*) and auxiliary *avoir* (“as”). Other examples come from Dewaele (1998), who gives examples from native speakers of Dutch with English as an L2 producing French as L3 utterances, as in 2-2 and 2-3:

(2-2) Ils veulent gagner more, euh, plus . . .

They want to earn more, uh, more . . .

(2-3) Les gens sont impliqués

The people are involved

In 2-3, the correct word is *impliqués* rather than *implovés*. Another lexical mixture is cited by Herwig (2001). A native speaker of English who has French as an L2 and German Swedish

as an L3 says *föreslagger* for the Swedish word *föreslär* (the German word is *vorschlagen*—propose).

**1**  
b. **Bilingual acquisition**

*Bilingualism* is a broad term and, like heritage language acquisition, has many forms and configurations. Often the term *bilingual* is used loosely to incorporate multilingualism, as is clear from the introduction to a section of a book by Bhatia and Ritchie (2006). Bhatia (2006) states that “the investigation of bilingualism is a broad and complex field, including the study of the nature of the individual bilingual’s knowledge and use of two (or more) languages” (emphasis ours) (p. 5). Cenoz, in her review (2005) of Bhatia and Ritchie’s book, states “the editors make a remark in the introduction about the use of the word ‘bilingualism’ in the title of the book and say that they do not exclude additional languages and that the chapters in the book include the ‘full range of multilingualism’.

However, the use of the term ‘bilingualism’ is problematic because the Latin prefix ‘bi’ means ‘two’ . . .” (p. 638). The concept of *bilingualism* is interpreted differently in the field of SLA versus fields such as psychology and education. That is, SL researchers reserve use of the term for only those that are truly, as shown through some linguistic measure, the equivalent of native speakers of two languages. Thus, from the perspective of second language researchers, *bilingual* is a

difficult term. In its strict meaning, it refers to someone whose language is in a steady state and who has learned and now knows two languages. That is, *bilingual* refers to an end point; “someone is bilingual.” Within a second language research context, the end-point interpretation of the term is generally not a focus of inquiry. Rather, second language researchers, because of their interest in discovering the second language acquisition process, might focus instead on near-native speakers or advanced language learners. In general, SLA researchers are most interested in individuals who are in the process of learning, not those who have learned two languages earlier.

This use of the term does not appear to be the case in some of the psychological and educational literature on bilingualism.<sup>2</sup> For example, Edwards (2006) starts off his article on the foundations of bilingualism by saying “Everyone is bilingual. That is, there is no one in the world (no adult, anyway) who does not know at least a few words in languages other than the maternal variety. If, as an English speaker, you can say *c’est la vie* or *gracias* or *guten Tag* or *tovarisch*—or even if you only understand them—you clearly have some command of a foreign tongue . . . The question, of course, is one of degree . . .” (p. 7). He goes on to say, “it is easy to find definitions of bilingualism that reflect widely divergent responses to the question of *degree*” (p. 8). Bhatia (2006) states this in an interesting way when he says “the process of second language acquisition of becoming a

bilingual” (p. 5). In other words, the end result of second language acquisition is a bilingual speaker. Given that bilingualism is seen as the end result and given that we know that native-like competence in a second language is rare, there is some difficulty in discussing bilingualism in this way. Thus, Bhatia and Edwards are referring to two different phenomena. Edwards is saying that one is bilingual at any point in the SL learning process, whereas Bhatia is referring only to the end point and does not deal with whether or not that end point has to be “native” or not. In other words, the issues seem to be of degree whether or not one is *bilingual* even if not a native speaker of the

L2—and of end point—whether or not one is *bilingual* if still in the process of acquisition. SL researchers are more likely to require native competence and also to reserve use of the term for the end state. The bilingualism literature, it seems, allows more latitude in both of these factors. Valdés (2001a) also discusses the issue of degree when she says “the term *bilingual* implies not only the ability to use two languages to some degree in everyday life, but also the skilled superior use of both languages at the level of the educated native speaker” (p. 40). She acknowledges that this is a narrow definition, for it considers the bilingual as someone who can “do everything perfectly in two languages and who can pass undetected among monolingual speakers of each of these two languages” (p. 40). This she refers to as the “mythical bilingual.” She argues that there are, in fact,

different types of bilinguals and that it is, therefore, more appropriate to think of bilingualism as a continuum with different amounts of knowledge of the L1 and L2 being represented. In this view, the term *bilingualism* can refer to the process of learning as well as the end result, the product of learning.

Some researchers make a distinction between second language learners and bilinguals, as is clear from the title of an article by Kroll and Sunderman (2003): “Cognitive processes in second language learners and bilinguals: the development of lexical and conceptual representations.” In this article, the authors refer to “skilled adult bilinguals,” presumably the rough equivalent of *advanced language learners*. Finally, Deuchar and Quay (2000) define bilingual acquisition as “the acquisition of two languages in childhood” (p. 1), although they point to the difficulties involved in this definition given the many situations that can be in place. They point to De Houwer (1995), who talks about *bilingual first language acquisition*, referring to situations when there is regular exposure to two languages within the first month of birth and *bilingual second language acquisition*, referring to situations where exposure begins later than one month after birth but before age two.

Wei (2000, pp. 6–7) presents a useful table of various definitions/types of bilinguals. As can be seen from Table, the terminology used in bilingualism is far-reaching and overlaps to some extent with second language acquisition. For example,

*successive bilingual* describes the scope of second language acquisition research. Importantly, however, it is difficult to pigeonhole all types of bilingualism because there are numerous situations in which individuals use two languages, from growing up with two languages, to achieving bilingual status as adults, to having the second language as virtually their only language (e.g., displaced refugees). Further, there are different combinations of ability. For example, there are those who function well in some contexts (talking with one’s family), but who are not literate in that language, versus those who function well academically in both languages. Valdés (2001a, p. 41) illustrates what she calls a bilingual continuum in Figure. The two letters represent two languages; the size and the case of the font reflect different proficiencies.

<b>Achieved bilingual</b>	Same as <i>late bilingual</i>
<b>Additive bilingual</b>	Someone whose two languages combine in a complementary and enriching fashion
<b>Am bilingual</b>	Same as <i>balanced bilingual</i>
<b>Ascendant bilingual</b>	Someone whose ability to function in a second language is developing due to increased use
<b>Ascribed bilingual</b>	Same as <i>early bilingual</i>
<b>Asymmetrical bilingual</b>	See <i>receptive bilingual</i>

<b>Balanced bilingual</b>	Someone whose mastery of two languages is roughly equivalent
<b>Compound bilingual</b>	Someone whose two languages are learned at the same time, often in the same context
<b>Consecutive bilingual</b>	Same as <i>successive bilingual</i>
<b>Coordinate bilingual</b>	Someone whose two languages are learned in distinctively separate contexts
<b>Covert bilingual</b>	Someone who conceals his or her knowledge of a given language due to an attitudinal disposition
<b>Diagonal bilingual</b>	Someone who is bilingual in a nonstandard language or a dialect and an unrelated standard language
<b>Dominant bilingual</b>	Someone with greater proficiency in one of his or her languages and uses it significantly more than the other Language(s)
<b>Dormant bilingual</b>	Someone who has emigrated to a foreign country for a considerable period of time and has little opportunity to keep the first language actively in use
<b>Early bilingual</b>	Someone who has acquired two languages early in childhood

### c. Monitor Theory

In the monitor theory put forward by Stephen Krashen regarding the theory of second language acquisition that is influential in the second language teaching process. There are 5 hypotheses used as a "monitor model"

#### 1. Acquisition –learning Hypothesis

In this hypothesis there are two ways that are used to develop a second language namely "acquire and learn" We "acquire" language when we listen to samples of a second language just as small children learn their first language. In contrast, learning occurs through a formal learning process and is attentive to the formation of knowledge.

#### 2. Monitor Hypothesis

Krashen stated that the system that has been obtained serves to trigger the emergence of speech from speakers and influence the fluency and assessment of the correctness of the spoken sentence. On the other hand, the system that has been studied will only function as an editor or "monitor" which will only make minor changes and polish what has been produced by the acquired system (acquired).

#### 3. Input Hypothesis

In the hypothesis this refers to observations such as the first language, while the learner of the second language acquires the features of the target language in predictable patterns.

#### 4. Input hypothesis

In this hypothesis, Krashen states that a person will acquire language in one way, namely by exposure to comprehensible input.

#### 5. Affective Filter Hypothesis

The "affective filter" is an imaginary barrier that can prevent the learner from acquiring the existing language. While "affect" refers to things such as motives, attitudes, needs and emotional conditions.

### ACTIVITY 16!

1. What the meaning about second language acquisition?
2. What the difference between simultaneous multilingualism and sequential multilingualism?
3. What are the stages of second language acquisition and mention the example!
4. In the Monitor theory, there are monitor hypothesis. Can you give example about it?
5. Explain about Krashan's statement about affective filter hypothesis!

## CHAPTER XIII

# LANGUAGE VARIATION



### DO YOU KNOW ABOUT LANGUAGE VARIATION?

Language has a systematic nature because it is based on regular rules. Systematic properties are systems so that from there language has variations.

#### CONTENT

1. Type of Variation
2. Type of Dialect
3. Regional Variation

## 1. WHAT IS LANGUAGE VARIATION?

The term linguistic variation (or simply variation) refers to regional, social, or contextual differences in the ways that a particular language is used. Variation between languages, dialects, and speakers is known as interspeaker variation. Variation within the language of a single speaker is called intraspeaker variation. All aspects of language (including phonemes, morphemes, syntactic structures, and meanings) are subject to variation. Variation in language use among speakers or groups of speakers is a notable criterion or change that may occur in pronunciation (accent), word choice (lexicon), or even preferences for particular grammatical patterns. Variation is a principal concern in sociolinguistics. It has been discovered that variation is typically the vehicle of language change."

Language variation is a core concept in sociolinguistics. Sociolinguists investigate whether these linguistic variations can be attributed to differences in the social characteristics of speakers who use the language, but also investigate whether elements of the surrounding linguistic context encourage or hinder the use of certain structures. The term linguistic variation (or simply variation) refers to regional, social, or contextual differences in the ways that a particular language is used. The variation between languages, dialects, and speakers is known as interspeaker variation. Variation within the language of a single speaker is called intraspeaker variation.

## 2. TYPES OF VARIATION

"Regional variation is only one of many possible types of differences among speakers of the same language. For example, there are occupational dialects (the word bugs means something quite different to a computer programmer and an exterminator), sexual dialects (women are far more likely than men to call a new house adorable), and educational dialects (the more education people have, the less likely they are to use double negatives). There are dialects of age (teenagers have their own slang, and even the phonology of older speakers is likely to differ from that of young speakers in the same geographical region) and dialects of social context (we do not talk the same way to our intimate friends as we do to new acquaintances, to the paperboy, or to our employer) . . . regional dialects are only one of many types of linguistic variation."

### a. Standard language

<sup>16</sup> Standard language is an idealized variety of a language that is considered the dominant or prestige variety within a language. It is the version of a language that is held up by prescriptive grammarians and language purists as correct.

### b. National language

A national language is a language with a political, cultural, and social unit connected with it. An official language is a language used by the government of a country. A national

language is often used to unite the people. And each country has a history behind its selection language. The process of developing a national language consist four steps which are :

#### **1. Selection**

Selecting a language to serve as the national language is a political process. Picking the wrong language could rip a nation a part. Different countries have approached this in different ways. Indonesia selected a Malay pidgin as its national language to unite its country. The Philippines choose Tagalog or Filipino as their national language, which was met with great resistance.

#### **2. Codification**

Codification involves standardizing the language. This involves the development of grammar rules and dictionaries. American English was heavily influenced by Noah Webster and his work in developing dictionaries. Webster specifically wanted to develop an American dialect of English in order to unify the new country.

#### **3. Elaboration**

Elaboration is the process of extending the language into new domains such as academics, medicine, or some other field. Many languages, pidgins, and or creoles, do not have ways of communicating highly abstract terms. In order to serve as an official language, terms need to be developed to handle any form of communication.

#### **4. Acceptance**

After developing a language in order for it to become the national language, steps must be taken to convince the people to use it. This is often done through a combination of propaganda and follows the leader. When government officials use the language locals often begin to follow.

#### **c. Dialect**

A dialect is a type of language spoken by a group of people. Sometimes people who live in the same place make a dialect. Sometimes people who are similar in some way make a dialect. There is no agreed difference between a dialect and a language. Some dialect are called “language” they may spell words differently and even be known as a language (for example, English is sometimes called a Germanic dialect). Other dialects are different types of a language that come from different places or countries (for example, British English and American English are dialects of English). The study of dialect is called dialectology. Differences in dialects can be found :

- in different words (for example, people who speak British English may go to *church* and people who speak Scottish English may go to *kirk*).
- In different pronunciation, Words are written the same way but pronounced differently by different speakers.
- In different grammar (for example, some people who speak English may say *I dived*, and others may say *I dove*).



### 3. TYPES OF DIALECT

#### a. <sup>16</sup> Regional dialect

A subgroup variety of a language associated with a particular geographical area is called a regional dialect. This type of dialect is frequently produced through the historical linguistic processes of change that we saw in the last lesson, such as contact with speakers of other languages, changes due to new tools and techniques, and perhaps most especially, differences tied to the environment.

Examples of regional dialects include the dialect of the Southern United States and the three dialects of German in Europe: Low, Middle, and High German. An **isogloss** is the boundary between two regional dialects.

#### b. <sup>16</sup> Ethnic dialect

A subgroup variety of a language that is associated with a particular ethnic group is termed an ethnic dialect. African-American Vernacular English is considered by some to be an ethnic dialect, or ethnolect, of English. It is a variety of English spoken by people of African American heritage in the United States.

#### c. Sossiolect

A subgroup variety of a language that is associated with a social group of any sort is termed a sociolect. Technically, an ethnic dialect is one kind of sociolect. Other sociolects are based on age groups, gender, and socioeconomic class.

#### d. Accent

Phonetic or pronunciation distinctions between groups result in different accents. The word accent refers only to pronunciation distinctions. To refer to multiple distinctions across all linguistic subcategories, one must use the term dialect or variety.

All speakers have the accent of their own speech community. That is, there is no unaccented speech; everyone who speaks a language, speaks it with an accent. A particular accent essentially reflects a person's home or native linguistic background.

When people listen to someone speak with a different accent from their own, they notice the difference, and they may even make certain biased social judgments about the speaker. When speaking with someone from one's own speech community, pronunciation generally goes unnoticed, and a speaker thinks "This person has no accent," when, in fact, it is simply the same as one's own.

#### d. Register

Register often refers to the degree of formality of language, but in a more general sense it means the language used by a group of people who share similar work or interests, such as doctors or lawyers.

Example For formal and informal register; 'Would you mind passing the salt?' is appropriate for a formal situation with strangers, whereas 'Pass me the salt' would be used for a situation where friends are talking, or possibly when being rude. In the classroom. Although register is a complex area, the most common aspect looked at in language learning is the degree of formality. Teachers often divide **functional** language into three working categories, formal, neutral and informal.

#### e. Pidgin

In linguistics, a *pidgin* (pronounced PIDG-in) is a simplified form of speech formed out of one or more existing languages and used as a lingua franca by people who have no other language in common. Or simple definition is whe language x and y mixed. Language which has no native speaker, mixed language, reduced grammar and vocabularies. Also known as a *pidgin language* or an *auxiliary language*. "A pidgin," says R.L. Trask and Peter Stockwell, "is nobody's mother tongue, and it is not a real language at all: it has no elaborate grammar, it is very limited in what it can convey, and different people speak it

differently. Still, for simple purposes, it does work, and often everybody in the area learns to handle it" ( *Language and Linguistics: The Key Concepts*, 2007).

#### f. Creole

Creole happen when language x and y are used succesively. Its mean native speakers exist, have parents who used pidgins, mixed language associated with culture and often racial mixture.

#### g. Classical language

Generally, the classical language dominates the cultural area where the regional language is spoken. Therefore, elements of its vocabulary can be absorbed into the subordinate language, to form a more or less distinct layer of 'high' within it.

#### h. Lingua Franca

Any language commonly used for communication between people who do not have a native language is a lingua franca. A lingua franca is a functional term, regardless of the linguistic history or structure of any language.

### i. Diglossia

Diglossia is a language situation in which there is a functional division of language variations or languages that exist in society. What is meant is that there is a difference between formal or official and informal or non-formal varieties. For example, in Indonesia, there is a difference between written language and spoken language. The term diglossia was first used in French diglossie (from Greek , 'bilingual') by the Greek linguist Ioannis Psycharis. The Arabic linguist William Marçais also used it in the 1930s to write about the language situation in the Arab world.

However, the term diglossia became famous in linguistic studies after being used by C.A. Ferguson, a scholar from Stanford University in 1958 at a symposium on “Urbanization and Standard Languages” organized by the American Anthropological Association in Washington DC.

## 4. REGIONAL VARIATION

Dialect geography, as this area of linguistic study is known, has employed assumptions and methods drawn from historical linguistics. In this view languages differentiate internally speakers distance themselves from one another over time and space; the changes result in the creation of dialects of languages. For instance:

Latin become French in France  
Spanish in Spain  
Italian in Italy

The ‘family tree’ Latin has branched into French, Spanish and Italian.

Dialect geographers have traditionally attempted to reproduce their findings on maps in what they called dialect atlases.

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## GLOSSARY

- Acoustic** : Pertaining to the properties of soundwaves.
- Affricates** : A **stop+fricative** sequence, made with the same **articulator**, sometimes treated as a single consonant.
- Allophonic** : Different in pronunciation, but not indicating a difference in meaning (cf. **phonemic**).
- Alternations** : Changes to a word's pronunciation depending on the phonetic context in which it occurs.
- Alveolar ridge** : The ridge of gum-covered bone behind the upper teeth.
- Amplitude** : Loudness.
- Aperiodic** : Without any repeating pattern, characteristic of the waveforms of **fricatives** and **stop** releases.
- Approximant** : A **consonant** produced with less constriction than that of a **fricative**, but more than a **vowel**.
- Articulator** : An organ of the **vocal tract** used in speech production.

**Basic form** : The form of a **stem** (or **prefix/suffix**) prior to undergoing any **alternations**. **Bilabial**: Produced with the two lips.

**Broad transcription** : A less detailed phonetic transcription, reflecting only **phonemic** distinctions, enclosed in /slashes/ (cf. **Narrow transcription**).

**Central** : Produced with the **tongue body** neither forward nor retracted.

**Close** : With greater constriction, opposite of **open**.

**Coarticulation** : Overlapping movements of the **articulators**.

**Complementary distribution** : When one sound occurs in one context only, and another sound never occurs in that context, only occurring elsewhere.

**Complex waveform** : A waveform containing a number of component **frequencies**.

**Consonant** : A speech sound involving significant obstruction of airflow.

**Cues** : Properties of the **acoustic** signal, used in recognizing speech.

**Cycles per second** : A measure of **frequency** of a soundwave, also called **Hertz**.

**Decibels** : A measure of loudness (abbreviated dB).

**Dental** : Produced with the tongue tip and the upper teeth.

**Diacritic** : A supplementary phonetic symbol, usually appearing above or below the main symbol.

**Dialect** : A regional variant of a language.

**Distribution** : Where things are found: specifically, the phonetic contexts in which a given set of speech sounds occur.

**Formants** : Peaks in the **spectrum** of a **complex waveform**.

**Fourier analysis** : A mathematical technique of breaking complex waveforms down into their component frequencies, used in spectrograms.

**Free variation** : A kind of **allophonic** variation, where either allophone can be used in a given context without affecting the meaning of the word.

**Frequency** : The number of cycles of a periodic wave, heard as pitch.

**Fricative** : A consonant produced with a **close** but incomplete constriction, resulting in a hissing noise.

**Fundamental frequency:** The lowest **frequency** component of a **complex waveform**, heard as the basic pitch of the speaker's voice, also called **F0**.

**Geminate** : A consonant maintained for roughly twice the normal duration of the corresponding single consonant.

**Glottis** : The space between the folds of the **larynx**.

**Harmonics** : Higher-**frequency** components of a **complex waveform** (cf. **fundamental frequency**).

**Hertz** : Cycles per second, a measure of frequency (abbreviated Hz).

**Ill-formed** : Violating the phonological rules of a language.

**International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA):** A convention for phonetic transcription, widely used by linguists.

**Labiodental** : Produced with the lower lip and upper teeth.

**Larynx** : The valve at the top of the **trachea**, the source of **voicing**.

**Lateral** : Produced with lowering of the side(s) of the tongue.

**Manner of articulation** : The degree of obstruction of airflow involved in a given **consonant**.

**Mid** : Produced with the **tongue body** neither high nor low.

**Minimal pair** : Two words with different meanings, which are identical except for the phonetic distinction in question, used to establish the **phonemic** status of the phonetic distinction.

**Narrow transcription** : A fully detailed phonetic transcription, reflecting **allophonic** variation, enclosed in [square brackets].

**Nasalized** : Produced with lowering of the velum, allowing air to flow through the nasal passages.

**Natural class of sounds** : A set of **sounds** within a given language which can be defined in terms of some shared phonetic property or properties.

**Obstruction** : Blockage, specifically blockage of airflow in the vocal tract.

**Open** : With less constriction, opposite of **close**.

**Palatal** : Produced by the tongue body in the region of the **palate**.

**Palate** : The roof of the mouth, commonly called the 'hard palate.'

**Periodic** : Characterized by a regular, repeating pattern. Periodic waveforms have a 'humming' sound.

<b>Pharynx</b>	: The back of the throat.
<b>Phonation</b>	: The state of the <b>larynx</b> during a speech <b>sound</b> .
<b>Phonemic</b>	: A distinction between two <b>sounds</b> (or sequences of sounds) which corresponds to a difference in the <i>meaning</i> of words, either by itself, or as the primary distinction among a set of cues.
<b>Phono tactic rules</b>	: Rules restricting how <b>sounds</b> can be combined to form words within a given language.
<b>Place of articulation</b>	: The location of a consonant's <b>obstruction</b> in the vocal tract.
<b>Possible word</b>	: A nonsense word which satisfies the phonological rules of the language.
<b>Post-alveolar</b>	: Produced with the tongue tip in the region behind the <b>alveolar ridge</b> .
<b>Pure tone</b>	: Sound energy characterized by a simple sine wave, approximated by the sound of a tuning fork.
<b>Robust</b>	: As applied to phonemic distinctions, unlikely to be misperceived, due to strong cues.
<b>Rounding</b>	: Drawing together of the corners of the lips, as in <b>rounded vowels</b> .

<b>Sound</b>	: <sup>7</sup> A portion of the speech signal during which the sound energy (and the configuration of the mouth to produce that sound energy) remains relatively stable.
<b>Spectrogram</b>	: A visual display of sound energy, showing how the <b>spectrum</b> changes over time.
<b>Spectrum</b>	: The <b>amplitude</b> profile of the <b>harmonics</b> of a <b>complex waveform</b> .
<b>Stops</b>	: <b>Consonants</b> produced with complete closure of the <b>vocal tract</b> .
<b>Stress</b>	: Greater loudness, duration and pitch of particular vowels within words.
<b>Striation</b>	: A stripe-like pattern.
<b>Suffix</b>	: A word 'ending' with a recognizable meaning, such as the <i>-s</i> at the end of <i>cats</i> .
<b>Syllable</b>	: 'Mini-words' into which longer words can be broken down, each consisting of a single vowel (or diphthong), together with any consonants that can be grouped with it.
<b>Trachea</b>	: The 'windpipe,' lead from the through down to the lungs.
<b>Uvula</b>	: The fleshy appendage at the back of the <b>velum</b> .
<b>Velo-pharyngeal port</b>	: The space between the <b>velum</b> and the <b>pharynx</b> , leading into the nasal passages.



<b>Velum</b>	: The 'soft palate'.
<b>Vocal tract</b>	: The lungs, throat, mouth and nose, particularly as used in speech.
<b>Voicing</b>	: Pulsing of air in the <b>glottis</b> as it passes through the vibrating <b>larynx</b> .
<b>Vowel</b>	: <b>Sounds</b> produced without significant <b>obstruction</b> of airflow in the <b>vocal tract</b> .
<b>Well-formed</b>	: Obeying the phonological rules of the language.

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