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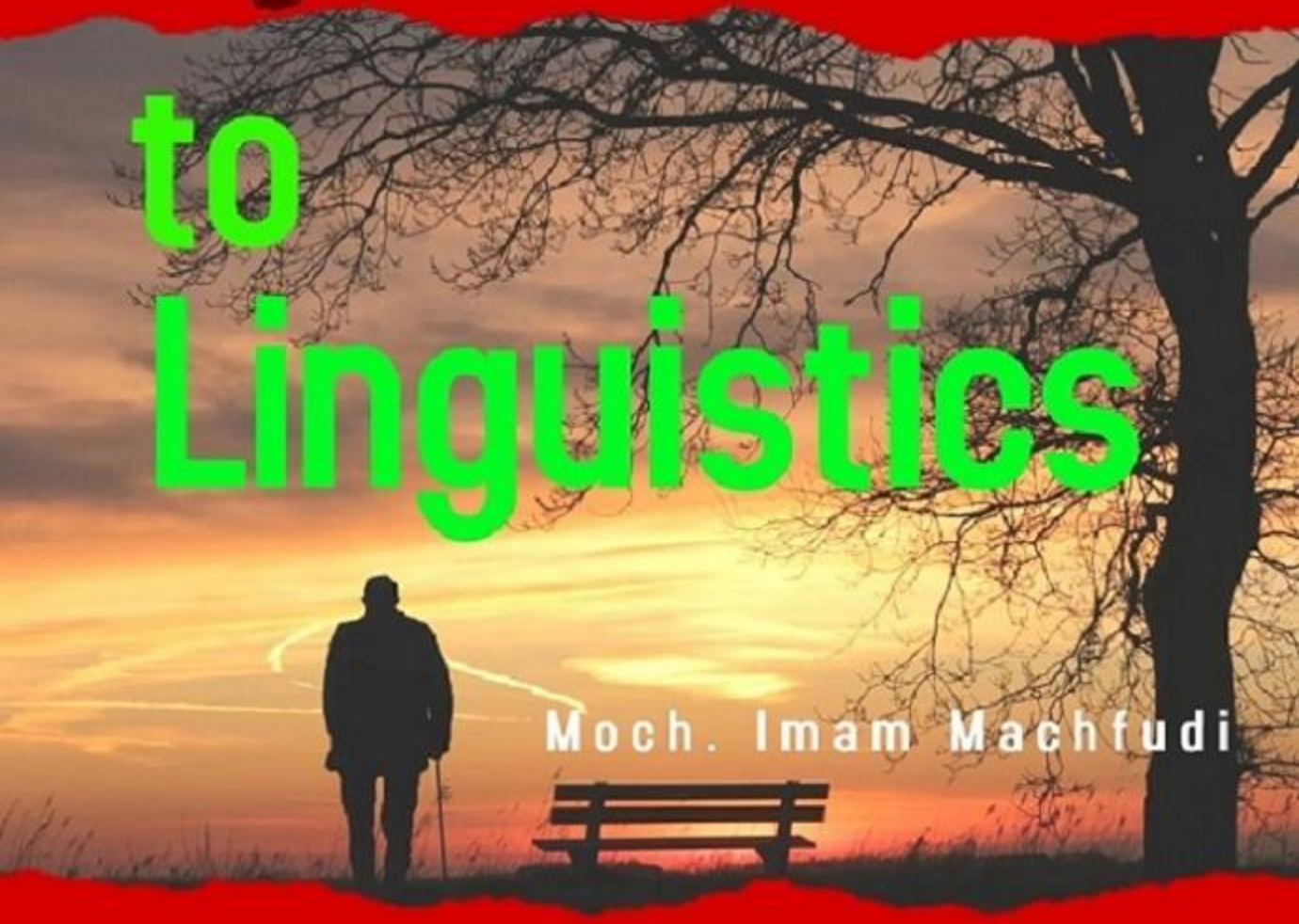

Moch. Imam Machfudi

When any journey is to be undertaken it proves a valuable exercises to consider those who have travelled similar pathways before, while a researcher may be branching off the established pathway to explore new directions there is still much to be gained from having a solid understanding of the terrain (Atwell)

Introduction to LINGUISTICS

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To Wildana, Kauna, Nuha

> When any journey is to be undertaken it proves a valuable exercises to consider those who have travelled similar pathways before, while a researcher may be branching off the established pathway to explore new directions there is still much to be gained from having a solid understanding of the terrain.
>
> Atwell (2006, p. 3)

INTRODUCTION

In a class of *Introduction to Linguistics*years ago I met a brilliant student, Mahbub. At that time I asked him to prepare a text from my lecture. He diligently took notes and quite often he gave additional explanation in some sections. The last three semesters I was appointed to teach the course again. It had been three years after finishing my Ph.D degree in Linguistics, Adult and Specialist Education in the University of Southern Queensland, Australia. There is a reason for me to come back again to see the notes Mahbub gave me years ago, and here is the text I would love to give a title *Introduction to Linguistics* and is the name for this course.

This book is mainly aimed at providing students of English department with the knowledge of linguistics or the study of language. There was a quite interesting experience when one day last semester, I asked students if they had heard about the word "linguistics." They showed different answers. One of the answers was "yes, we heard the word *linguistics* but we don't know the meaning." Of course, this book won't be explaining the meaning of linguistics *ansich*, but also the property of language, macro and micro linguistics and the study of syntax, semantics, phonology, morphology, pragmatics as well. And thus, it is going to be larger areas to study.

This book encompasses XI chapters. It begins with the first chapter that talks about Language and Linguistics. It mainly discusses the definition of language, the origin of language and human communication, the properties of language which focused on discussing the characteristics of language itself. Chapter II is the discussion about linguistics and its study. Chapter III up to chapter VII is what is considered to be the study of micro linguistics or the study of linguistics from the aspect of language itself such as *syntax* or the study of sentence structure, *semantics*or the study of word and sentence meaning, *phonology* or the study of sound patterns of language, *morphology* or the study of word formation process, and *pragmatics* or the study of the meaning of utterance.

The following two chapters (chapter VIII and IX) are going to be the discussions of discourse analysis and language and the brain. Discourse analysis deals with how we make sense of what we read, how we can recognize well-constructed texts as opposed to those that are jumbled or incoherent, how we understand speakers who communicate more than they say.

Language and the brain will feature the areas in the brain that may tell the functions of the brain in producing language. A number of research findings show that there are parts of the brain where massive abilities of human language functions are produced.

The last parts of this book are the discussion about the study of language in connection with other aspects of knowledge such as psychological study to see how language develops in children. This will mainly discuss the second language acquisition. This book also covers linguistics study in relation with the social studies that sees the linguistic study from the point of view of what is developing in a certain society.

Again, I would like to say that this book aims at providing students of the English department with the basic knowledge of the linguistics study. Within the course of *Introduction to Linguistics* my concern is to introduce the concepts of language study. There are many explanations in literature to elucidate the key elements of the study of language, and this course book helps what students of the English Department need. Finally I hope that students of the English Department will find this thin book useful and engaging as well. I believe that motivation in language learning plays pivotal roles and this book will be one of the triggers for students to learn language more.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter I
LANGUAGE AND LINGUISTICS

A. Language: An Introduction

1. The Definition of Language

It is generally recognized that language is one of the humans' characteristics that distinguish them from other creatures. People use language to communicate their ideas with one another. Within daily lives, they are able to make social interaction in their community through language. In the interaction when someone is speaking they are actually in a process of conveying message. They probably express their feelings and share their ideas to each other as well.

This chapter contains the definitions proposed by linguists and experts in the area of linguistics or the study of language. This will lead us to understand their viewpoints about

what language may mean. The definitions were taken from books, dictionaries, and or articles some of which were explicitly explained and some were with examples. This part attempts to review the definition in the following discussions.

Hornby in his classic dictionary, *Oxford Advance Learner's Dictionary of Current English*, defines "Language is human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, feelings and desires by means of a system of sounds and sound symbols" (1986:473). This definition reflects that language is used to transform ideas, to express feeling, and to voice desires in the form of words. Non-instinctive may mean that language uses verbal symbols such as in spoken or written expression of something or an activity. For example, when someone is getting angry we can see from his/her facial expression, however without words that are spoken or written we may be wrong that he/she is angry or not. Although communication can be made by using non-verbal language such as gesture or body language, it is not a language. Because language is human and thus what is meant by language in this context is language that is used by human and are not other creatures. Verbal communication is done through spoken or written language. And thus, this communication employs verbal symbols.

In line with the above definition, Bussmann (1996) confirmed that "language is vehicle for the expression or exchanging of thoughts, concepts, knowledge, and information as well as the fixing and transmission of experience and knowledge" (p. 627). The communication is based on cognitive processes, subject to societal factors and to historical change

and development. In this definition, language refers to a specific form of expression that is restricted to humans, and differs from all other possible languages, such as animalcommunicationand artificiallanguagesthrough creativity,the ability to make conceptual abstractions, and the possibility of metalinguistic reflection.

Richards and Schmidt (2002) pointed out that language is the system of human communication which consists of the structured arrangement of sounds (or their written representation) into larger units, e.g. morphemes, words, sentences, utterances.Meanwhile, Todd (1987) defines, "Language is a set of signals by which we communicate"(p.6).

Todd's (1987) definition is somewhat simple but it has to be defined more specifically that language relates to a set of infinite structured expression in human's mind used as the system of human communication as the reflection of encoding signals of communication transmitted in speech, writing, and signing (especially, for the deaf-mute).

The last mode of language is generally used by the deaf-mute people and by some who communicate with them. That is the term relating to the people or person who can neither hear nor speak as their primary language. In other words, hearing-speaking impaired people communicate meaning through the movement of body, head, face, arm, eyes, and mouth. This non-verbal communication is entirely based on the human's gestures, known as *SignLanguage* (Richards & Schmidt, 2002).

Pomorska (1987) when commented on Roman Jakobson's work confirmed that "any activity of man is originally connected with language: the life work of Jakobson exemplifies this truth to the fullest" (p.1). Jakobson proposed six language functions as the basic for making communication including *emotive, conative, referential, metalingual, poetic,* and *phatic*. The language functions will not be explained in this part.

2. The Origins of Language and Human Communication

Studying the origins of language and human communications are naturally based on the human's curiosity. The study will seemingly be able to provide with adequate theories of language or proper explorations to answer the fundamental question on how language only emerged in human, but not in other species.

Yule (2012), for example, proposed that for some linguists the origin of language is interconnected with natural sounds like the sound of *'coo-coo'* then the first people named the flying animal as *cuckoo*. Further, Yule exemplified in the English language, in addition to cuckoo, there are words like *splash, bang, boom, rattle, buzz, hiss, screech*, and the sound like *bow-wow* the then called '*bow-wow'*theory (p.3). The sounds of nature which are taken up into words are **onomatopoeic** and therefore it is onomatopoeia. However, the concern of discussion about the origin of language spins around question: "is this really the origin of language?"

Analysing human language in terms of theoretical linguistics is able to be said as the familiar subject, but most of people do not spendtheir much time and devote their thought to discuss about its origins. The origins of language and human communication have become the most interesting issues that should be tackled. Some of the interesting issues are about what the first language was and how the early human or our ancestors began to communicate through the language.

Tomasello (2008) pointed out that those who want to understand human communication,they may not begin with language. Rather, they would begin with un-conventionalized, uncoded communication, and other forms of mental attunement, as foundational. This statement forces us to realize that the process of uncoded communication involving mental attunement went before the language itself was formed.

There aresome classic quotationsor the most common theories about the origins of language taken from Indonesian linguist Alwasilah. In his book *Linguistik: Suatu Pengantar* (1983) the theory of the origin of languageis providedin the following points:

a. Ding-dong Theory

Max Muller (1823-1900) introduces this theory. It is also called as *Nativistic Theory*, according to this theory, human has a special ability to produce expressions or utterances as the response of stimulus. It is like a signal-bell in our brain so that we can produce the appropriate utterance based on the stimulus accepted. As the example, when we see a wolf, human can naturally produce the word "wolf".

b. Yo-he-ho Theory

This theory proposed that the source of language comes from the physical effort of a person, or especially involving several people coordinated in a particular social activity. In other words, language evolved from the grunts, groans, and snorts evoked by heavy physical labor.

Suppose that we are lifting a big tree. As usual, when lifting something big, we spontaneously produce a set of groan. This utterance, then, becomes the name of that activity done such as: *Heave! (Indonesian: angkat,* read as in 'uncut'*)* and *Rest! (Indonesian: Diam)*.

c. Bow-wow Theory (onomatopoeic)

This theory is also known as *Echoic Theory*. It assumes that our ancestors began the language by producing the primitive words coming from the imitations of natural sound such as: *the voice of animals, thunder sound, wind, wave, and so on.* In English, there are several words such as: *babble, rattle, ripple, cuckoo,* and many others. Inline with this, in Indonesian there are some examples of words taken from the process of imitating the natural sounds such as: *"berkokok"* is taken from the sound of cock. The word *"bedug"* is taken from the sound of special drum placed in mosques and it strikes many times as the signal for prayer times. It sounds "dug-dug". The other example is the verb "*mencicit",*a word taken from the sound of mice "cit-cit" and so forth.

As explained above, we needto clarify that when we are talking about the origins of language, the discussion is somewhat complicated. This is quite difficult to conclude that all words in the examples above are taken from the sound of nature as we do not find scientific evidences or records. The most important thing that we have to believe is that in human communication there is a process of encoding signals of communication involving mental attunement.

In Islamic world, it is believed that Allah created Adam as "*AbulBasyar*" (the father of mankind) from clay to become messenger in the earth. Allah, then, taught him all the names and presented them to the angels so that they acknowledged having been at fault in terms of their doubts to him as *khalifah fil ardl* (The Noble Qur'an: Al-Baqarah verse, 30-34; translation by Al-Hilali,1996). In addition, Allah provided Adam the real godsends namely mind. It makes him possible to think, learn, feel emotion, and understand things so that he is capable of encoding the process of communication naturally, including through the gestures.

Let us imagine that we step around the zoo, then, try to communicate something simple with one of the animals there. Inform to the one of animals that we come here to see you to jump. Does it always do what we try to inform or instruct to it? It will not get it. From this situation, we all know the fact that animals cannot catch the information or instruction we tell or we expect them to understand.

Different from the situation above, when I ask you to look at something that I am pointing at, without saying any-

thing, you will see to the same location although we have not met yet each other. In this case, we are able to conclude that human can easily make interaction with one another, even non-verbally.

In Arabic, there are two terms to distinguish between human and the other creatures namely *'Aaqil* and *Ghairu 'Aaqil*. The first term refers simply to the human who has mind, the ability to think, and the second term is for the other creatures, including animals. In Arabic grammar, we use pronoun (*dhamir*) "*Kum/Kunna"* (*Ghaib*/*Ghaibah*) and "*Hum*/*Hunna*" (*Mukhathab*/*Mukhathabah*) to indicate plural for 'Aaqil. On the other hand, we only use "*Haa*", the same *dhamir* for *mufrad-mu'annats* (Singular/Woman) to indicate plural for *Ghairu 'Aaqil*. These differences show us that Arabic makes a clear distinction to distinguish between human ('Aaqil) and non-human (Ghairu 'Aaqil), not +animate and -animate.

Let us back to our main discussion, as previously explained that Allah taught Adam names of things, then, these names became the first language. Furthermore, his wife, Eve, and his children imitated and used it as a language to communicate. Only then, they spread abroad to the entire world so that popping out the new language as the language variation of the first language. To explain the origins of different humans' conventional language in the entire world, we require cultural-historical approach. From this approach, we are able to assume that the language users are arrived at the same conventional system in terms of language in use, grammatical aspects, social norms, and so forth.

3. The Properties of Language

Human is not only the creature which was capable of communicating. Other species, indeed, are able to communicate too, sometimes in ways that seem almost human: dogs exhibit submission by lowering their heads and tails; bees, in contrast, dance.But is this language? Following are several properties of language differentiating between human and animal language taken from Yule's (2012) *The Study of Language* (pp. 11-15):

a. Displacement

This property of language allows language users to talk about things and events that are not present in the immediate environment. For example, suppose that your cat is calling *meow* when it is hungry. We are likely seemed to understand that this message as relating to the immediate time and place. If you ask your cat about what it is going to do after you give some feed, you may get the same response *meow*. It seems that animal communication is specific for their users only.

Different from signaling system used by non-human creatures, human language users can perfectly producing message which is able to indicate past or future time, to other locations that we have never visited before, and even capability of predicting future world. This property of language is mentioned to be *displacement*. This allows human to make communication in different time, different situation, and different places. In sum, human language users have

the ability to speak about things other than the here and now (Trask, 1999:53).

b. Arbitrariness

Language is arbitrary vocal or verbal symbols by which community use for a communication. There is basically no natural connection between a linguistic form and its meaning. Let us consider the word "*Dog*" in English, and as "Asu" in Javanese. From its shape, its linguistic form has no natural relationship to the meaning that it expresses: the four legs barking animal in the world. The connection is purely a matter of agreement, and the word can be successfully used only so long as English speakers agree to use it in this particular way (Trask, 1999:9).

Speakers of other languages, of course, have reached different agreements, but no word is intrinsically better suited to naming this particular animal than any other, though each is perfectly adequate as long as speakers agree about it. Yule (2012) mentioned that several words that seemed to "echo" the sounds of nature or *onomatopoeic* words like *cuckoo, crash,* and *whirr* are rare in human communication.

This arbitrariness is infinite in human language. Different from human language, animals can only use the set of finite signals used in communication. That is, each variety of animal communication consists of a fixed and limited set of vocal or gestural forms. Many of these forms are only used in specific situations (e.g. establishing territory) and at particular times (e.g. during the mating season).

c. Productivity

It is realized or not that language users can create sentences never before known and it is undoubtedly understandable to the hearers. Humans are continually creating new expressions and novel utterances by manipulating their linguistic resources to describe new objects and situations whenever they need. In other words, human has the ability to say new things, without limit (Trask, 1999:143). It is the fact that shows that human communication is unique.

Let us consider a few examples. Your friend, Anna, bought a new red T-shirt. Then, she said, *"What do you think about my new T-Shirt?"* You may reply "*Wow, you look so beautiful*", "great, it fits on you" or even "*It doesn't go with your jeans*". We are perfectly free to choose what we are going to say in every context of situation.We have not the slightest difficulty in producing and comprehending totally new utterances that we have never used or heard before, and indeed we do this almost every moment: most of the utterances you produce and hear every day have very likely never before been produced by anybody (Trask, 1999:143).

In contrast, non-human creature on the planet can communicate with other members of their species in one way or another, and often by specialized vocal noises termed*calls* (Trask, 1999:10). It is typically no more than one "calls" that a non-human creature produced. Let us imagine that a monkey is probably capable of producing the sound (calls) *"There is danger in the air"* but the same monkey will

not able to produce calls"*There are two hunters shooting us"*.

From the explanation above, we arrive at the same interpretation that there is no human language has the longest sentence. In other words, every human language has essentially unlimited multiunit sentences.

d. Cultural Transmission

Language used is influenced by the community where speakers of the language live, and not by their inheritance. Suppose that an English speaking family adopted and brought up from birth an infant from China to Australia. He or she will have physical characteristics inherited from his or her parents, but inevitably he or she will speak English, not Chinese. This process whereby a language is passed on from one generation to the next is described as *cultural-transmission.*

This situation is totally different from the animals. A kitten, given comparable early experiences, will produce *meow* regardless. This happens because the animals communication is determined by its genetic make-up, not by its cultural context. Cultural transmission, in particular, is important for language acquisition processes.

e. Duality

Yule (2012) pointed out that duality is a process of organizing human language at two levels or layers. Duality means double articulation. According to Trask (1999:2), "Duality is the use of a small number of meaningless elements in combination to produce a large number of mea-

ningful elements". In addition, Richards and Schmidt (2002:172) state that it is a distinctive characteristic of language which refers to the fact that languages are organized in terms of two levels. At one level, language consists of sequences of segments or units which do not themselves carry meaning (such as the letters "g", "d" and "o"). However, when these units are combined in certain sequences, they form larger units and carry meaning (such as *god, dog*).

Similarly, we know that one English letter, such as "*c*", is meaningless. It is to be combined with other letters, such as "*a*", "*r*" and "*e*" to form the word "*care*", in order to be meaningful. Other possible combination is to form the word "*race*". By combining a very small set of meaningless speech sound in various ways, we are able to produce or form a large number of different meaningful items.

Likewise, Arabic letter, such as "ي", must be combined with other letters, "ع", "ب", and "د", in certain sequence to form the word " يَعْبُدُ " or " بَعِيْدٌ ". The first word means *worship* and the second means *far*. In the line with this, the letter "م", "ل", and "ح" are attachable to form the word " مِلْحٌ " or " لَحْمٌ" which mean *salt* and *meat* in order to be *mafhum* (meaningful).

In contrast, non-human creatures have particular signaling systems to communicate as well but these systems are simply based on one sound is to express one meaning. This sound is not able to be modified and combined. Conse-

quently, they can only express a tiny number of different meanings.Moreover, unlike human languages, with their ceaseless and rapid changes, the signals used by other species never change by any process faster than evolutionary change (Trask, 1999:10).

4. Language and Its Functions

We use language as a system of communication for numerous purposes. It is based on the development of language itself. Probably, our ancestors simply used it to name things around them first. But now, living in a present day with high technology, we can use it to get more social significances such as to write an email or electronic letter, gather information from mass-media and social media, make notes to our colleagues, order food online, and so forth.

Finch (1998:22) distinguishes the functions of language into two terms namely *microfunction* and *macrofunction*. The first term covers the particular individuals uses, whilst, the second term relates to the larger functions, more general purposes underlying language uses. These all functions to be described as follows:

1) Micro Function

a. Physiological Function

This function is to release nervous or physical energy. It seems so trivial but, in fact, a good deal of language use has a physiological purpose. We can see it from this following situation that if we hit our thumb with

hammer we need particular ways to express our anger: throwing the hammer to the window and saying the swearing words such as *fuck* or *shit*. It is the expression to give punishment to the object for hurting us.

There is no clearly natural relationship between those swearing words with the context of situation displayed. They are socially taboo. In such moment, they are simply used because we need violence vocabulary to match them of our feelings. Similarly, we used them to curse things hurting us.

b. Phatic Function

The term *phatic*comes from Greek and means "*utterance*". Realize or not, we often use language for no other reason than simply to express our general disposition to be sociable. This technical term is called *phatic-communion*. It is coined by the British-Polish anthropologist Malinowski to refer to communication between people which is not intended to seek or convey information but has the social function of establishing or maintaining social contact (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, p.395).Examples of phatic communion in English include such expressions as *How are you?* And*Nice day, isn't it?*.

In short, the phatic language is very important in creating and maintaining social links. Most of playwrights use it sparingly and to establish sense of realism.

c. Recording function

Because of the limitation of our mind to memorize the all of things we wish to remember, we need to record them all using language. Let us imagine that your mother asks you to buy many things in the market. You probably anticipate by noting such kind shopping list because you are not able to memorize them all. This function might be called as *Short-Term Record* (Finch, 1998, p.28).

Additionally, there is *Long-Term Record* as well. For this possible analogy is that when a college student makes some lecture notes to record the lecturer's explanation. It is necessary to do because he or she will not able to memorize the all of lecturer's explanation in a whole semester.

d. Identifying function

Dealing with the previous function, language not only allows us to record things we wish to remember but also to identify or classify them. It is described in a numerous sequences objects or events. Without this function, we unquestionably find difficulties to make sense of the world around us.

As explained in the previous discussion, Allah gave Adam (*AbulBasyar*, the father of mankind) the special godsend, the ability to name things. Human uses this ability to identify and classify things. Basically, it is a

special gift for human, as messenger to the earth *khalifah fil ardl*, to rule the world through the language.

For the possible analogy is that many scientists do scientific research and make numerous scientific discoveries. All of them are able to be identified and classified all. What will happen if they are not able to be identified and classified all? The possible answer is that the knowledge development will be unquestionably stuck. Everything is just like the way it is.

e. Reasoning Function

As previously explained, human has a god's gift namely mind. It makes him possible to think, learn, feel emotion, and understand things so that he is capable of encoding the process of communication naturally, including through the gestures. As the leader who rules this world, human constantly thinks about natural phenomena existing around them. In other words, all of us have the action of analyzing about everything around us which constantly runs anywhere and anytime during our waking hours.

Moreover, a large majority of our thinking is done by language. We have infinite ideas in our minds which have to be expressed or actualized through the most appropriate language transmitted in speaking or writing. It is impossible for us to command our mind to stop to think during our waking hours. In other words,

when it stops thinking, it means that we are sleeping or dead. As a result, this function is able to be said as an instrument, tool, or device of thought (Finch, 1998, p.34).

f. Communicating Function

This function is able to be said as the primary purpose of language. Communication itself is used to make social interaction to others. In this social interaction there is a process of conveying message. Human can express his/her feelings and share his/her ideas to others as well. In other words, it is a two-way process (Finch, 1998, p.37). It means that we need to be able to use language to express ourselves to others and, conversely, we need to understand what they are communicating to us as well.

Furthermore, there are of course variety reasons in terms of using language. It is used for requesting, ordering, informing, commanding, complaining, promising, apologizing, and so forth. In a two-way process, then, a principle problem is that the meaning of many utterances we conveyed will not be directly interpreted well. We frequently find the people indirectly convey their ideas. In this case, we need a particular communicative competence to be able to decode this situation.

To cope with this problem, two linguistics philosophers, J.L. Austin and J.R. Searle, developed the

theory namely *Speech Act Theory.* It is based on the notion that the social use of language is primarily concerned with the performance of certain communicative acts (Finch, 1998:37).

According to Richards and Schmidt (2002) speech act is an utterance as a functional unit in communication. In this theory, utterances have two kinds of meanings namely *Propositional Meaning* and *Illocutionary Meaning*. Propositional Meaning, also known as *Locutionary meaning,* refers to the basic literal meaning of the utterance which is conveyed by the particular words and structures which the utterance contains. The second term relates to the effect the utterance or written text has on the reader or listener. If, for example, I say to you, *I am thirsty*, I am presumably performing an informing act, but I probably ask you for something to drink. This sentence has both prepositional meaning and illocutionary meaning (p.298).

Furthermore, when I say to you *I am thirsty*, it unremarkably has the effect to you that you will bring me a glass of water, or conversely, it has no effect at all. For instance, Austin (1962) in Meyer (2009, p.50) developed the other term namely *Perlocutionary Force*, or also known as *Perlocutionary Act*. This term refers to the effect of the utterance on individuals to whom they are directed (Meyer, 2009, p.50). The other explanation about it comes from Richards and Schmidt (2002, p.315) as

well stating that aperlocutionary act is the results or effects that are produced by means of saying something.

In addition, Searle (1979) in Meyer (2009, p.50) classified speech act into five parts presented as follows:

1. Assertive/Representative

   It is speech act describing an assertion, a claim, or a report. In other words, it reports statement of facts verifiable as true or false. For example:

   a) *Labako* dance is a pop art originated from Jember, Indonesia.

   b) People all grow up to die.

   c) The warriors are willing to give their life for honor.

2. Directives

   It refers to a speech act that has the function to get the listener to do something, such as a suggestion, a request, or a command. For example:

   a) Why don't you ask a question to the kids who feel the dark as their lights about their war?
   b) Where do you expect us to go when the grenades explode?
   c) Please open your heart!

3. Commissive

   It is a speech act that commits the speaker to doing something in the future, such as a promise or a threat. For example:

   a) I will write your last will and testament tomorrow. (Promise)
   b) We don't speak anymore of war. (Promise)
   c) If you don't stop stealing this album, I will call the police. (Threat)
   d) If you don't stop complaining, she will take your life. (Threat)

4. Declarations

   It refers to the utterances changing the state of affairs in the world. For example: *I hereby sentence this corruptor to twenty years in jail*.

5. Expressive

   It refers to the utterances which the speaker expresses feelings and attitudes about something, such as an apology, a complaint, or to thank someone, to congratulate someone. For example:

   a) I do apologize if I say something wrong.
   b) This food is too salty. Can I get another one?

c) Very thanks to you Jim for taking me home.

d) Congratulations on your engagement!

As a result, as a means of communication to express feelings and ideas, language plays important role because the existence of human race depends on it (Finch, 1998, p.39).

g. Pleasure Function

There are so many kinds of delight which we can get from language. There is, for example, the pleasure that we can gain from the arrangement by inversion or ellipsis of normal phrase or clause order and from the conversion of words from one class to another at the syntactic levels, the level of word order and word class (Finch, 1998, p.40). We can see this ellipsis of normal phrase or clause order from the newspaper headline, headline of cigarette advertisement, copy, slogan, and so forth.

Let us consider the following headline: *Yogyakarta Students Given Quake Alert Learning* (The Jakarta Post, June 1, 2010). This headline basically states negative information in positive form. It is fairly obvious that this headline presents in passive form. It is basically consists of subject, an auxiliary, a main verb, and an object. The usage of "be" in passive voice is avoided in order to slow down fluidity and take up too much space with very little substance.

At the semantics level, the level of meaning, most creative uses of language provides considerable pleasure through the generation of puns, paradoxes, ambiguities, and metaphor (Finch, 1998, p.40). In sum, language is able to provide a pleasing novelty through the manipulation of sound, syntax, and semantics field. In other words, this pleasing novelty comes from the successful exploitation of linguistics novelty at the different levels of language (Finch, 1998, p.41).

2) Macro Function

a. The Ideational Function

With the numerous of the micro function explained above, there is a process of mental attunement in terms of conceptualizing things around us. When we use language to identify things, or as an instrument of thought, or provide a record, we use language as a symbolic code to represent the world around us. These concepts are for our own benefit. In short, in serving this function, language also gives structure to experience, and helps to determine our way of looking at things, so that it requires some intellectual effort to see them in any other way than that which our language suggests to us (Halliday, 2002, p.175).

b. Interpersonal Function

Using language as a means of communication, for purposes phatic communion, or to release physical

energy, involves activities in which we are prioritizing the interpersonal function of language (Finch, 1998, p.43). It means that several micro functions of language above concern with the relationship between ourselves and other people or things. In addition, language is able to be said as a personal medium to interact to others. In sum, language serves to establish and maintain social relations (Halliday, 2002, p.175).

c. The Poetic Function

In addition to those macro functions, conceptualizing and interacting, we are able to play with the language itself. It does not mean that it is ability to write poem but it is the ability to bring the world into being as an area to play (Finch, 1998, p.43). Through the metaphor, jokes, and ambiguities, we are able to express our own creative freedom.

d. Textual Function

Finally, the last function of language is textual function. It relates to the ability to construct texts of our utterances and writing. We construct phrases or sentences in a connected sequence systematically. Thus, we use language to bring texts into being (Finch, 1998, p.44). In other words, language has to provide for making links with itself and with features of situation in which it is used: in constructing texts or connecting several passages that is situationally relevant. One aspect of the

textual function is the establishment of cohesive relations from one sentence to another in a discourse (Halliday, 2002, p.175).

B. The Definition of Linguistics

Literature showed that area of linguistics and linguistic study are growing. Definitions about linguistics taken from various sources confirm this fact, as following:

- Hornby (1986, p.495) in his dictionary, *Oxford Advance Learner's Dictionary of Current English*, defines that linguistics is the scientific study of languages, it centered on the language, e.g., study of its structure, acquisition, relationship to other forms of communication.
- Akmajian et.al. (2001, p.5) state that linguistics [is] the scientific study of human natural language.
- Bussmann (1996, p.627) points out that linguistics is scientific discipline with the goal of describing language and speech in all relevant theoretical and practical aspects and their relation to adjoining disciplines.
- Richards and Schmidt (2002, p.312) define that linguistics is the study of language as a system of human communication.
- According to Peters, in his book entitled "*The Cambridge Guide to English Usage"*defines, "Linguistics is the systematic study of language" (2004,p.325).

- Todd (1987), in his book entitled "*An Introduction to Linguistics*" states, "Language is usually defined as the scientific study of language" (p.5).

The above definitions show that most of linguists believe that linguistics is as "*scientific study*". See for example, Todd (1987), who stated that "When we say that a linguist aims to be scientific, we mean that he attempts to study language in much the same way as a scientist studying physics or chemistry, that is systematically, and as far as possible without prejudice" (p.50). This is to show that when someone is studying about language as a scientific study, he/she has to make particular observation first, forming hypotheses about it, testing the hypotheses and then refining them on the basis of the evidence collected.

As a result, like biological sciences, linguistics covers observations and classifications about occurring language phenomena. The phenomena to be observed and classified includes what its elements are, how they are combined to form larger units, and how they are able to express our ideas or conveying messages.

In sum, for the beginning linguist, saying that linguistics is a science can be interpreted as implying careful observation of the relevant real-world phenomena, classification of those phenomena, and the search for useful patterns in the phenomena observed and classified. For the more advanced linguist, saying that linguistics is a science is a matter of seeking explanations for the phenomena of language and building

theories which will help explain why observed phenomena occur while phenomena which are not observed should not occur (Bauer, 2007, p.17).

As previously explained, studying about language scientifically have numerous purposes as mentioned by M.A.K Halliday in his book entitled *"An Introduction to Functional Grammar"* (1994) described as follows:

1. To understand the nature and functions of language;
2. To understand what all language have in common (i.e. what are the properties of language as such), and what many differ from one language to another;
3. To understand how languages evolve through time;
4. To understand how child develops language, and how language may have evolved in the human species;
5. To understand the quality of the text: why a text means what it does, and why it is valued as it is;
6. To understand how language varies, according to the user, and according to the functions for which it is being used;
7. To understand literary and poetic text, and the nature of the verbal art;
8. To understand the relation between the language and culture, and language and the situation;
9. To understand many aspects of the role of language in the community and the individual: multilingualism, socialization, ideology, propaganda, etc.;
10. To help people to learn their mother tongue: reading and writing, language in school subjects, etc.;
11. To help people learn foreign languages;

12. To help train translators and interpreters;
13. To write reference word (dictionaries, grammars, etc.) for any language;
14. To understand the relationship between language and the brain;
15. To help in the diagnosis and treatment of language of language pathologies arising from brain insults (tumors, accidents) or from congenital disorder such as autism and down's syndrome;
16. To understand the language of the deaf (sign);
17. To design appliances that will aid the hard of hearing;
18. To design computer software that will produce and understand texts, and translate between languages;
19. To design systems for producing and understanding speech, and converting between written and spoken text;
20. To assist in legal adjudications by matching samples of sound or wording;
21. To design more economical and efficient means for the transmission of spoken and written text;
22. And so on (p.xix)

Questions to Discuss:

(1) What is the definition of language? How do you differentiate language from linguistics?

(2) Onomatopoeic words such as *cuckoo, splash, rattle* are believed to be taken from the sound of nature and thus it is called naturalistic approach. Compare this thought with the principle of arbitrariness of language!

(3) What is the *cultural transmission* in the property of language? Give proper example to clarify your answer!

(4) When discussing the property of language, productivity is one of the important points, where people show ability to produce hundreds of answers to respond a question,

for example, Dina has bought new red dress and wore it and showed to her friends while asking "what do you think about my new dress?" Please note several responses that may appear!

(5) What is locutionary, illocutionary, and perlocutionary acts happened in a conversation.

Chapter II
LINGUISTICS AND ITS STUDY

A. General Linguistics

Linguists have added that *general linguistics* concerns with the language as a part of [human] behavior and human's ability which is observed and in term of universality (Alwasilah, 1987). In other word it is looking for generalizations applied ideally to the language all over the world. Moreover, he states that general linguistics is divided into three main parts. They are:

1. Diachronic Linguistics
2. Comparative Linguistics
3. Descriptive Linguistics

B. Diachronic Linguistics

Diachronic Linguistics is a branch of linguistics studying about the development of particular language. "It additionally can be studied looking at the way the patterns change and develop over time" (Bauer, 2007:13).

In addition, Richards and Schmidt (2002:154) state that Diachronic Linguistics is an approach to linguistics which studies how languages change over time, for example the change in the sound systems of the Romance languages from their roots in Latin (and other languages) to modern times or the study of changes between Early English to Modern British English.

Diachronic Linguistics is systematic description and elucidation of all linguistic changes through time (internal historical linguistics) with regard to external facts such as political history, cultural influences, social change, territorial changes, language contact (external historical linguistics) among others (Busmann, 1996:304).

Furthermore, Ferdinand de Saussure, The Swiss Linguist, in Meyer (2009:20) made the distinction between *Synchronic* and *Diachronic* in the studies of language. The first term refers to the study of language involving investigation of a language in its present form as it is currently spoken and written. It is focused on contemporary English, the current version of English spoken around the world. The second term conversely examines the historical development of a language, taking into consideration changes it has undergone over time: Old English, Middle English, Early Modern English, Modern English, and Contemporary English.

This distinction is unremarkably very useful for us but it is

somewhat misleading. The essence of language itself is basically dynamic, not static. It means that language is always changing. In other words, it is quite possible that the Contemporary English is going to be different in the next ten years, or even next year.

C. Comparative Linguistics

Richards and Schmidt (2002:93) state that Comparative Linguistics is a branch of linguistics which studies two or more languages in order to compare their structures and to show whether they are similar or different. Comparative linguistics is used in the study of language types. In addition, it is also used by some applied linguists for establishing differences between the learner's native language and the target language in the areas of syntax, vocabulary, and sound systems.

D. Descriptive Linguistics

Bauer (2007:13-14) defines that Descriptive Linguistics is the study of linguistics with the aim of giving a description of the system of a particular language or set of languages.

According to Alwasilah (1987:87) "Descriptive Linguistics provides a description and analysis to the language including the language in use by the language users in a particular time". In addition, Gleason in Alwasilah (1987:88) divides this study into two parts. They are:

a. Phonology (studying about phonemes)
b. Grammar (studying about morpheme and its combinations)

Bauer (2007: 12) provides explanation that study of the elements of language and their function is usually split up into a

number of different subfields presented as follows:

1. Phonetics deals with the sounds of spoken language: how they are made, how they are classified, how they are combined with each other and how they interact with each other when they are combined, how they are perceived. It is sometimes suggested that phonetics is not really a part of linguistics proper, but a sub-part of physics, physiology, psychology or engineering (as in attempts to mimic human speech using computers). Accordingly, the label linguistic phonetics is sometimes used to specify that part of phonetics which is directly relevant for the study of human language.
2. Phonology also deals with speech sounds, but at a rather more abstract level. While phonetics deals with individual speech sounds, phonology deals with the systems which incorporate the sounds. It also considers the structures the sounds can enter into (for example, syllables and intonational phrases), and the generalizations that can be made about sound structures in individual languages or across languages.
3. Morphology deals with the internal structure of words – not with their structure in terms of the sounds that make them up, but their structure where form and meaning seem inextricably entwined. So the word *cover* is morphologically simple, and its only structure is phonological, while *lover* contains the smaller

element *love* and some extra meaning which is related to the final <r> in the spelling. Another way of talking about this is to say that morphology deals with words and their meaningful parts.

4. Syntax is currently often seen as the core of any language, although such a prioritizing of syntax is relatively new. Syntax is concerned with the ways in which words can be organized into sentences and the ways in which sentences are understood. Why do apparently parallel sentences such as *Pat is easy to please* and *Pat is eager to please* have such different interpretations (think about who gets pleased in each case)?
5. Semantics deals with the meaning of language. This is divided into two parts, lexical semantics which is concerned with the relationships between words, and sentence semantics which is concerned with the way in which the meanings of sentences can be built up from the meanings of their constituent words. Sentence semantics often makes use of the tools and notions developed by philosophers; for example, logical notation and notions of implication and denotation.
6. Pragmatics deals with the way the meaning of an utterance may be influenced by its speakers or hearers interpret it in context. For example, if someone asked you *Could you close the window? Y*ou would be thought to be uncooperative if you simply ans-

wered *Yes*. Yet if someone asked *When you first went to France, could you speak French?Yes*would be considered a perfectly helpful response, but doing something like talking back to them in French would not be considered useful. Pragmatics also deals with matters such as what the difference is between a set of isolated sentences and a text, how a word like *this* is interpreted in context, and how a conversation is managed so that the participants feel comfortable with the interaction.

7. Lexicology deals with the established words of a language and the fixed expressions whose meanings cannot be derived from their components: idioms, clichés, proverbs, etc. Lexicology is sometimes dealt with as part of semantics, since in both cases word-like objects are studied.

In short, Richards and Schmidt (2002: 312) provide explanation about these subfields as well presented as follows:

> Linguistics includes many different approaches to the study of language and many different areas of investigation, for example sound systems (Phonetics, Phonology), sentence structure (Syntax), relationships between language and cognition (Cognitive Linguistics), meaning systems (Semantics, Pragmatics, Functions of Language), as well as language and social factors (sociolinguistics).

Chapter III
THE SOUND OF LANGUAGE

A. Phonetics

Human beings are unquestionably capable of producing a great variety of sound. In producing infinite sounds, they unmistakably involve speech organs they have. When we are breathing, there is lots of muscles contraction in the chest, then, producing airflow from lungs passing through the larynx and spreading out to the atmosphere. The airflow is extremely needed in producing sounds involving a part of the mouth, nose, or throat which is used in producing speech, e.g. the tongue, lips, alveolar ridge, etc. called as *articulators*(Richards and Schmidt, 2002:33). In the line with this, Ogden (2009:12) states that articulators are the

parts of the oral tract that are used in producing speech sounds.

The general study of the characteristics of speech sounds is called *phonetics*(Yule, 2006:30). In addition, Todd (1987:7) defines that phonetics is the study of the production, transmission and reception of speech sound. The objective of linguistic phonetics is to describe the phonetic correlates of phonological units of spoken language and their interactions and to give a comprehensive account of speech patterns and their pronunciations in all languages and dialects of the world (Arnoff and Rees-Miller, 2001, [2003]:151).

Yule (2006:30) divides phonetics into three branches presented as follows:

a. *Articulatory Phonetics*, which is the study of how speech sounds are made, or 'articulated'.
b. *Acousticphonetics*, which deals with the physical properties of speech as sound waves in the air. It deals with the transmissions of the speech sound through the air (Richards and Schmidt, 2002:398). Various ways are used to measure the characteristics of these sound waves as we can find in *Spectrograms, Sound Spectra*, and *Waveforms*.
c. *Auditory phonetics* (or perceptual phonetics) which deals with the perception, via the ear, of speech sounds. In other words, it deals with how the speech sounds are perceived by the listener (Richards and Schmidt, 2002:398).

B. Voiced and Voiceless Sound

In the previous discussion, we all know that articulatory phonetics is the study how vocal tract produces the sound of lan-

guage. Producing every single sound involves the air movements. Yule (2006:30) takes two basic positions to differentiate the terms voiced and voiceless explained as follows:

1. When the vocal cords are drawn together, the air from the lungs repeatedly pushes them apart as it passes through, creating a vibration effect. Sounds produced in this way are described as *voiced*. In short, voicing is caused by vibration of the vocal folds in the larynx (Arnoff and Rees-Miller, 2001, [2003]:157).
2. When the vocal cords are spread apart, the air from the lungs passes between them unimpeded. Sounds produced in this way are described as *voiceless*.

Let's consider these following conditions:

1. Put your fingertip on the "Adam's Apple" and produce sounds such as Z-Z-Z-Z or V-V-V-V. You should be able feel some vibration because they are voiced sounds. It also occurs when we are producing sounds *b, d*, and *g* because they have the same characteristic with Z and V, voiced sound.
2. Keeping your fingertip in the same position, now make the sounds S-S-S-S or F-F-F-F. You should not be able feel some vibration because they are voiceless sounds. It is for the sounds *p*, *t*, and *k* as well.

C. Place of Articulation

As I mentioned on the chapter 1, human has a God's gift that is special ability to encode the process of communication in our daily life naturally, including through the gestures. All normal children learn and develop their language on their community.

Before they are able to write, they are able to produce speech first. In other words, speech can be said as the primary medium (Trask, 1999: 11). Writing is unquestionably called as medium of language as well. The language ability of human is able to be said as an abstract thing that requires a process of actualization of their ability through the medium, writing and speech. To provide more clearly explanation about the relationship between language and its mediums, Todd (1987:8) sums up this relationship shown in the following Figure:

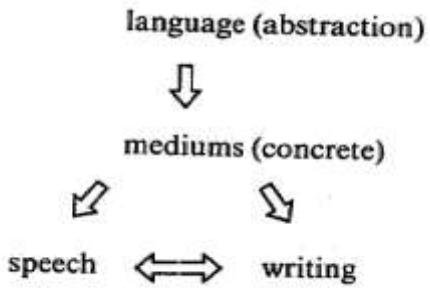


FIG. 3.3.1: The relationship between language and its mediums
Source: Reprinted from Loretto Todd (1987), *An Introduction to Linguistics,* England: Longman York Press, p. 8

From this diagram above, we know that it indicates although speech and writing are in theory distinct, they can influence each other. The simple example is that pronunciation is often affected by spelling. The word "often" is now frequently pronounced with a "t" because of the influence of written medium.

In producing speech as the primary medium, human has a unique organ which is quite different from other mammals namely *Vocal Tract*. It is the passageway through which air flows as we speak (Trask, 1999:11). He adds that there are several significant differences. For one thing, the human vocal tract is much larger and differently shaped: it extends well down behind the back of the tongue. Further, there is a big difference in the connection between the trachea, or windpipe, which leads through a complex structure called the larynxto the lungs, and the oesophagus, or gullet, which leads to the stomach. The human vocal tract is going to be briefly illustrated in the following figure:

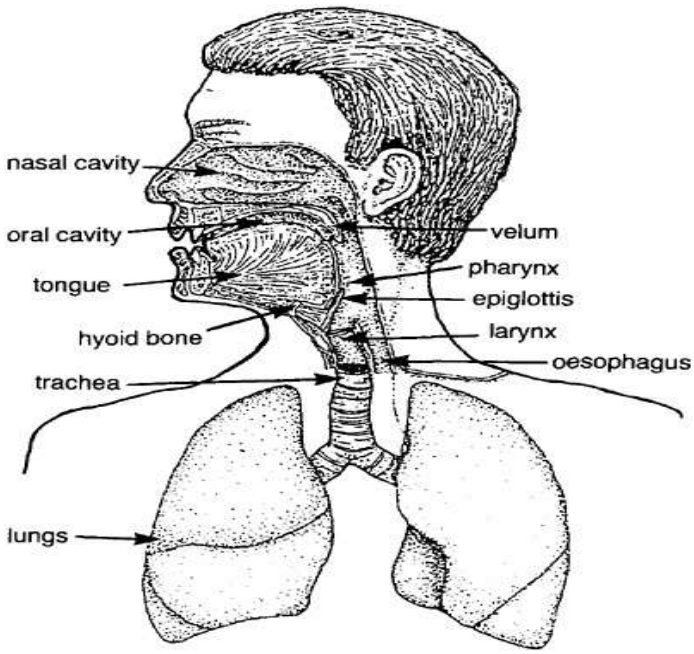


FIG. 3.3.2: The human vocal tract

Source: Reprinted from Trask (1999), *Language: The Basics, Second Edition,* NY: Routledge Taylor and Francis Group, p. 12

Different from human, in the chimp, as in most mammals, a large cartilage called the epiglottis serves as a kind of valve between the two. When the epiglottis is raised (as shown), the trachea is connected to the nose and the mouth is sealed off. When the epiglottis is lowered, the mouth is connected to the oesophagus, and the trachea is sealed off. This useful arrangement makes it virtually impossible for a chimp to choke on its food (Trask, 1999:11-12).

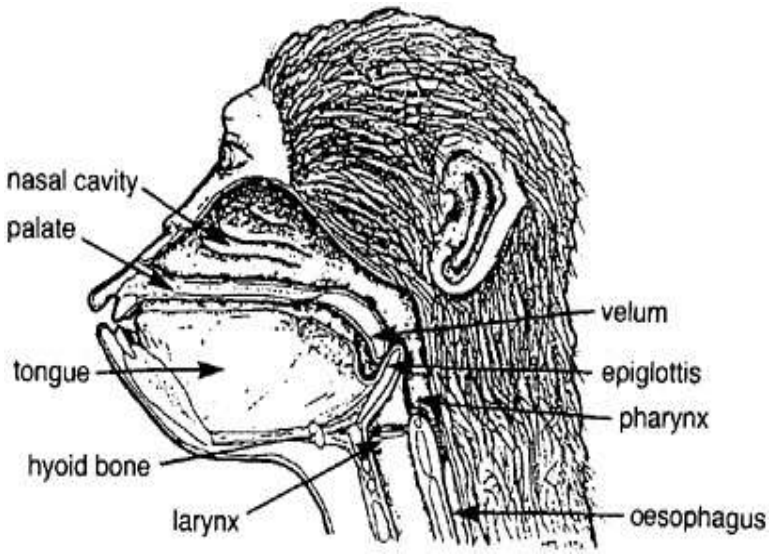


FIG. 3.3.3: The vocal tract of chimpanzee

Source: Reprinted from Trask (1999), *Language: The Basics, Second Edition,* NY: Routledge Taylor and Francis Group, p. 13

According to Fromkin, et.al (2003:242) "Place of articulation is where in the vocal tract the airflow restriction occurs. Movement of the tongue and lips, also known as *articulators*, cause the restriction, reshaping the oral cavity in various ways to produce the various consonants". In short, we can conclude that place of

articulation can be illustrated as the place where in the mouth the sounds are produced. Further, we have to discuss about the eight commonest places of articulations, as explained by Todd (1987:17), presented as follows:

Bilabial: Where the lips come together as in the sounds /p/, /b/ and /m/.

Labiodental: Where the lower lip and the upper teeth come together, as for the sounds /f/ and /v/.

Dental: Where the tip or the blade of the tongue comes in contact with the upper teeth as in the pronunciation of the initial sounds in "thief" and "then", represented by the symbols /θ/ and /ð/.

Alveolar: Where the tip or the blade of the tongue touches the alveolar ridge which is directly behind the upper teeth. In English, the sounds made in the alveolar region predominate in the language. By this we mean that the most frequently occurring consonants /t, d, s, z, n, l, r/ are all made by approximating the tongue to alveolar ridge.

Palato-Alveolar: As the name suggest, there are two points of contact for these sounds. The tip of the tongue is close to the alveolar ridge while the front of the tongue is concave to the roof of the mouth. In English, there are four palato-alveolar sounds, the affricates /tʃ/ and /dʒ/ and the fricatives /ʃ/ and /ʒ/, the sound that occur respectively, at the begin-

ning of the word "shut" and in the middle of the word "measure".

Palatal: For palatal sound, the front of tongue approximates to the hard palate. It is possible to have palatal plosives, fricatives, laterals and nasals, but in English the only palatal is the voiced semi vowel /j/ as in"you".

Velar: For velars, the back of tongue approximates to the soft palate. As with other points of contact, several types of sound can be made here. In English there are four consonants made in the velar region, the plosives /k,g/, the nasal /ŋ/ and the voiced semi vowel /w/ as in "woo".

In addition, uvular, pharyngeal and glottal sounds occur frequently in world languages. They are not, however, significant in English and so will not be described in detail.

Furthermore, according to Yule (2006:33) "there is one sound that is produced without the active use of the tongue and other parts of the mouth. It is the sound [h] which occurs at the beginning of *have* and *house* and, for most speakers, as the first sound in *who* and *whose*. This sound is usually described as a voiceless *glottal*." Accordingly, the 'glottis' is the space between the vocal cords in the larynx. When the glottis is open, as in the production of other voiceless sounds, and there is no manipulation of the air passing out of the mouth, the sound produced is that represented by [h].

D. Manner of Articulation

Following are definitions about manner of articulation taken from several sources presented as follows:

1. Akmajian, et.al (2001:73) defines that manner of articulation refers for the most part to how the articulators achieve contact with proximity to the places of articulation.
2. Speech sounds also vary in the way airstream is affected as it flows from the lungs up and out of the mouth and nose. It may be blocked or partially blocked; the vocal cords may vibrate or not vibrate. That is what we call as manner of articulation (Fromkin, et.al, 2003:244).
3. Bussmann (1996:721) state that manner of articulation is the way in which the airstream is modified during the articulationof a consonant**:** either (oral or nasal) stop**,** fricative(both medianandlateral), affricate**,** approximant(both median and lateral), flap**,** or trill.
4. Manner of articulation is the way in which a speech sound is produced by the speech organs (Richards and Schmidt, 2002:319).
5. Arnoff and Rees-Miller (2001, [2003]:181) state "The manner of articulation indicates the degree of constriction: complete closure (stops), noticeable obstruction (fricatives) or a combination of closure and obstruction (affricates), closure in the mouth with air escaping through the nose (nasals), or only slight approximation (liquids and glides)".

From the several definitions above, we can conclude that manner of articulation concerns with how the airstream flows in

the mouth during the articulations. In this instance, Yule (2006:35) classifies sounds in terms of the ways they are pronounced into several types describes as follows:

1. *Stops*: Producing sounds by some form of "stopping" the airstream very briefly and letting it go abruptly. In other words, the airstream is stopped and released suddenly. The set [p], [b], [t], [d], [k], [g] are all produced in this manner of articulation.
2. *Fricatives*: Blocking the airstream and having the air push through the very narrow opening. As the air is pushed through, a type of friction is produced. In other words, this manner of articulation involves two organs coming close together so that the airstream is allowed to escape with friction (Richards and Schmidt, 2002:319). This includes several sounds: *f*alse [f], *v*ein [v], *th*eory [θ], *th*erefore [ð], *s*in [s], *z*one [z], *sh*ock [ʃ], and *treas*ure [ʒ].
3. *Affricative*: Combining a brief stopping of the airstream with an obstructed release which causes some friction, you will be able to produce the sounds [tʃ] and [dʒ] as in *ch*ur*ch* and *j*u*dg*e.
4. *Nasals*: The velum is raised, preventing airflow from entering the nasal cavity. However, when the velum is lowered and the airstream is allowed to flow out through the nose to produce [m], [n], and [ŋ]. It refers to sounds produced while the soft palate is lowered to allow an audible escape of air through the nose (Crystal, 2008:320).
5. *Liquids*: This manner of articulation includes the sound [l] and [r]. For the first sound [l] as in "*led*" is called a lateral liquids

formed by letting the airstream flow around the sides of the tongue as the tip of the tongue makes contact with the middle of the alveolar ridge. For the first sound [r] as in "*red*" is formed with the tongue tip raised and curled back near the alveolar ridge.

6. *Glides*: These sounds are typically produced with the tongue in motion (or 'gliding') to or from the position of a vowel and are sometimes called semi-vowels or approximants. It includes the sound [w] as in "*we*" and [j] as in "*yet*".

E. Phonetics Transcription

As previously explained, writing is unquestionably called as medium of language. The language ability of human is able to be said as an abstract thing that requires a process of actualization of their ability through the medium. Within English, there are so many sounds represented by one spelling. By contrast, there are many spellings representing to one sound. The letter <*a*> has numerous pronunciations as in *bark, back, sofa*, and so on. Similarly, the combination letters <*ch*> has various pronunciations as in *champion*, *chaos*, and so forth. The letter <*o*> and <*u*> represent the same sound as in *monk, honey, company, must, much,* and *cut*.

In addition, some combination letters may represent single sound as in *nation, physics, shoot, father,* and etcetera. Indeed, some letters have no sound at all as in *write, listen, whole, psychology, design*, *knife, answer*, and so on. The emergence of phonetic transcription itself is principally built to tackle these problems by representing speech sounds systematically agreed.

Phonetic transcription is defined as the use of alphabetic symbols to represent the sounds of speech (Ogden, 2009:20). In this instance, speech is represented by a set of alphabetic writing symbols. It means that one symbol for each sound. It is found in dictionary entries to represent the pronunciation of words including the inconsistent pronunciation of words as in *enough*, *high*, and so on.

Furthermore, the commonest tool for phonetic transcription is the alphabet of the International Phonetic Association (Ogden, 2009:21). There is a little bit confusing because both of International Phonetic Alphabet and International Phonetic Association are known as IPA. Moreover, International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) is basically used for several purposes such as: showing pronunciation in a dictionary, record a language in linguistic fieldwork, and forming the basis of writing system for a language.

1. Transcription of English Vowels and Consonants

Sounds are conventionally divided into two main types namely Vowels (V) and Consonants (C). Vowel is a speech sound produced without significant constriction of the air flowing through the mouth (Richards and Schmidt, 2002:584). It means that when we are producing such sound, there is no obstruction to the airflow. It is typically voiced. When I ask you to open your mouth and produce the sound "aahhh", it is the best or simplest way to describe the unobstructed airflow. On the other hand, when you are producing the sound "s" or "f", it is clearly difficult to the air to pass the mouth. In other words, there is an obstruction to the airflow. The sounds like "s" and "f" are unquestionably called con-

sonants.

Roach (1991:22) states that English has a large number of vowel sound; the first ones to be examined are short vowels. The symbols for these vowels are: I, e, æ, ʌ, ɒ, and ʊ. Further, these short vowels to be clearly illustrated with English words.

Symbols	English words
I	l<u>i</u>ck, s<u>i</u>t, b<u>i</u>n, sh<u>i</u>p,
e	pen, ten, bell
æ	trap, bad, black, hat, hang
ʌ	cup, hug, suck, blood, flood
ɒ	clock, box, top, sock
ʊ	book, cook, good, look, push

In addition, there is one short vowel namely schwa (ə)**.** We used the sound ə in words and syllables that are not important. In other words, it is always associated with weak syllables. It is generally described as lax, that is, not articulated with much energy (Roach, 1991:76). Let us consider some examples in English words: <u>a</u>bout /ə'baʊt/, standard /'stændəd/, status /'steItəs/, forget /fə'get/, and so forth. In this instance, Roach (1991:76) provides several guides to the correct pronunciation of weak syllable in English spelling shown as follows:

a. Spelt with "a" as in words <u>a</u>ttend /ə'tend/, barr<u>a</u>cks /bærəks/, and char<u>a</u>cter /kærəktə/.
b. Spelt with "ar" (e.g. p<u>ar</u>ticular /pə'tIkjələ/, mon<u>ar</u>chy /mɒnəkI/, and mol<u>ar</u> /məʊlə/.
c. Adjectival endings spelt "ate" as in accur<u>ate</u> /'ækjərət/ and

priv<u>ate</u> /'praIvət/.

d. Spelt with "o" (e.g. tom<u>o</u>rrow /tə'mɒrəʊ/, carr<u>o</u>t /'kærət/, and potat<u>o</u> /pəteItəʊ/)
e. Spelt with "or" (e.g. f<u>or</u>get /fə'get/ and ambassad<u>or</u> /æm'bæsədə/).
f. Spelt with "e" as in postm<u>e</u>n /'pəʊstmən/ and viol<u>e</u>t /vaIələt/.
g. Spelt with "er" as in p<u>er</u>haps /pə'hæps/ and strong<u>er</u> /strɒŋgə/.
h. Spelt with "u" as in aut<u>u</u>mn /ɔ:təm/ and s<u>u</u>pport /səpɔ:t/.
i. Spelt with "ough" (there are, of course, many other pronunciations for the letter-sequence ough) as in thoro<u>ugh</u> /'θʌrə/ and boro<u>ugh</u> /'bʌrə/.
j. Spelt with "ous" as in graci<u>ous</u> /'greIʃəs/ and call<u>ous</u> /'kæləs/.

The other type of English vowel is long vowel. This type tends to pronounce longer than short vowels. There are five long vowels transcribed in the following symbols: i:,ɜ:, a:, ɔ:, and u:. The symbols of long vowels consist of one vowel symbol plus two dots indicating length mark. We will now discuss them all individually illustrated with English words as well.

Symbols	English words
i:	sheep, tea, machine, sea
ɜ:	girl, word, worm, pearl
a:	heart, start, cart, garden
ɔ:	war, ball, sport, fork
u:	Boot, pool, soup, blue, group

In addition, there are terms 34 in the phonetic classification of vowel sounds on the basis of their manner of articulation namely *monophthong, diphthong,* and*triphthong*. Crystal (2008:311) defines that monophthong refers to a vowel (pure vowel) where there is no detectable change in quality during the syllable, whereas, diphthong and triphthong refer to vowels which there are two noticeable changes in quality during the syllable. Quality here concerns with the quantity and length including the characteristic resonance, or timbre, of a sound (2008:398).

As previously explained, diphthong are basically like long vowels illustrated above. The most important thing that we have to remember is that the first part is much longer than the second part (Roach, 1991:20). Furthermore, there are eight diphthongs. The easiest way to remember them is that they are divided into three groups. First, there are three diphthongs gliding toward the schwa (ə). They are:

Iə	*near, here, beer*
eə	*chair, square, fair*
ʊə	*tour, pour, cure*

Secondly, there are three diphthongs gliding toward (I) described as follows:

eI	*face, day, pain*
aI	*knife, fine, price*
ɔI	*voice, choice, boy*

Lastly, the remaining two glide toward (ʊ) illustrated as follows:

əʊ	show, no, phone
aʊ	*house, mouth, now*

Triphthong is basically defined as a glide from one vowel to another and to the third, all produced rapidly without interruption (Roach, 1991:23). It is not easily able to be recognized. It is difficult to pronounce as well, especially for us as foreign learner, except in very careful pronunciation. To help identify this vowel classification, he provides some example words below:

eɪə	*layer, player*
aɪə	*lier, fire*
ɔɪə	*loyal, royal*
əʊə	*lower*
aʊə	*power, hour*

We now arrive at the second type of sound namely consonant. Following is the transcription of English consonants containing a set of symbols used that clearly represent them at the systematic level.

English Consonants

Symbols	***English Words***	***Symbols***	***English Words***
P	pen, airport, group	S	sun, price, star
B	baby, job, terribly	Z	zoo, music, rose
T	top, restaurant,	ʃ	shoe, ash, push
D	door, ride, card	ʒ	television, treasure, usual
K	key, school, car	H	hat, hear, hand
G	girl, glass, bag	M	more, sum, time
tʃ	cherry, cheap, watch, lunch	N	nose, knee, cone

dʒ	jam, large, age	Ŋ	ring, wrong, wing
F	fan, funny, laugh	L	letter, valley, feel
V	vein, vet, move	R	road, sorry, arrange
Θ	mouth, thin, author	J	yellow, year, yes
Ð	father, than, either	W	window, wine, west

Chapter IV
THE SOUND PATTERN OF LANGUAGE

A. Phonology

Phonologyis essentially the description of the systems and patterns of speech sounds in a language (Yule, 2006:43). According to Fromkin, et.al (2003:273), "Phonology is the study of the ways in which speech sounds form systems and patterns". Meanwhile, Akmajian, et.al (2001:109) state that phonology is the subfield of linguistics that studies about the structures and systematic patterning of sound in human language.

In the line with Akmajian, Todd (1987:7) defines that "phonology, known as phonemics as well, is the study of the sounds and sound patterns of a specific language. It is this knowledge about sound structure – which sounds occur, what their distribution is, how they can be combined and how they might be realized differently in different positions in a word or phrase, that constitutes the study of *phonology* (Arnoff and Rees-Miller, 2001)

Considering those definitions above, we all know that phonology a sub-discipline of linguistics concerning about studying the pattern of speech sound systematically. In short, different from phonetics studying about how the single sound is produced and the place where the speech sound is produced, phonology concerns with the study about how the single sound arranged which can distinguish the meaning. The most important thing that we have to know in terms of communication is about the arrangement of the phonemes in structured sequences. Moreover, in studying phonology, it is also important for us to analyze what the restrictions in particular language by studying syllables of the language itself. In English, for example, there are no words begun with consonant sequence, e.g. /kzb/.

Another reason for studying phonology is that in many cases related to the study of sound patterns in a particular language in the world are problematic. Taking an example from Bahasa Indonesia, it is problematic when we meet with /e/ sound. For example, the word '*kecap*' can have different pronunciation with different meaning brought about by the way we say the word. If we say using weak e /kəcʌp/ like in *herb* would have different meaning if we pronounce with strong e /kæcʌp/like in*help.*The first

word which comes from the verb *'mengecap'* means *to taste* while the second word means*ketchup.*

B. Phonemes

The single sound type which came to be represented by a single written symbol is described as a Phoneme (Yule, 2006:44). Richards and Schmidt (2002:396) define "Phoneme is the smallest unit of sound in a language which can distinguish two words". For example: in English, the words *pan* and *ban* differ only in their initial sound: *pan* begins with /p/ and *ban* with /b/. And then, *ban* and *bin* differ only in their vowels: /æ/ and /i/. Therefore, /p/, /b/, /æ/, and /i/ are phonemes of English. The number of phonemes varies from one language to another. English is often considered to have 44 phonemes: 24 Consonants and 20 vowels. Note that slash marks are conventionally used to indicate a phoneme.

C. Segments and Supra segmental Analysis

In addition, According to Meyer (2009:196) "The study of speech sounds can involve either *segments*or*supra segmental*". The first analyses of speech are focused on the individual sounds in a given word. In this instance, the word *buy* has three segments: two consonants beginning and ending the word and a single vowel between the two consonants. Linguists have a set of symbols to describe these sounds namely *phonetic alphabet*. It is the symbol of alphabet to correspond each sound to only one sound. In this way, the word *buy* is able to be transcribed as /baI/. In English alphabet, a single alphabet can represents more

than one sound. The alphabet "u" in *buy* will be differently pronounced in *busy* /'bIzI/.

The study of *suprasegmentals* extends the focus of inquiry to units that are larger than individual segments – syllables, words, phrases, and clauses – and to the features of sound that describe these units, specifically stress and intonation (Meyer, 2009:208). Syllable is a unit of speech consisting minimally of one vowel and maximally of a vowel preceded by a consonant or consonant cluster and followed by a consonant or consonant cluster (Richards and Schmidt, 2002:531). Moreover, syllable can be divided into three parts described as follows:

1. The beginning called *Onset;*
2. The central part which is typically consists of Vowel (V), called *Nucleus;*
3. The end, Called *Coda.*

Thus, in a simple word *buy* the nucleus should be the vowel /a/ which is preceded by the onset /b/ and followed by /I/ as a coda.

In addition, Yule (2006:47) divides syllable into two terms namely *open syllables* and *closed syllables*. The first term concerns with the syllable which simply consists of onset and nucleus as in *me, to, no*. Conversely, when it presents a coda, it is called closed syllable as in of, on, hat, and so forth. In English, there are so many words which consist of more than one consonant in both onset and coda, as in *spot* and *post*. It is known as *consonant cluster*. In the line with this, Richards and Schmidt (2002:110) define that consonant cluster is a sequence of two or more consonants at the beginning of a syllable (e.g. /splæʃ/ in *splash*) or

the end of a syllable (e.g. /sts/ in *tests*).

English has restriction or permissible contents of possible arrangement consonant + vowel namely *phonotactics*. Discussing about these restrictions, let us discuss first on onset. If the first syllable of the word begun with a vowel, we say that this initial syllable has a zero onset. If the syllable begins with consonant, that initial consonant may be any consonant phoneme except "ŋ" and "ʒ". Initial here refers to the term referring to the first element in linguistics unit (Crystal, 2008:246).

Furthermore, Roach (1991:71) states that initial two-consonant clusters are two sorts in English. The first sort is composed by one of a small set of consonants. We can find, for example, such clusters in words such as *sting* /stIŋ/, *small* /smɔ:l/, *slip* /slIp/, and so on. The letter "s" in these clusters is called pre-initial consonant and the other consonant *t, m,* and *l* in the above example is called the initial consonant. The second sort begins with one of a set about fifteen consonants, followed by one of the set *l, r, w, j* as in *play* /pleI/, *try* /traI/, *quick* /kwIk/ and *few* /fju:/. We call the first consonant of these clusters the initial consonant and the second the post-initial. In three-consonant clusters, as in *split* /splIt/, *stream* /stri:m/, and *square* /skweə/, the "s" is the pre-initial consonant, the *p, t,* and *k* that follows "s" in three examples above are called initial consonant, and the *l, r,* and *w* are post-initial.

Then, we have to discuss about the final consonant clusters. If there is no final consonant, we say that there is a zero coda. When there is only one consonant, this is called the final consonant. Any consonant can be placed in this position except h, r, w,

and j. Two-consonant final cluster is divided into two sorts. First is being a final consonant preceded by a pre-final consonant. Second, a final consonant followed by a post-final consonant. The pre-final consonants form a small set m, n, ŋ, l, s as in *jump* /dʒʌmp/ , *bench* /bentʃ/, *tank* /tæŋk/, *melt* /melt/, and *mask* /mæsk/. The post-final consonants also form a set s, z, t, d, θ as in *bets* /bets/, *beds* /bedz/, *backed* /bækt/, *bagged* /bægd/, and *eighth* /eItθ/. These post-final consonants can often be identified as separate morphemes to be discussed in the next chapter. Moreover, Roach (1991:71-72) states that there are two types of final three-consonant cluster. First is pre-final plus final plus post-final setting out in the following discussion:

		PRE-FINAL	FINAL	POST-FINAL
helped	he	l	P	t
banks	bæ	ŋ	K	s
bonds	bɒ	n	D	z
twelfth	twe	l	F	θ

The second type shows that more than post-final consonant can occur in a final cluster: final plus post-final 1 plus post-final 2 (s, z, t, d, θ) described as follows:

		PRE-FINAL	FINAL	POST-FINAL 1	POST-FINAL 2
Fifths	fI	-	f	θ	s
Next	ne	-	k	s	t
Lapsed	læ	-	p	s	t

Most four consonant clusters can be analyzed as consisting of a final consonant preceded by a pre-final and followed by post-final 1 and post-final 2, as shown below:

		PRE-FINAL	FINAL	POST-FINAL 1	POST-FINAL 2
twelfths	twe	l	F	θ	s
prompts	prɒ	m	P	t	s

A small number of cases seem to require different analysis, as consisting of a final consonant with no pre-final but three post-finals:

		PRE-FINAL	FINAL	POST-FINAL 1	POST-FINAL 2	POST-FINAL 3
sixths	sI	-	K	S	θ	s
texts	te	-	K	S	t	s

To sum up, McMahon (2002:106) provides an adequate explanation about the structure of English syllable as shown below:

a. In a CCC onset, C1 must be /s/ as in *spring*;
b. /ŋ/ does not appear in onset;
c. /v ð zʒ / do not form part of onset clusters;
d. /t d θ / plus /l/ do not form permissible onset clusters;
e. /h/ does not appear in codas;
f. /lg/ is not a permissible coda cluster.

In English, there are so many syllables are weak. It is necessary for us to study about how these weak syllables are pronounced and where they occur in English. In this instance, the terms distinguishing whether the syllable is pronounced weak or strong are based on *stress* and *intonation*. Stress refers to the

pronunciation of a syllable or word with more respiratory energy or muscular force than other syllables or words in the same utterance (Richards and Schmidt, 2002:516). A stressed syllable is marked in transcription by placing a small vertical line [ˈ] just before the syllable it relates to. Let us consider these following examples:

Garden	/ˈgaːdn/
Confuse	/kənˈfjuːz/
Rabbit	/ˈræbIt/
Receive	/riˈsiːv/
Informal	/Inˈfɔːml/
Tornado	/tɔːˈneIdəʊ/

How can we recognize the stressed and unstressed syllables? To cope with this problem, we have to know about the characteristics of the stressed syllables so that we are able to identify them. In this instance, Roach (1991:85-86) provides one common characteristic differentiating stressed and unstressed syllable namely *prominence*. In other words, stressed syllable is recognized as stressed because it is more prominent than unstressed syllable. Furthermore, there are at least four factors making a syllable prominent described as follows:

a. We can feel that stressed syllable is louder than unstressed. It means that loudness is a component of prominence.
b. The length of syllable plays an important role in prominence.
c. When we listen to people speaking, we can hear some sounds or group of sounds in their speech to be relatively higher or lower than others. This relative height of speech sounds as

perceived by a listener is called "pitch" (Richards and Schmidt, 2002:402).

d. The quality of syllable which concerning with the quantity and length including the characteristic resonance, or timbre, of a sound tend to be prominent. For example, when we pronounce "nonsense word" (e.g. ba:bi:ba:ba:) the odd or strange syllable bi: will tend to be heard as stressed.

In English, there are particular rules in terms of the placement of stress within a word. In the line with this, Roach (1991:90) divides these rules related to two-syllable words and three syllable words presented as follows:

a. Two-syllable words

- First, we will discuss about verbs. The basic rule is that if the second syllable of the verb contains a long vowel or diphthong, or if it ends with more than one consonant, that second syllable is stressed. For example:

apply	/ə'plaI/	*attract*	/ə'trækt/
arrive	/ə'raIv/	*assist*	/ə'sIst/

If the final syllable contains a short vowel and one (or no) final consonant, the first syllable is stressed. Thus:

enter	/'entə/	*open*	/'əʊpən/
envy	/'envi/	*equal*	/'i:kwəl/

A final syllable is also unstressed if it contains əʊ as in borrow /'bɒrəʊ/ and follow /'fɒləʊ/. Most two syllable verbs that

seem to be exceptions to the above might be interpreted as being morphologically complex (e.g. *permit* /pə'mIt/ = per + mit), or we could simply list all such verbs as expectations.

Two syllable simple adjectives are stressed according to the same rule, giving:

lovely	/'lʌvli/	*divine*	/dI'vaIn/
even	/'i:vn/	*correct*	/kə'rekt/
hollow	/'hɒləʊ/	*alive*	/ə'laIv/

As with most stress rules, there are exceptions, for example *honest* /'ɒnIst/ *perfect* /'pɜ:fIkt/ or /'pɜ:fekt/, both of which end with two consonants but are stressed on the first syllable.

- Second, nouns require a different rule: if the second syllable contains a short vowel the stress will usually come on the first syllable. Otherwise, it will be on the second syllable. Thus:

money	/'mʌnI/	*estate*	/I'steIt/
product	/'prɒdʌkt/	*balloon*	/bə'lu:n/
larynx	/'lærIŋks/	*design*	/dI'zaIn/

Other two-syllable words such as adverbs and prepositions seem to behave like verbs and adjectives.

b. Three-syllable words

- In verb, if the last syllable contains a short vowel and ends with not more than one consonant, that syllable will be unstressed, and stress will be placed on the preceding syllable as in *encounter* /In'kaʊntə/ and *determine* /dI'tɜ:mIn/.

  If the final syllable contains a long vowel or diphthong, or ends with more than one consonant, the final syllable will be stressed as in *entertain* /entə'taIn/ and *resurrect* /rezə'rekt/

- Nouns require a different rule: if the final syllable contains a short vowel əʊ, it is unstressed; if the syllable preceding this final syllable contains a long vowel or diphthong, or if it ends with more than one consonant, that middle syllable will be stressed. Thus:

Potato	/pə'teItəʊ/
Disaster	/dIsa:stə/
Synopsis	/sI'nɒpsIs/

  If the final syllable contains a short vowel and the middle syllable contains a short vowel and ends with not more than one consonant, both final and middle syllable is unstressed and the first syllable is stressed as in *quantity* /'kwɒntItI/ and *cinema* /'sInəmə/.

Those all rules above do not, of course, cover all English words. They simply apply to major categories of lexical words (noun, verb, adjective), not to function words such as articles and prepositions. There is not enough space in this course to deal with such function words. In addition, those words that were described

were called *simple* words, not composed of more than one grammatical unit (Roach, 1991:95). Thus, for example, the word *lonely* is simple while *loneliness* is complex because it is composed of two grammatical units. Complex words basically consist of two major types. First, the words made of stem (the basic word) with the addition of an affix and, second, compound words made of two or occasionally more independent English words such as *ice-cream* and *arm-chair*.

We will discuss about the first type of complex words, the words which are made of stem and added by affixes; also called affix words. Affixes basically consist of two sorts namely prefixes and suffixes. The first term refers to affixes coming before the stem. The second term refers to affixes coming after the stem. Thus, the word *unselfish* consists of two affixes,*un* as a prefix and *ish* as a suffix, and, of course,*predict* as a stem.

The second type, compound word, has the characteristic, that is it can be analyzed into two words. Inother words, both of them can exist independently as english words (Roach, 1991:98). There are at least three ways in terms of writing this type. First, sometimes they are written as one word, e.g. armchair and sunflower. Second, sometimes with the words separated by a hyphen as in fruit-cake. Lastly, with two words separated by a space, e.g. desk lamp, battery charger, and so on. Following are several rules in terms of stress placement of complex words cited from Roach (1991:99) as shown below:

a. Compound words as a result of combining two nouns have normally the stress in the first element as in:

Typewriter /'taIpraItə/

Suitcase/'sju:tkeIs/

Sunrise /'sʌnraIz/

Tea-cup/ti:kʌp/

b. Compounds with ajectival first element and the *–ed* at the end have this pattern, that is stressing in the second element:

Bad-ˈtempered

Half-ˈtimbered

Heavy-ˈhanded

c. Compounds in which the first element is a number in some form also tend to have final stress as shown below:

Three-ˈwheeler

Second-ˈclass

Five-ˈfinger

d. Compounds functioning as adverbs are usually final-stressed:

Head-ˈfirst down-ˈstream

North-ˈeast

e. Compounds which function as verbs have an adverbial first element take final stress:

Down-ˈgrade ill-ˈtreat

Back-ˈpedal

Chapter V
MORPHOLOGY

A PARTICULARstring of sound must be united with a meaning, and a meaning must be united with specific sounds in order for the sounds or the meaning to be a word in our mental dictionaries (Fromkin, et.al, 2003:273). As previously mentioned above, a phoneme is a single sound. A phoneme must be combined in order to be meaningful. The branch of linguistics studying about the combination of sounds (phonemes) in order to be meaningful and have grammatical functions is called *Morphology*.

According to Todd (1987:41), "Morphology is the study of morphemes, which are the smallest significant units of grammar". Additionally Arnoff and Rees-Miller, quoted from the book entitled *A Handbook of Linguistics*, defines that morphology is about the structure of word. Richards and Schmidt (2002:342) stated that morphology is the study of morphemes and their different forms (allomorphs), and the way they combine in word formation.

A. Morpheme

All languages have words and in all languages some words, at least, have an internal structure, and consist of one or more *morphemes.* We can recognize that English word forms such as *talks*, *talker*, *talked* and *talking* must consist of one element *talk*, and a number of other elements such as *-s*, *-er*, *-ed*and*-ing*. All these elements are described as *morphemes*. The smallest meaningful unit in a language is called as morpheme (Richards and Schmidt, 2002:341). According to Yule (2006:63) the definition of a morpheme is "A minimal unit of meaning or grammatical function". Units of grammatical function include forms used to indicate past tense or plural, for example. Thus, the form *cats* comprises the root morpheme "cat" to which is added the suffix morpheme "s" indicating plural.

From the example above, we can indicate that there is a distinct dissimilarity between the "cat", as a morpheme, and "s", as a morpheme as well. The word "cat" is a meaningful and independent word. On the other hand, the morpheme "s" is only a suffix which is able to be said as a meaningless dependent element indicating plural. For further explanation about this distinc-

tion, it will be discussed in the following parts.

1. Free Morpheme

According to Yule (2006:63) "There are *freemorphemes*, that is, morphemes that can stand by themselves as single words, for example, *open* and *tour*". It means that it can be meaningful as an independent word. Additionally, this morpheme is divided into two categories described as follows:

a. Lexical Morpheme

This morpheme is a set of ordinary noun, adjective, and verb that we think of as the words that carry the 'content' of the messages we convey.

b. Functional Morpheme

This other type refers to morpheme which consists largely of the functional words in the language such as conjunctions, prepositions, articles and pronouns. It is known as "*Closed Class Words*" as well because we almost never add new functional morphemes to the language.

2. Bound Morpheme

Morphemes which can only occur as affixes are described as Bound Morphemes (Todd, 1987:42). As affixes, they cannot stand alone as meaningful unit, known as dependent element as well. They are typically attached to another form (Yule, 2006:63). In addition, free morphemes can generally be identified as the set of separate English word forms such as basic nouns, adjectives, verbs, etc. When they are used with bound morphemes attached, the basic word forms are technically known as ***stems***. For example:

Carelessness

Care	*-less*	*-ness*
Stem	Suffix	Suffix
(Free)	(Bound)	(Bound)

This morpheme is divided into two types as well presented as follows:

a. Derivational Morphemes

Derivational Morphemes are morphemes which are able to make a new word or change the grammatical category of stem. For example, the attachment of the derivational morpheme *–less* changes the noun *speech* to the adjective *speechless*. A list of derivational morphemes will include suffixes such as the *–ish*in*foolish*, *-ly*in*quickly*, and the *–ment*in*payment*. The list will also include prefixes such as *re-*, *pre-*, *ex-*, *mis-*, *co-*, *un-*, and many more (Yule, 2006:64).

b. Inflectional Morphemes

These morphemes are not used to produce new words in the language, but rather to indicate aspects of the grammatical function of a word. In other words, these are used to show if a word is plural or singular, if it is past tense or not, and if it is a comparative or possessive form (Yule, 2006:64).

This following figure shows the way to classify English morphemes.

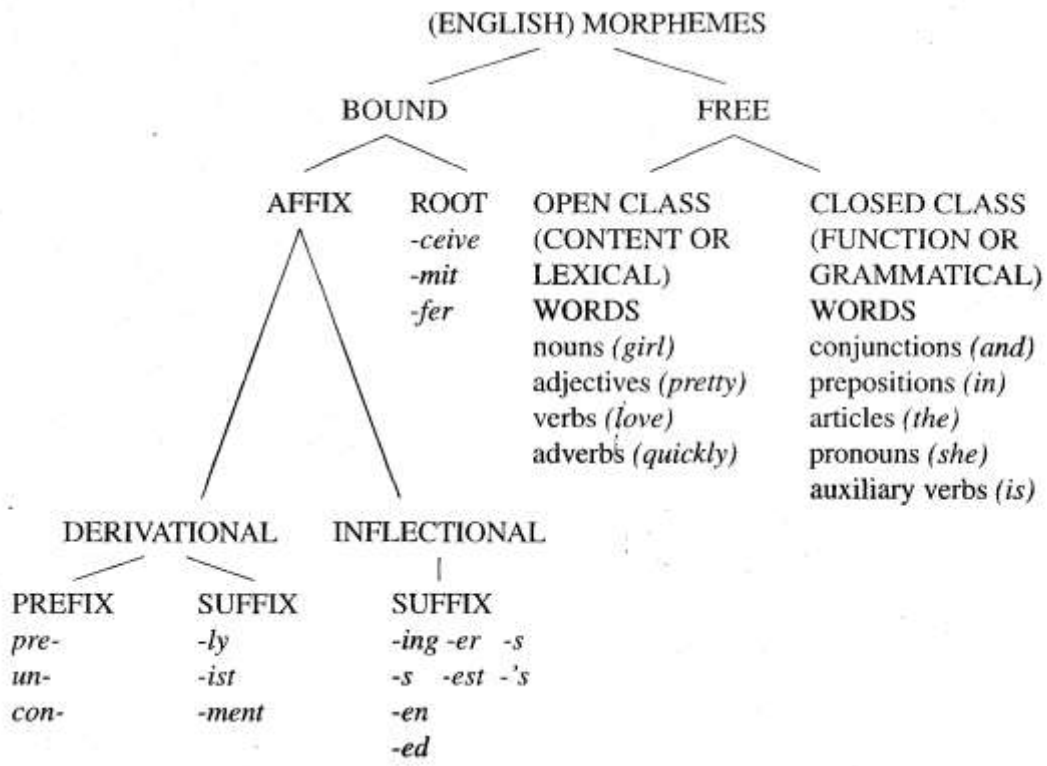


FIG. 5.1.2.1: Classification of English Morphemes

Source: Reprinted from Fromkin, et.al. (2003), *Introduction to-Language: Seventh Edition.* Massachusetts: Wadsworth, Thomson Corporation, p. 104

Chapter VI
SYNTAX

SYNTAXis a branch of linguistics which study how words are combined together to form sentences.Wekker and Haegeman (1989) defined syntax as a study which attempt to:

a. determine the relevant component parts of a sentence
b. determine parts of the sentences grammatically

The components parts of a sentence are called constituents. In other words, syntax involves the two closely related task of:

a. breaking down the sentence into its constituents.
b. assigning some grammatical label to each constituents, stating what type of constituents it is, and what grammatical it has
c. understanding the position of each word will lead to the understanding of the meaning of the sentence

From this definition we can conclude that the purpose of doing syntax is to discover the way in which constituents are combined to form the structure of sentence. The hierarchy of sentence constituents can be shown in the following diagram:

SENTENCE⇔ CLAUSE⇔ PHRASE⇔ WORD⇔ MORPHEME

This diagram shows the hierarchical scale of constituents. It means that sentence is the largest unit, and morpheme is the smallest unit of syntax that cannot be broken down into its components. The double pointing arrow indicating that it may be read from left to right, of 29 from right to left. The arrow pointing to the right indicates that a sentence may consist of one or more than one clause, a clause may consist of one or more than one phrase, a phrase may consist of one or more than one word, and word may consist of one or more than one morpheme. Conversely, the arrows pointing to the left indicate that one or more than one morpheme may constitute a word, one or more than one word may form phrase, one or more than one phrase may form clause, one or more than one clause may form sentence.

A. Deep and Surface Structure

Jacobs & Rosenbaum (1968: 17) stated that "the most important fact of human languages is that all languages have both a deep structure and a surface structure." To superficially distinct these two terms, this point it is illustrated in these following two sentences below:

1. My brother broke the door.
2. The door was broken by my brother.

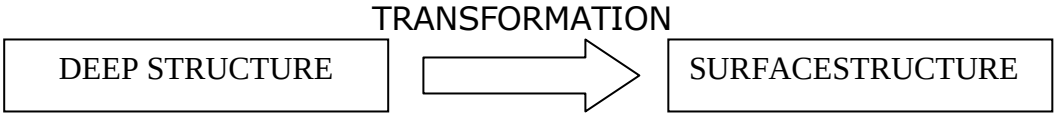
The two sentences above show that the first sentence is an active sentence and the second sentence is passive. The meaning of the first sentence is exactly the same as the meaning of the second sentence. They are closely related and even identical. In the sense that we can claim that the distinction between them is laid in their surface structure. In other words, even though the surface structures of the two sentences are different, they have exactly the same deep structure. Thus, deep structure tells that those two sentence is similar in meaning, but the surface structure tells that those sentences are distinct in form.

Contrary these examples above, two sentences which have identical structure do not always derived from the same deep structure. Consider this following illustration to comprehend this point:

3. Marry works in the office.
4. Marry worked in the office.

According to Yule (1985: 82) the deep structure is an abstract level of structural organization in which all the elements determining structural interpretation are represented. The surface structure, on the other hand, is the syntactic form they take as actual English sentences. Additionally, Jacobs & Rosenbaum (1968: 18) state that the meaning of a sentence is conveyed by its deep structure while the form of a sentence is given by its surface structure. In other words, the deep structure represents the meaning of the sentence; while the surface structure represents the forms used in communication. In this case, the relationship

between the deep structure and the surface structure can be seen as:



Meaning Form used in communication

(Jacobs, et al. 1968:19)

A deep structure becomes a surface structure via *transformations.*

More importantly, Jacobs & Rosenbaum (1968: 26) state that all languages contain transformations which transform deep structure into surface structure. We can claim that these transformations of all languages involve particular operations on constituent structures. Additionally, they state that these operations are called as elementary transformation operation which is divided into three basic operations that can be used in the formulation of a particular transformation, described as follows:

1. Adjunction
2. Substitution
3. Deletion.

The first kind of elementary transformation is a simple transformation in English which makes the use of the adjunction operations is the contraction transformation. It is quite easy without presenting tree diagram. Let us consider these following sentences below:

a. You cannot enter into the classroom.
b. You can’t enter into the classroom.

In this case, the first sentence is converted into the second sentence. The constituent "not" is contracted and adjoined into the constituent "can", thereby generating the new single constituent "can't".

For Substitution elementary transformation, Jacobs & Rosenbaum (1968: 27) provide illustration as follows:

a. It is difficult for me to concentrate on calculus
b. Calculus is difficult for me to concentrate on

In the second sentence, the noun phrase "calculus" is substituted into the pronoun "it". The constituent "calculus" which is as the object of sentence (a) is transform as the subject in sentence (b).

For the third kind of elementary transformation, Jacobs & Rosenbaum (1968: 27) provide illustration as follow:

a. Miriam wanted Paul to leave home
b. Miriam wanted Miriam to leave home
c. Miriam Wanted to leave home

In sentence (a) it is clear that Paul is the one who leaves home. While the second sentence (b) it is also clearly mentioned that Miriam, herself is the one who wanted to leave home. The third sentence (c) Miriam is the one who wanted to leave home, even though she is not explicitly mentioned after verb "wanted", but it suggests that the deep structure of the third (c) sentence contains "Miriam" as the object of the sentence. There is a transformational deleting "Miriam" since "Miriam" has occurred as the subject of "leave home". According to Jacobs & Rosenbaum (1968: 27) this phenomena is called *identical noun phrase deletion*. This identity condition also applied to the Verb phrase which is called as *identical verb phrase deletion*. Let us consider to this

following sentences bellow:

a. Igor can play the violin, and that cat also can play the violin too
b. Igor can play the violin, and that cat can too

For those sentences above, there is a process deletion of "play the violin". It occurs because there is identical verb phrase. It can be concluded that both Igor and that can play the violin. In other word, the first sentence (a) has the same meaning with the second sentence (b).

B. Symbols used in Syntactic Descriptions

Before going to the symbols used in syntactic description, we have to encounter the symbols and abbreviations for syntactic categories described as follows:

S	sentence	**NP**	noun phrase	**PN**	proper noun
N	noun	**VP**	verb phrase	**Adv**	Adverb
V	verb	**Adj**	Adjective	**Prep**	Preposition
Art	article	**Pro**	Pronoun	**PP**	prepositional phrase

Let's back to our main discussion. According to Yule (2006:89), "There are three more symbols that are commonly used in syntactic description". These symbols to be discussed as follows:

a. The first is in the form of an arrow→. It can be interpreted as 'consists of' or 'rewrites as'. It is typically used in the following type of rule:

   NP→ArtN

It can be said that the NP, such as the man, consists of an article "the" and a noun "man".

b. The second symbol is a pair of round brackets **( )**. It can be said as an optional constituent occurring inside the bracket. We can say that both of *the cat* and *the black cat* are the example of category NP. We can decide whether we insert the adjective *black* or not. It's an optional constituent in a grammatically well-formed noun phrase. This rule to be illustrated as follows:

NP→Art (Adj) N

c. The third symbol is in the form of curly brackets { } indicating that only one of the elements enclosed within the curly brackets must be selected. We use these types of brackets when we want to indicate that there is a choice from two or more constituents as illustrated as follows:

$$\mathrm{NP}\rightarrow\left\{\begin{pmatrix}\mathrm{Art\ N}\\ \mathrm{Pro}\\ \mathrm{PN}\end{pmatrix}\right\}\quad \mathrm{NP}\rightarrow\{\mathrm{Art\ N,\ Pro,\ PN}\}$$

It is important to remember that, although there are three constituents inside these curly brackets, only one of them can be selected on any occasion.

C. PS Rules

The categorical constituent structure of the sentence can be represented in the form of a Phrase marker (Redford: 1996:109). **Phrase-structure rules** are used to breakanaturallanguage sentence down into its **constituent parts** (also known as syntactic categories) namely **phrasal categories** and **lexical categories**

(parts of speech). Phrasal categories include the noun phrase (NP), verb phrase (VP), and prepositional phrase(PP), adverb phrase (AdvP), Adjective Phrase (AdjP); lexical categories include noun, verb, adjective, adverb, and many others. As quoted from Yule (1985: 5) that we can create a set of simple phrase structure rules which can be used to generate a large number of English sentences:

S →**NP VP**

NP → **{Art (Adj) N, Pro, PN}**

VP →**V NP (PP) (Adv)**

PP →**Prep NP**

Wekker and Haegeman (1985: 35) classify phrases into five phrases which are going to be presented in this following discussion below:

1) Noun Phrase

Noun Phrase is a group of words which head of words is noun or pronoun. The following phrase structure rule indicates the possibilities that exist for the rewriting of the noun phrase:

NP→

Proper noun	: Andy, Marry
N	: Book, table
Pronoun	: He, She, it
Det N	: The book
DetAdj N	: a thick book
Det N S	: a letter which I write

2) Verb Phrase

Verb Phrase is a group of words when the head is a verb with modifier

V	: read
V NP	: Read the book
V AdjP	: bring black bag
V PP	: go to school
V AdvP	: arrive soon

3) Prepositional Phrase

Prepositional Phrase is a group of words with preposition as a head. Prepositional phrase can be expanded into prepositional phrase by addition of complement.

PP→

P NP	: on the road
PAdjP	: with beautiful lady

4) Adverb Phrase

Adverb Phrase is a group of words with adverb as a head.

AdvP →

Adverb	: yesterday, Quickly
AdverbAdjP	: Very beautiful
	: Quite different

5) Adjective Phrase

Adjective Phrase is a group of words with adjective is a head.

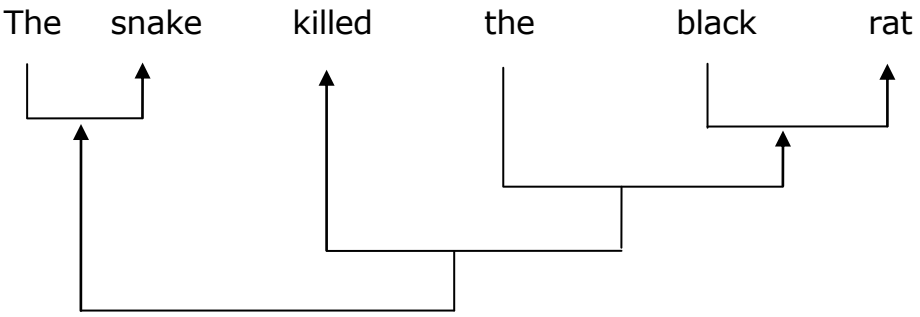
AdjP → { Adjective : Young, old
Adjective PP : worried about future }

D. IC Analysis

Immediate Constituents Analysis, also abbreviated as ICsA, is such kind of technique analysis describing syntactic structure based on each constituent in particular sentence. It needs to organize the words and break them down into the smaller unit. The technique employed in this approach is designed to show how small constituents (or components) in sentences go together to form larger constituents. One basic step is determining how words go together to form phrases level. Sentences are divided into their principal parts or immediate constituents. Each of these is then divided and subdivided until the ultimate constituents of the sentence are reached.

Soeparno (2002:52) state that there are several models related to representing analysis of Immediate Constituent Analysis, such as: Nida's model, Hockett's model, Nelson's model, Wells' model. Here are a few examples of various graphic representations of each model:

a) Nida's model



The arrow shows the head of a construction which is modified by a modifier identified by the arrow. So, the phrase "the snake" is one construction which consists of *snake* as the head, and *the* as modifier. Likewise, the other groups; they build a construction which consists of several immediate constituents. All these constructions make a complete utterance.

b) Hockett's model

The	snake	killed	the	black	rat
The snake				Black rat	

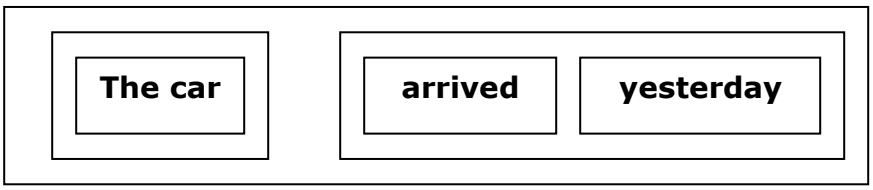
c) Nelson's model

{[(The) (snake)] [(killed) [(the) [(black) (rat)]]] }

That is an analysis of sentence structure by marking off each constituentfrom sentence level to word level by giving brackets. The label bracket indicates what type of constituent (grammatical category) is contained within

the brackets. Indicating constituent by putting them in the bracket is the most common and popular way of graphic presentation. It is the easiest way to type and write, but does not work very well in the larger unit. The opening and closing bracket can get quite confusing.

d) Wells' model



This is also known as Box diagram. This is the way to represent structure description by putting the sentence in particular boxes using a systematic order. In the boxes above, the largest box represents the whole units in a sentence. The smaller boxes represent the NP subject and VP predicate. The smallest boxes indicate the parts of NP and VP.

E. Bracketing, Labelled Bracketing and Tree Diagram

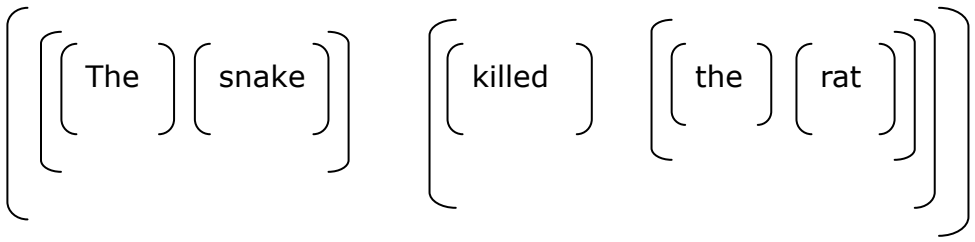
According to Herman Wekker andHaegeman (1985: 6-10) there are at least three ways in representing sentence structure, described as follows:

a. Bracketing

It is sentence structure which is represented by marking

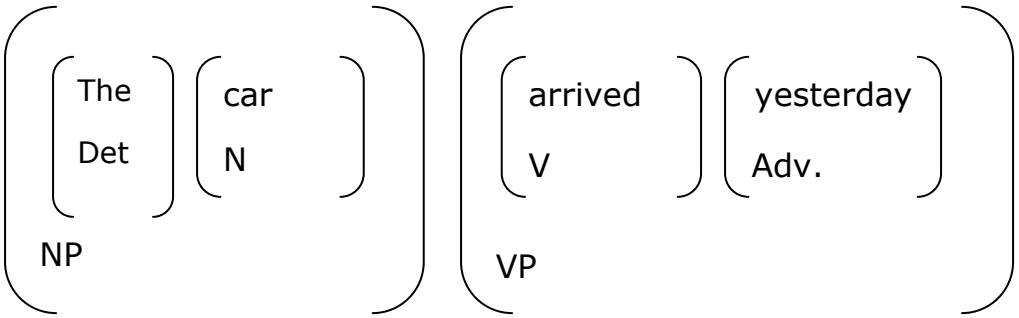
off each constituent from sentence level to word level by square brackets: [ ]. For example: *The snake killed the rat.*

That sentence above can be analyzed using bracketing described as follows:



b. Labelled Bracketing

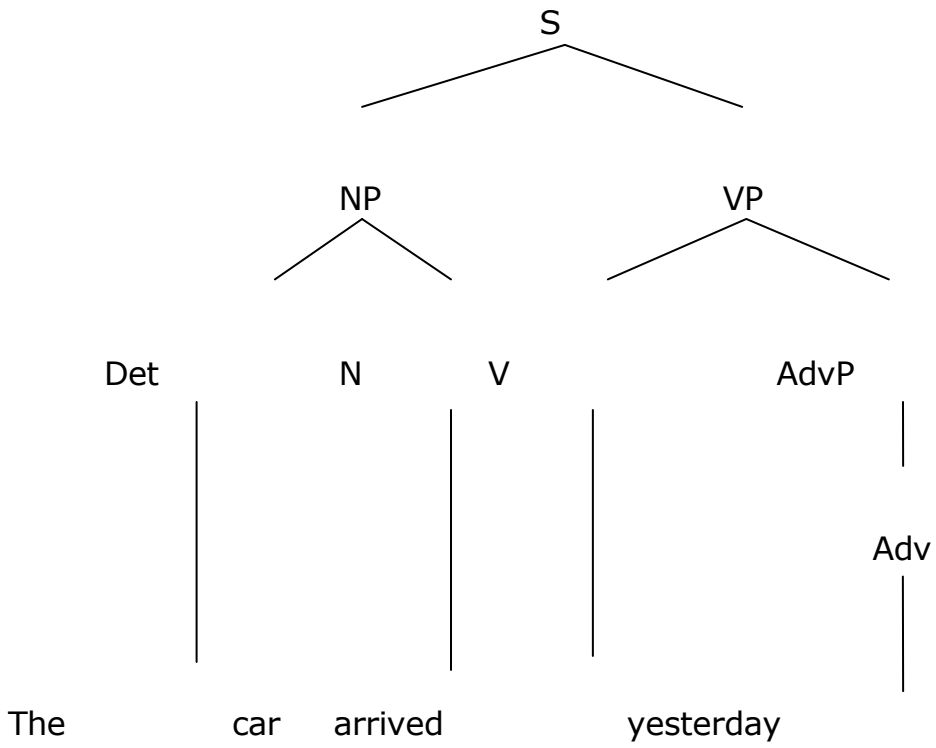
In fact, the previous way to represent sentence structure shows the weakness. It is difficult to see, for example, which brackets go together to mark off the constituents. Therefore, it can be improved by adding an appropriate grammatical category to each pairs of square brackets. The label indicates what type of constituent (grammatical category) is contained within the brackets. This convention is called labelled bracketing. The example is demonstrated as follows:



c. Tree Diagram

This analysis is probably visually the most attractive comprehensible way of representing the constituent structure. It

has branches and nodes. It is a notational device which is entirely equivalent to labelled bracketing. Although it looks different, it provides the same information about the syntactic structure of a sentence. Let us consider this following example:



The above tree diagram contains simple structure of a sentence. You may have given some additional terminologies. For example, S in the diagram is a symbol for *sentence*. Sentence is expanded as NP (Noun Phrase) –VP (Verb Phrase). The verb phrase, in this sentence, is expanded as Verb and Adverbial Phrase. Furthermore down the tree, Noun Phrase may again be expanded as both Det (Determiner) and N (Noun): *the car*. Following table summarizes the tree diagram.

Symbols	Symbolize	Word (s)
S	sentence	
Art	article	The
Det	determiner	The
NP	Noun Phrase	The car
VP	Verb Phrase	arrived yesterday
AdvP	Adverbial Phrase	yesterday
Adv	Adverb	yesterday

Note:

You may use both [art] to show article, or [det] to explain that the word determines noun, and thus it is a noun determiner.

When you have to write the symbol of adverb you can just write [adv], however,you have to be aware that sometime an adverbial phrase needs more explanation since an adverb may contain adverb of time, adverb of place, adverb of manner, etc.

Chapter VII
SEMANTICS

LANGUAGE has been considered as a conventional system for communication, a system for conveying message. In order to accomplish language as a conventional system for communication, the word is to have certain meaning. The study of the linguistic meaning of morphemes, words, phrases, and sentences is called *semantics* (Fromkin, et.al, 2003:173). In the line with this, Yule (2006:100) states that semantics is the study of the meaning of words, phrase, and sentence. In addition, semantics itself has two subfields. They are *lexical semantics*, which is concerned with the meaning of words, and *sentential semantics*, which is concerned with the meaning of syntactic units larger than the word.

A. Conceptual Meaning

Conceptual meaning covers those basic, essential components of meaning that are conveyed by the literal use of a word (Yule, 2006:100). Let's imagine one word, for example the "*Blood*". When we imagine this word, we automatically think about its component or its literal definition such as: *redliquid flowing through our body*. The meaning of this word is regarded the central meaning of the word itself or can be said as the core meaning of lexical item. In other words, conceptual meaning refers to the basic meaning of a linguistic expression as well (Bussmann, 1996:289).

B. Associative Meaning

In contrast to conceptual meaning, associative meaning refers to the total of all the meanings a person thinks of when they hear the word (Richards & Schmidt, 2002:606). In addition, these meanings show people's emotions and attitudes towards what the word or phrase refers to. The word "*Blood*" evokes our thought to think about the other meanings such as: *suffering, tragic, war,* oreven *life*. It is based on the cultural or social background, sex, or age, personal experiences, or level of education.

C. Semantic Roles

In order to understand the linguistic meaning of the sentence, we have to know not only about the syntactic function of noun phrase but also about the semantic relations. It is necessary to know because syntactic functions provide only an incomplete account of the necessary semantic interpretation. Let's consider

these following examples:

1. The soldier takes my mother's life.
2. The sword takes my mother's life.

In (1), *the soldier* is a subject. In (2), *the sword* is a subject as well. If we describe these sentences only with such syntactic function, we will miss an important aspect of meaning. In semantic roles, the subject in sentence (1) is called *agent*. It refers to the "*doer*" of the action. In contrast to the subject in sentence (1), *the sword,* as a subject in sentence (2), is not the "*doer*" of the action. It is only the instrument for the agent to accomplish his action (Clark, et.al.p.414). Let us consider the following sentence below.

3. The soldier takes my mother's life with the sword.

In this sentence above, *the soldier* is the "*doer*" of the action, known as the *agent*, but *the sword* is now the object of preposition. It remains the *instrument*. Notice that the noun phrase, such as *the sword*, has several syntactic functions (subject, direct object, object of preposition). In semantic relations, it is only as the *instrument* or *theme*. The last semantic relation to be discussed further with the other semantic relation called *experiencer.*

Yule (2006: 102) state that theme, also known as *Patient*, refers to the entity that is involved in or affected by the action. Let us consider the following sentence.

The boy kicked the ball.

In this case, the NP *the boy* is an agent, the doer of the action. Then, *the ball* (NP) is called *theme* or *patient* because it is affected by the action done by the agent.

The other semantic relation is called *experiencer* which refers to a noun phrase which is used to designate an entity as the person who has the feeling, perception or state (Yule, 2006: 103). For example, *Ahmed heard Zakia playing piano*. In this case, Ahmed is the one receiving the sensory input because of hearing piano played by Zakia.

The next semantic relations are location, source and goal. Location is defined as the place where the action happens. Source refers to the place from which the action originates. Goal refers to the place to which an action directed (Fromkin, et.al, 2003:192-193). Let us consider these following sentences below.

1. It rains ***in Spain***. (Location)
2. He flew ***from Surabaya*** toBali. (Source)
3. Put the cat ***on the porch***. (Goal)
4. It rained **heavily** all day.
5. It rained **hard** today.
6. It **rained** the whole **day** today.

Chapter VIII
DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

A. Cohesion

Before we concentrate on cohesion, let us consider several definitions about discourse analysis taken from several sources presented as follows:

1. Discourse analysis deals with how we make sense of what we read, how we can recognize well-constructed texts as opposed to those that are jumbled or incoherent, how we understand speakers who communicate more than they say, and how we successfully take part in that complex activity called conversation (Yule, 2006:124). In addition, the analysis of discourse is typically concerned with the study of language in text and conversation.

2. Discourse analysis is the study of how sentences in spoken and written language form larger meaningful units such as paragraphs, conversations, interviews, etc. (Richards & Schmidt, 2002:161).
3. Discourse analysis is the analysis of language as it is used to enact activities, perspectives, and identities (Gee, 1999:4).

According to Yule's definition about discourse analysis, we can conclude that the discourse analysis unquestionably works with text and conversation in order to understand their contexts. There are organizational pattern of ideas and information found in a text. In other words, there is a particular rule considered in writing text, known as *cohesion*.

Cohesion itself defines as the grammatical and/or lexical relationships between the different elements of a text. This may be the relationship between different sentences or between different parts of a sentence (Richards & Schmidt, 2002:86). Let us consider to the text provided by Eric Nelson quoted from Yule (2006:125).

My Town

My natal was in a small town, very close to Riyadh capital of Saudi Arabia. The distant between my town and Riyadh 7 miles exactly.The name of this Almasani that means in English Factories. It takes this name from the people'scarrier. In my childhood I remember the people live. It was very simple. Most the people was farmer.

The text above contains of ungrammatical forms. We arrived

to the assumption that although the text is served in ungrammatical forms, we try to make sense of it. To interpret this text, we have to rely on what we know about linguistic form and structure. Basically, we are able to understand about what the writer means by texts as the realization of his or her communicative purposes.

Let's now consider the following second text quoted from Yule (2006:125).

> *My father once bought a Lincoln convertible. He did it by saving every penny he could. That car would be worth a fortune nowadays. However, he sold it to help pay for my college education. Sometimes I think I'd rather have the convertible.*

As stated by Yule (2006:125-126) that there are connections present here in the use of words to maintain reference to the same people and things throughout: *father – he – he – he*; *my – my – I*; *Lincoln – it*. There are connections between phrases such as: *a Lincolnconvertible – that car – the convertible*. There are more general connections created by a number of terms that share a common element of meaning, such as 'money' (*bought – saving – penny – worth a fortune – sold – pay*) and 'time' *(once – nowadays – sometimes*). There is also a connector (*However*) that marks the relationship of what follows to what went before. The verb tenses in the first four sentences are all in the past, creating a connection between those events, and a different time is indicated by the present tense of the final sentence.

We are therefore able to conclude that there are the grammatical or lexical relationships between different sentences or be-

tween different parts of a sentence in second text. As a result, the second text is cohesively constructed.

B. Coherence

To provide a distinct explanation about coherence, I will give the following dialog as an illustration.

Fathi : Let's go to the movie.
Akmal : Sorry, I'll have a test tomorrow.
Fathi : OK.

From the dialog above, we can see that there is certainly no grammatical or lexical link between Fathi's invitation and Akmal's answer but both of them are able to arrive at the same interpretation and successfully make a sense about the context of situation. Although, it has no relationship in terms of lexical or grammatical, as in the previous discussion, the dialog above has the relationships which link the meanings of UTTERANCES in a DISCOURSE or of the sentences in a text, known as *coherence* (Richards & Schmidt, 2002:85). In addition, in written texts coherence refers to the way a text makes sense to the readers through the organization of its content, and the relevance and clarity of its concepts and ideas.

Chapter IX
LANGUAGE AND THE BRAIN

A. Neurolinguistics

Chomsky in his *Language and Mind* (1972a) proposed that language is a mirror of mind. As a mirror of mind, it reflects our thought in terms of producing and processing the language (Radford, 1983). It is explained that humans have the innate ability to use language which involves the brain as the processor, nowhere else. It is no doubt that brain able to process everything around us, we call *inputs*. After processing these inputs, humans are able to produce the utterances or written language as the reflection of their intellectual activity in their mind.

Interdisciplinary field concerned with the study of language processing and representation of language in the brain is called ***neurolinguistics*** (Bussmann, 1996:796). Richards & Schmidt (2002) defined that ***neurolinguistics*** is the study of the function the brain performs in language learning and language use. It includes research into how the structure of the brain influences language learning, how and in which parts of the brain language is stored and how damage to the brain affects the ability to use language.

From those definitions above, it is concluded that there is a logical relationship between language and the brain. Linguistics as Yule (2006) proposed has an interdisciplinary subfield studying about the relationship between language and the brain which is called ***neurolinguistics***. In addition, Trask (1999:134) stated that *neurolinguistics* is the study of the connections between language and brain.

The study of the relation between language and brain was begun in the mid-nineteenth century by the Frenchman Paul Broca and the German Carl Wernicke (Trask, 1999:134). What they did was to study and characterize the ***aphasia***(disturbed language) of people who had suffered brain damage, and then, after the sufferers' deaths, to conduct post-mortem examinations in order to find out which areas of the brain had been damaged. As quoted from Yule (2006:142) "Aphasiais defined as an impairment of language function due to localized brain damage that leads to difficulty in understanding and/or producing linguistic forms". In addition, the classification of different types of aphasia is usually based on the primary symptoms of someone having dif-

ficulties with language presented as follows.

1. **Broca's Aphasia**

   Broca's Aphasia is characterized by a substantially reduced amount of speech, distorted articulation and slow, often effortful speech. What is said often consists almost entirely of lexical morphemes (e.g. nouns, verbs). The frequent omission of functional morphemes (e.g. articles, prepositions) and inflections (e.g. plural *-s*, past tense *-ed*) has led to the characterization of this type of aphasic speech as 'agrammatic'. In **agrammatic**speech, the grammatical markers are missing (Yule, 2012: p. 162). Further Yule provided an example, *I eggs and eat and drink coffee breakfast.*InBroca's aphasia, comprehension is typically much better than production.

2. **Wernicke's Aphasia**

   The other type of language disorder that results in difficulties in auditory comprehension is known as Wernicke's Aphasia, but sometime it is called "sensory aphasia". Someone suffering from this disorder can actually produce very fluent speech which is, however, often difficult to make sense of. Very general terms are used, even in response to specific requests for information, as in this example: *I can't talk all of the things I do, and part of the part I can go alright, but I can't tell from the other people*. To overcome their word-finding difficulties, speakers use different strategies such as trying to describe objects or talking about their purpose, as in *the thing to put cigarettes in* (for 'ashtray').

3. Conduction Aphasia

This type of aphasia has been associated with damage to the **arcuate fasciculus**. Individuals suffering from this disorder sometimes mispronounce words, but typically do not have articulation problems. They are fluent, but may have disrupted rhythm because of pauses and hesitations. Comprehension of spoken words is normally good. However, the task of repeating a word or phrase (spoken by someone else) creates major difficulty, with forms such as *vaysse*and*fosh*being reported as attempted repetitions of the words 'base' and 'wash'. What the speaker hears and understands can't be transferred very successfully to the speech production area.

Similar to the previous definition about aphasia, Richards & Schmidt (2002:28) state, "***Aphasia***isloss of the ability to use and understand language, usually caused by damage to the brain". It may be total or partial, and may affect spoken and/or written language ability.

Furthermore, Richards & Schmidt (2002:28) state that *Aphasia* is divided into four types described as follows:

1. **Agraphia**(difficulty in writing)
2. **Alexia** (difficulty in reading)
3. **Anomia** (difficulty in using proper nouns)
4. **Agrammatism**(difficulty in using grammatical words like prepositions, articles, etc.)

B. Where is language localized in the brain?

In the mid-twentieth century, the American neurologist Nor-

man Geschwind elaborated the view of the brain as consisting of a number of specialized components with connections between them, and he also provided the basis of our modern classification of the several languageareasin the brain and of the types of aphasia resulting from damage to each (Trask, 1999:135). It is to be illustrated in the following figure:

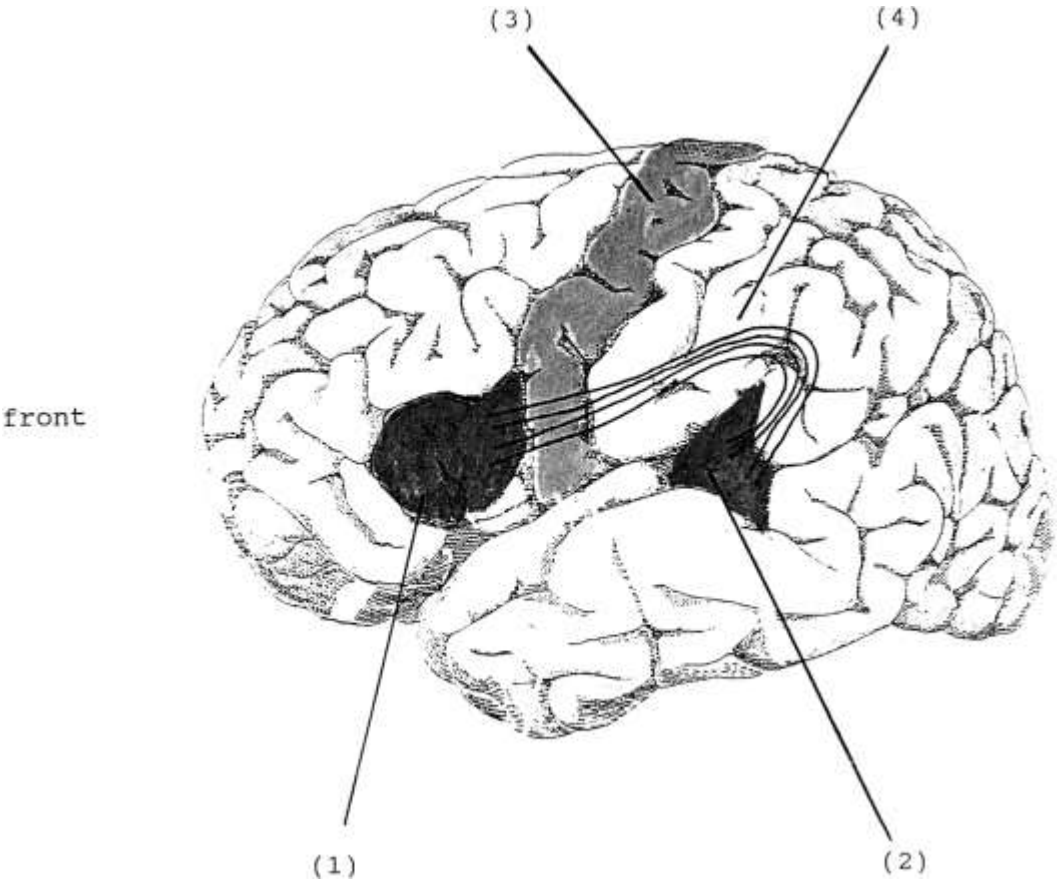


FIG. 9.2.1: The language areas in the brain

Source: Reprinted from Yule (2006), *The Study of Language, Third Edition,* NY: Cambridge University Press, p. 138.

The part shown as (1) in the illustration is technically described as the 'anterior speech cortex' or, more usually, as **Broca's area** (Yule, 2006:139). Paul Broca, a French surgeon, reported in the 1860s that damage to this specific part of the brain was related to extreme difficulty in producing speech. It was noted that damage to the corresponding area on the right hemisphere had no such effect. This finding was first used to argue that language ability must be located in the left hemisphere and since then has been treated as an indication that Broca's area is crucially involved in the production of speech.

Similar to Yule, Trask (1999:98) state that Broca's area is located close to the temple. It is responsible for providing the necessary grammatical structure, including grammatical words and affixes; in speech, it also controls intonation and the fine muscular movements of the speech organs.

The part shown as (2) in the illustration is the 'posterior speech cortex', or **Wernicke's area** (Yule, 2006:139). Carl Wernicke was a German doctor who, in the 1870s, reported that damage to this part of the brain was found among patients who had speech comprehension difficulties. This finding confirmed the left hemisphere location of language ability and led to the view that Wernicke's area is part of the brain crucially involved in the understanding of speech. In the same line, Trask (1999:98) state that Wernicke's areais located behind and above the ear. It is responsible for comprehension and also for access to ordinary vocabulary in speaking.

According to Yule (2006:139), "The part shown as (3) in the illustration is the **motor cortex**, an area that generally controls

movement of the muscles (for moving hands, feet, arms, etc.)". It controls the articulatory muscles of the face, jaw, tongue and larynx. Wilder Penfield and LaMar Roberts, neurosurgeons at Montreal Neurological Institute, claim that by applying small amounts of electrical current to specific areas of the brain, they could identify those areas where the electrical stimulation would interfere with normal speech production. In addition, they are able to conclude that three areas of left hemisphere are vital to speech and language: **Broca's area, Wernicke's area, and motor cortex** (Akmajian, et.al., 2001:530).

The last part shown as (4) in the illustration is a bundle of nerve fibers called the **arcuate fasciculus**. This was also one ofWernicke's discoveries and is now known to form a crucial connection between Wernicke's and Broca's areas (Yule, 2006:139). Similar to Yule, Trask (1999:98) also state that since Wernicke's area is close to the part of the brain which processes auditory input, and since Broca's area is close to the area controlling muscular movements, we require only one further link to make sense of the whole arrangement. This link, the ***arcuate fasciculus,*** was found long ago. It consists of a J-shaped bundle of fibers connecting Wernicke's area to Broca's area.

Chapter X
FIRST LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

ONE of the properties of language is cultural transmission meaning that the language a child is acquired in a particular language-using environment (Yule, 2006:149). It is not genetically inherited as like the animals. Language development occurs in all children with normal brain function, regardless of race, cultures, or general intelligence (Akmajian, et.al., 2001:477). It means that all of children have the capacity to acquire language.

Language acquisition is defined as the learning and development of a person's language (Richards & Schmidt, 2002:284). Similarly, Trask (1999:93) defines that language acquisition is the process by which a child acquires its mother tongue. In addition, according to Bussmann (1996:629), "From 1950 to 1980 research brought forth four main hypotheses regarding first language acquisition presented in the following discussions".

A. The Behavioristic Hypothesis

According to Richards & Schmidt, (2002:49), "*Behaviourism* is a theory of psychology which states that human and animal behavior can and should be studied only in terms of physical processes, without reference to mind. It led to theories of learning which explained how an external event (*a stimulus*) caused a change in the behaviour of an individual (*a response*), based on a history of reinforcement. Furthermore, this first hypothesis is called stimulus-response theory as well. It is a learning theory associated particularly with the American psychologist B.F. Skinner (1904–90), which describes learning as the formation of associations between responses. A *stimulus*is what produces a change or reaction in an individual or organism.A *response*is the behaviour which is produced as a reaction to a stimulus (Richards & Schmidt, 2002:514).

Based on the explanation above, we can conclude that this first hypothesis traces language-learning processes back to experience, imitation, and selective conditioning. Behavioural psychologists believe that people 52 are conditioned to learn many forms of behaviour, including language, through the process of training or

conditioning, and that learning consists of stimulus-response connections (Richards & Schmidt, 2002:105).

In sum, Behaviorist psychologists have claimed that language is learned through the mechanism of reinforcing the contingent association between stimulus and response. According to this view, children learn language because they are positively reinforced when they produce correct verbal expressions, negatively reinforced when they make errors (Guasti, 2002:12). In other words, Behaviorists believed that language is a product of experience.

B. The Nativistic Hypothesis

According to Bussmann (1996:629), "This second hypothesis arises from Chomsky's criticism of Skinner and according to which language acquisition is considered to be a more or less autonomous process of maturation based on an inborn mechanism of language acquisition. According to this nativist view, acquisition results from the interaction between inborn factors and the environment (Guasti, 2002:18). This hypothesis places emphasis on the development of linguistic competence and performance".

According to Chomsky (1965:4),"Competence [is] the speaker-hearer's knowledge of his language and performance [is] the actual use of language in concrete situations". Similarly, Richards & Schmidt (2002:93-94,392) state that competence is the implicit system of rules that constitutes a person's knowledge of a language. This includes a person's ability to create and understand sentences, including sentences they have never heard before, knowledge of what are and what are not sentences of a particular

language, and the ability to recognize ambiguous and deviant sentences. Further, performance is a person's actual use of language.

This second hypothesis is called as *Innateness Hypothesis* as well. It is a theory held by some philosophers and linguists which says that human knowledge develops from structures, processes, and "ideas" which are in the mind at birth (i.e. are innate), rather than from the environment, and that these are responsible for the basic structure of language and how it is learned (Richards & Schmidt, 2002:260). In other words, all of human beings have the innate capacity for language. Chomsky countered that Behaviorist psychologists' claim had to be wrong because children were able to produce linguistic structures that they could not possibly have encountered through everyday experience, the notion of poverty of stimulus (Meyer, 2009:16).

As the reflection about this theory of language acquisition, Chomsky postulated the notion namely *UniversalGrammar*(UG). It is a theory which claims to account for the grammatical competence of every adult no matter what language he or she speaks. It means that every speaker knows a set of principleswhich apply to all languages and also a set of parameters that can vary from one language to another, but only within certain limits. According to this theory, acquiring a language means applying the principles of UG grammar to a particular language (Richards & Schmidt, 2002:570).

As explained above, we are able to conclude that in acquiring language all normal children imitate adult's speech as a result of interaction between their inborn factors and their environment.

They are able to adopt a lot of vocabulary from adults. Hence, they are to produce many expressions. Unquestionably, the process of imitating speech sound from adults involves their language competence and performance (to actualize their knowledge of language in concrete situation). As a result, they are able to produce strings of words in phrases or sentences, known as *Telegraphic Speech*. Then, they arrive at the stage of developing morphology, syntax, forming questions and negatives, and developing semantics (Yule, 2006:155-158).

Furthermore, children learn language by imitating what adults say, by trying to repeat what they hear. Children continually produce novel utterances, in two senses. For one thing, they hear a finite number of sentences, but they come to be able to produce and understand indefinitely many sentences, including vast numbers they have never heard and therefore cannot be imitating. For another thing, children produce utterances that they cannot have heard before, because the adult speakers in their environment do not produce them (Guasti, 2002:11).

In addition, Guasti, Thornton, and Wexler (1995) in Guasti (2002:11) have found that English-speaking children aged 4-5 years produce negative questions as shown in the following illustration:

1. What does he doesn't eat?
2. Why not you eating?
3. Why could he couldn't wash his hands?

As illustrated, they basically do this because they are attempting to discover the "rules" operating in their language, rules that may vary from one language to another. It additionally

shows that children have their own set of rules. They do not learn language by simply imitating adults. As a result, those facts point toward the conclusion that imitation does not play a crucial role in language acquisition (Guasti, 2002:12).

C. The Cognition Hypothesis

This hypothesis takes into account the relationship between the developing cognitive and intellectual abilities (Bussmann, 1996:629). Cognitive is defined as the various mental processes used in thinking, remembering, perceiving, recognizing, classifying, etc. (Richards & Schmidt, 2002:82). In addition, they add that there is a "*stage theory of development*", also known as *cognitive development*, which is developed by Piaget. He proposed that such development consists of four major stages, labelled:

a) *Sensorimotor Stage*(birth to 2 years). The child's cognitive system is limited to motor reflexes at birth.
b) *Preoperational Stage*(2 to 7 or 7 years). Children acquire representational skills and especially language.
c) *Concrete Operational Stage*(6/7 to 11/12). Children are able to understand concrete problems and take multiple perspectives into account.
d) *Formal Operational Stage*(11/12 to adult). At this stage children are capable of logical, theoretical, and abstract cognitive operations.

D. The Social Constitution Hypothesis

This hypothesis gives priority to the importance of the child's socialization and interaction (Bussmann, 1996:629). In this hypo-

thesis, the child's desire for experience and communication with others provides the principal impetus for the development of linguistic abilities.

Chapter XI
LANGUAGE AND SOCIETY

A. Sociolinguistics

As stated in the first chapter, language is humans' characteristic differentiating them from the other creatures. People use it as a means to communicate to one another and make social interaction among them. When we are studying about language, indeed, we are studying society. In other words, studying about language involves society as language users.

Linguists are extremely interested in studying language as social phenomenon. Indeed, it cannot be separated from numerous social aspects influencing the language itself. The subfield of linguistics studying about language as social product in relation to

the society is called sociolinguistics. Following are definitions about sociolinguistics quoted from several sources.

1. Sociolinguistics [is] the study of language and society (Finch, 1998:106).
2. Scientific discipline developed from the cooperation of linguistics and sociology that investigates the social meaning of the language system and of language use, and the common set of conditions of linguistic and social structure (Bussmann, 1996:1089).
3. Sociolinguistics is the study of language in relation to social factors that is social class, educational level and type of education, age, sex, ethnic origin, etc. (Richards & Schmidt, 2002:494).
4. Sociolinguistics is the empirical study of how language is used in society (Arnoff and Rees-Miller, 2001, [2003]:563).
5. Sociolinguistics is the branch of linguistics which studies the relation between language and society (Trask, 1999:187).
6. The study of the linguistic features that have social relevance for participants in those speech communities is called 'sociolinguistics' (Yule, 2006:205).

As previously discussed, there are so many factors influencing our language. Finch (1998:201) lists them as consideration for us that might affect our language described as follows:

a. Social Class

   This factor includes educations, parental background, and profession. These all have an effect in someone's pronunciation and choice of words as well.

b. Social Context

It refers to the environment in which meanings are exchanged (Richards& Schmidt, 2002:49). It affects our speech in various environments such as formal and informal situation.

c. Geographical Origins

In this factor, someone still preserve some features of regional accent.

d. Ethnicity

Someone will use language in ways that a non-native speaker wouldn't.

e. Nationality

As a native inhabitant of Britain, for example, someone will speak differently from an American or Australian.

f. Gender

Male and female have different pitch (intonation pattern). Our voice quality affects our language use.

g. Age

It affects our language use in terms of diction, pronunciation, and manner of expression.

B. Sociolinguistics and the Sociology of Language

In Wardhaugh (2006:13), some investigators introduced the distinction between sociolinguistics, called as micro-sociolinguistics, and the sociology of language (macro-sociolinguistics). The first term concerns 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. On the other hand, the second

term is trying to discover how social structure can be better understood through the study of language.

Similarly, Richards & Schmidt (2002:494) state that micro-sociolinguistics includes the detailed study of interpersonal communication (speech acts, conversation analysis, speech events, and sequencing of utterances). Macro-sociolinguistics includes investigations which relate variation in the language used by a group of people to social factors.

In addition, Coulmas (1997) in Wardhaugh (2006:13) state that micro-sociolinguistics investigates how social structure influences the way people talk and how language varieties and patterns of use correlate with social attributes such as class, sex, and age. Macro-sociolinguistics, on the other hand, studies what societies do with their languages, that is, attitudes and attachments that account for the functional distribution of speech forms in society, language shift, maintenance, and replacement, the delimitation and interaction of speech communities.

From those definitions above, we can conclude that sociolinguistics is the study of language in relation to the society. The Sociology of Language, on the other hand, is the study of society in relation to language.

C. Language Variations

Nowadays language variations become an interesting topic to investigate. This variety can be said as the result of humans' interactions with other universals characteristic of human societies in their entire aspect of life.

Hudson (1996, p. 22) and Ferguson (1972, p. 30) in Ward-

haugh (2006:25)agree in defining *variety* in terms of a specific set of 'linguistic items' or 'human speech patterns' (presumably, sounds, words, grammatical features, etc.) which we can uniquely associate with some external factor (presumably, a geographical area or a social group).This definition allows us to say that all of the following are varieties: Canadian English, London English, the English of football commentaries, and so on.

Moreover, Richards & Schmidt (2002:577) state that language variations refer to the differences in pronunciation, grammar, or word choice within a language. Variation in a language may be related to region, to social class and/or educational background or to the degree of formality of a situation in which language is used. These numerous social aspects which relates to the language variations are going to be explained in the following discussions.

1. Dialect

   It is defined as a variety of a language, spoken in one part of a country (regional dialect), or by people belonging to a particular social class (social dialect or *sociolect*), which is different in some words, grammar, and/or pronunciation from other forms of the same language (Richards & Schmidt, 2002:155).

2. Accent

   It refers to a particular way of speaking which tells the listener something about the speaker's background (Richards & Schmidt, 2002:3). In British usage, the term ***dialect*** includes only features of grammar and vocabulary, while features of pronunciation are treated under the quite different heading of

accent. In American usage, an accent is usually considered to be just one part of a dialect (Trask, 1999:50).

3. Style

   It is a variation in a person's speech or writing. Style usually varies from casual to formal according to the type of situation, the person or persons addressed, the location, the topic discussed, etc. (Richards & Schmidt, 2002:522).

4. Register

   Richards & Schmidt (2002:452) define register as a speech variety used by a particular group of people, usually sharing the same occupation (e.g. doctors, lawyers) or the same interests (e.g. stamp collectors, baseball fans).

5. Diglossia

   Two languages or language varieties exist side by side in a community and each one is used for different purposes; this is called *diglossia* (Richards & Schmidt, 2002:158). Usually, one is a more standard variety called the **High variety** or **H-variety**, which is used in government, the media, education, and for religious services. The other one is usually a non-prestige variety called the **Low-variety** or **L-variety**, which is used in the family, with friends, when shopping, etc.

6. Slang

   It is very informal speech, using expressive but informal words and expressions (Richards & Schmidt, 2002:490). It is used for a very informal speech variety which often serves as an "in-group" language for a particular set of people such as teenagers, army recruits, pop groups, etc.

7. Lingua franca

Richards & Schmidt (2002:309) state that lingua franca is a language that is used for communication between different groups of people, each speaking a different language. The lingua franca could be an internationally used language of communication (e.g. English).

8. Pidgin and Creole

According to Richards & Schmidt (2002:401), "Pidgin is a language which develops as a **contact language** when groups of people who speak different languages try to communicate with one another on a regular basis." For example, this has occurred many times in the past when foreign traders had to communicate with the local population or groups of workers from different language backgrounds on plantations or in factories. A pidgin usually has a limited vocabulary and a reduced grammatical structure which may expand when a pidgin is used over a long period and for many purposes.

Creole is defined as a pidgin language which has become the native language of a group of speakers, being used for all or many of their daily communicative needs. Usually, the sentence structures and vocabulary range of a creole are far more complex than those of a pidgin language (Richards & Schmidt, 2002:132).

D. Standard Language

Based on the explanation above, we can arrive at an assumption that language must be standardized. *Standardization* refers to the process by which a language has been codified in some way. That process usually involves the development of such

things as grammars, spelling books, and dictionaries, and possibly a literature (Wardhaugh, 2006:33). According to Richards & Schmidt (2002:510), "*Standardization* is the process of making some aspect of language usage conforms to a standard variety. This may take place in connection with the writing system or the spelling system of a particular language and is usually implemented by a government authority." For example, a standardized system has been introduced in Malaysia and Indonesia, which provides a common standard for the spelling of Malay and Indonesian, which are both varieties of the same language.

	Indonesian	**Malay**	**Meaning**
Old Spelling	Tjantik	Tjantek	Pretty, Good looking
New Spelling	Cantik	Cantek	
Old Spelling	Burung	Burong	Bird
New Spelling	Burung	Burung	

Moreover, because language functions as the public means of communication, it is subject to extensive normalization (especially in the realm of grammar, pronunciation, and spelling), which is controlled and passed on via the public media and institutions, but above all through the school systems. Command of the standard language is the goal of formal language instruction (Bussmann, 1996:1117).

According to Richards & Schmidt (2002:509) standard language is the variety of a language which has the highest status in a community or nation and which is usually based on the speech and writing of educated native speakers of the language. A standard variety is generally:

a. used in the news media and in literature,
b. described in dictionaries and grammars, and
c. taught in schools and taught to non-native speakers when they learn the language as a foreign language.

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CURRICULUM VITAE

Moch. Imam Machfudi was born in a small village in the district of Mojokerto, East Java. His father was a farmer who also came from farmer family. His primary and secondary studies have been spent in Mojokerto. He moved to Jember in 1989 to pursue his bachelor degree in English literature in a Faculty called Fakultas Sastra at Jember University. When doing his bachelor he stayed in an Islamic boarding house for about four years, and he learned religious teaching besides studying literature. He focused on studying about American literature by analyzing Mark Twain's novel *The Adventures of Heckleberry Finn* where he finds that the slavery is central topic or theme in the novel. His study finds that slavery is not in accordance with the principle of humanity. He brought about Islamic teaching as the basis for his conceptual framework of his study and that made him awarded a bachelor degree in 1994.

His passion is on linguistics study and when he had the opportunity to get a masters degree he took the linguistics study on literature, his master's thesis analysed William Butler Yeats' poems from linguistics perspective. He got his master degree after finishing his thesis entitled "Syntactic analysis and semantic interpretation of William Butler Yeat's poems: a linguistic approach to literature". He finished his study in 2006.

In 2012, he got scholarship from the 62 ministry of religious affairs of Republic Indonesia to do his Ph.D abroad. He was accepted at the Faculty of Education, University of Southern Queensland, Australia. In USQ he studied at the School of Linguistics, Adult and Specialist Education supervised by a principal supervisor Dr. Ann Dashwood and associate supervisor Associate Professor Dr. Robyn Henderson, Ph.D. In this school, he focused on Teacher Professional Development and submitted his thesis in June 2016. He got his result and completely finished after quite a long struggle doing revisions and finally got his Ph.D in February 2017.

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