FUTURE SCIENCE

INTRODUCING THE ESSENTIAL PARTS OF LINGUISTICS

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Book Chapter

Introducing the Essential Parts of Linguistics

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PREFACE

First of all, Thanks to Allah, the Almighty for the blessing and guidance to finish this book. I would like to express my sincere gratitude to the authors for the idea and valuable knowledge throughout this book that entitled **Introducing the Essential Parts of Linguistics**. Linguistics is often known as the science of language, the study of the human capacity to communicate and organize thought using different tools (the vocal tract for spoken languages, hands for sign languages, etc.) and involving different abstract and tactile components.

This book consists of 12 chapters: (1) introducing linguistics, (2) phonetics, (3) phonology, (4) morphology, (5) syntax, (6) sociolinguistics, (7) semantics, (8) pragmatics, (9) child language acquisition, (10) adult language learning, (11) psycholinguistics, (12) stylistics.

I also wish to thank to the team of future science publisher of this book for the guidance and help to proceed the book. Again, thank you to all the authors for expressing the thoughts and sharing the idea of english tenses. Thank you all for your valuable contribution to this book.

Pematang Siantar, November 2024

Editor,

Bertaria Sohnata Hutauruk

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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCING
THE ESSENTIAL PARTS OF LINGUISTICS

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1.1. INTRODUCTION

Sometimes we get confused by many kind of rulr grammar that seems very complicated but there are points that should be clear to readers who learn English that readers should know the essential part of language. Basic terms and concepts in linguistics .What are the essential concepts in language? Key 'levels of language' include syntax, semantics, pragmatics, morphology, phonetics and phonology. Why is the concept of language important? There are many terms and ideas that are important for you to know in the context of your study of English Language, however, in this article, we'll be focusing on the ones surrounding the Key Concepts in Language and linguistics.

If we think for a moment about the origins of the English language (don't worry, this won't take long!), we can see that it has been influenced by many other languages, including French, Latin and Greek. However, English is classed as a Germanic language, as it was heavily influenced by Anglo-Saxon settlers in Britain around the 5th century. This is why the syntax and grammar of English are similar to German. English grammar was originally influenced by its Germanic ancestry, but who makes the rules now? Well - nobody, and everybody! There is no official regulating body that decides on the rules of English grammar, and like most languages, the rules rely on a general

consensus.In this part, we will look at the principles of English grammar; knowing these will help improve your communication skills and give you an advantage in your English language studies. Essential parts of English Grammar – concern with the following :

(1) A morpheme is the smallest unit of meaning in a language. It cannot be reduced beyond its current state without losing its meaning.
(2) Clauses contain a subject and a predicate. In English, there are two major clause types: independent clauses and dependent clauses.
(3) Conjunctions are words that connect two words, clauses, or phrases. They help to form longer, more complex sentences from simple sentences.
(4) A phrase is a group of interrelated words that can function alone, or as part of a sentence or clause. Phrases differ from clauses because they don't require a subject and predicate.
(5) There are two types of grammatical voice: the active voice and the passive voice.
(6) Tenses give us a sense of time by telling us whether something is in the past, present or future.
(7) Aspects give us additional information about a verb by telling us whether an action has been completed, is continuous, is both, or is neither. Aspects work together with tenses.
(8) There are four different types of sentences: simple, compound, complex, and compound-complex.
(9) There are four main sentence functions: declarative, interrogative, imperative, and exclamative.
(10) Sentence Functions describe the purpose of a sentence. There are four main sentence functions in the English language: declarative, interrogative, imperative, and exclamative.

(11) Word classes help us to better understand the elements that form phrases and sentences.There are four main word classes: nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. These are considered lexical word classes and they provide the most meaning in a sentence. The other five word classes are prepositions, pronouns, determiners, conjunctions, and interjection

1.2. ESSENTIAL PARTS OF LINGUISTICS

Elements of English grammar . Below we have covered some of the most essential elements of English grammar. Keep in mind that we also have individual articles for each of these elements, which cover the topics in more detail. The main elements of English grammar we'll be looking at today are: morphemes, clauses, conjunctions, types of phrase, grammatical voice, tenses, aspects, types of sentence, sentence functions, and word classes.

1.2.1. MORPHEMES

A morpheme is the smallest unit of meaning in a language; this means it cannot be reduced without losing its meaning. The word *luck* is a morpheme as it cannot be made any smaller. Morphemes are different from syllables, which are units of pronunciation. There are two types of morphemes: free morphemes and bound morphemes**.**

a. **Free morphemes**

Free morphemes can stand alone. Most words fall into this category, regardless of how long they are. Take the word 'tall' for example - it has a meaning on its own, you can't break it down into smaller parts (such as t-all, ta-ll, or tal-l). 'Ostrich' is also a free morpheme; despite having more than one syllable, it cannot be broken down into smaller parts. Free morphemes can be either lexical or functional. Lexical

morphemes give us the main meaning of a sentence or text; they include nouns (e.g. *boy, watermelon*), adjectives (e.g. *tiny, grey*), and verbs (e.g. *run, parachute*). Functional morphemes help to hold the structure of a sentence together; they include prepositions (e.g. *with, by, for*), conjunctions (e.g. *and, but*), articles (e.g. *the, a, an*) and auxiliary verbs (*e.g. am, is, are*).In the phrase, *'The tiny boy is running.'* The lexical morphemes are 'tiny', 'boy', and running', and the functional morphemes are 'the', and 'is'.

b. **Bound morphemes**

Bound morphemes cannot stand alone and have to be bound to another morpheme. Bound morphemes include prefixes, like *pre-, un-, dis-* (e.g. prerecorded, undivided), and suffixes, like *-er, -ing, -est* (e.g. smaller, smiling, widest). Prefixes and suffixes both come under the category of 'affixes'.

1.2.2. TWO MAJOR CLAUSE TYPES

Clauses are the building blocks of sentences. Clauses contain a subject (a person, place, or thing) and a predicate (the part of the sentence that contains a verb or information about the subject). In English, there are two major clause types; independent clauses and dependent clauses.

Independent clauses

An independent clause (also called the main clause) is part of a sentence that works on its own - it can be a complete sentence without any additions. Examples of independent clauses:

- Simon started crying.
- We will have some dessert.
- Merle lives in a small town.

Dependent clauses

Dependent clauses (also known as subordinate clauses) do not form a complete sentence on their own -they have to be added to independent clauses to make grammatical sense. Examples of dependent clauses:

- When he broke his leg.
- After the main course.
- Where it's always sunny.

Now let's put the independent clauses and the dependent clauses together:

Independent clause	Dependent clause
Simon started crying	when he broke his leg.
We will have some dessert	after the main course.
Merle lives in a small town	where it's always sunny.

As you can see, the independent clauses make sense on their own and with the dependent clauses added. The dependent clauses do not make sense unless they are attached to an independent clause.

1.3. CONJUNCTIONS

Conjunctions are words that “conjoin” or “connect” words, clauses, or phrases. They are an important grammatical tool as they help to form longer, more complex sentences, with simple sentences. Thanks to conjunctions, the short, simple sentences *'I sing'*, *'I play the piano'*, and '*I don't play the guitar*' can become one longer, more complex sentence: '*I sing and I play the piano but I don't play the guitar'*. The conjunctions '*and'* and *'but'* connect the shorter sentences. There are three types of conjunction, each used for different purposes: coordinating

conjunctions, subordinating conjunctions, and correlating conjunctions.

1. **Coordinating Conjunctions**

   Coordinating conjunctions join two parts of a sentence that have equal meaning or are equal in importance. This could be two words or two clauses (see the previous section for more on clauses). There are seven coordinating conjunctions in English. An easy way to remember them is with the acronym 'FANBOYS':

   For, And, Nor, But, Or, Yet, So.

   - Olivia has three rabbits and ten fish.
   - Ben didn't want to speak to his parents or his grandparents.
   - I love roast dinners but I can't stand sprouts.

2. **Subordinating conjunctions**

   Subordinating conjunctions join two parts of a sentence that have unequal meanings. In other words, they join an independent clause to a dependent clause (again, see the section above on clauses if you're not sure what this means). Subordinating conjunctions are used to show cause and effect, a contrast, or a relationship of time/place between clauses. Examples of subordinating conjunctions:

   - Peter didn't leave the house due to the tiger in his front garden.
   - Peter is going to the bakery if the tiger leaves his garden.
   - The tiger has been there since midday.

3. **Correlating conjunctions**

   Correlating conjunctions are two conjunctions that work together in a sentence; they are also known as paired conjunctions. Examples of correlating conjunctions:

   - I'm going to eat either soup or casserole for dinner.

- Mia was not only rude but also quite mean.
- My mum is taking both my sister and me to the beach.

1.4. TYPES OF PHRASE

A phrase is a group of interrelated words that can function on its own, or as part of a sentence or clause. A phrase is different from a clause because it does not require a subject and a predicate (see our section on clauses for more information on this). There are five different types of phrase: noun phrase**,** adjective phrase**,** verb phrase**,** prepositional phrase and adverb phrase**.** Let's take a look at them now.

1. **Noun phrase**

   A noun phrase functions as a noun; it consists of the noun and its modifiers and/or determiners. Modifiers - An optional word which gives more meaning to a noun, pronoun, or verb. Determiners - Words used in front of nouns to show when you are referring to something specific. They add information regarding quantity, ownership, and specificity.

   - The small brown dog was yapping.
   - I work in the city centre library.
   - Look at that massive fish!

2. **Adjective phrase**

   An adjective phrase functions as an adjective, meaning that it modifies (i.e. gives more information about) a noun or pronoun. An adjective phrase consists of the adjective and its modifiers and/or determiners.

   - The film was very short.
   - This section contains some absolutely fascinating books.
   - Bill is even stronger than all of the boys in his class

3. Verb phrase

A verb phrase functions as a verb; it contains a verb and any auxiliary verbs (e.g. *be, have, do*), plus any modifiers and/or determiners.

- I am waiting for my big day to come.
- She has written a lot of books.
- The show will be starting soon.

4. Prepositional phrase

A prepositional phrase contains a preposition and its object, along with any modifiers and/or determiners**.**

- The cow jumped over the moon**.**
- Her shoes were inside the wardrobe.
- We ventured into the briny deep.

5. Adverb phrase

An adverb phrase (sometimes known as an adverbial phrase) functions as (you guessed it) an adverb. An adverb phrase explains *how, why, where,* or *when* a verb is done.

- They stirred the stew with a wooden spoon.
- He finished the exam at record speed.
- Every day I feed the ducks.

1.5. GRAMMATICAL VOICE

In English, there are two types of grammatical voice: the active voice and the passive voice.The active voice is much more common - in the active voice, the subject does the action. In the passive voice, the subject is acted upon. Compare the sentences below and note how the active voice draws attention to the doer of an action, whereas the passive voice draws attention to the thing being acted upon. The thing being acted upon is known as the object**.**

Active voice	Passive voice
Jenny ate a pizza.	The pizza was eaten by Jenny.
Everybody loves the sunshine.	The sunshine is loved by everybody.
The snail left a trail.	A trail was left by the snail.

The subject is the focus of a sentence - it is what (or who) the sentence is about. In the sentence 'Jenny ate a pizza', Jenny is the subject, and the pizza is the object. In the sentence 'The pizza was eaten by Jenny', the pizza is the subject.

1.5.1. TENSES

Tenses tell us whether something is in the past, present or future. See the table below for a comparison of the three main tenses. Some linguists argue that the future isn't technically a 'tense' in English; however, it is now commonly taught as tense and it's helpful to put it here so you can see how the verb moves from past to future.

Past tense	Present tense	Future tense
We walked.	We walk.	We will walk.
I went to work.	I go to work.	I want to go to work.
He baked a cake.	He bakes a cake.	He will bake a cake.

All of the examples above are the "simple" versions of each tense. There are a total of four versions of each tense, creating twelve different tenses - to find out more, read the following section on aspects.

1.6. ASPECTS

Aspects give us additional information about a verb by telling us whether an action has been completed, is continuous, is both, or is neither. Aspects work together with tenses to add precision. The two main aspects are progressive and perfective. We will look at examples of each one, and see what happens when we pair them with different tenses.

1. **Progressive**

   The progressive aspect (also called the continuous aspect) tells us that the verb or action is, was, or will be, continuous. Examples of the progressive aspect:

Past progressive tense	Present progressive tense	Future progressive tense
The girl was eating chocolate.	The girl is eating chocolate.	The girl will be eating chocolate.
We were playing together.	We are playing together.	We will be playing together.
I was cooking pasta.	I am cooking pasta.	I will be cooking pasta.

You can describe verbs or actions as continuous regardless of whether they are in the past, present or future. For example, compare the simple past tense of '*The girl ate chocolate*' to the past progressive tense of '*The girl was eating chocolate*'. To say the girl '*was eating*' suggests that the action occurred over a period of time, and so it was continuous.

2. PERFECTIVE

The perfective aspect tells us that the verb or action is either complete, will be complete, or will have been continuous up to a certain point. Examples of the perfect aspect:

Past perfect tense	Present perfect tense	Future perfect tense
The girl had eaten chocolate.	The girl has eaten chocolate.	The girl will have eaten chocolate.
We were playing together.	We have played together.	We will have played together.
I had cooked pasta.	I have cooked pasta.	I will have cooked pasta.

As you can see, the perfective aspect can tell us that an action is complete, e.g. the present perfect tense *'I have cooked pasta'*, or it can tell us that it will be complete, such as the future perfect tense of *'I will have cooked pasta'*. The perfective aspect can also tell us that an action has been continuous up to a certain point e.g. '*I have lived in Tokyo for ten years*' (an example of the present perfect tense) tells you how long I have lived in Tokyo, up to the present moment. Similarly, the phrase '*Next week, I will have lived in Tokyo for eleven years*' (an example of the future perfect tense) tells you how long I will have lived in Tokyo at a point in the future (in this case, next week).

3. THE TWELVE TENSES

When we pair up aspects with tenses, we get a total of twelve tenses; these tell us whether an action is in the past, present or future, along with its "status" (whether it is continuing or completed). Below is a list of all twelve tenses with examples:

Tense	Example
Simple past	I saw a ship on the horizon.
Past perfect	She had written her essay.
Past progressive	They were climbing the steep hill.
Past perfect progressive	I had been thinking about it all night.
Simple present	Mary sings a melody.
Present perfect	I have witnessed a disaster.
Present progressive	He is eating his dinner.
Present perfect progressive	Sajid has been painting all afternoon.
Simple future	Our team will win the tournament.
Future perfect	I will have completed every level on this game once I beat the final boss.
Future progressive	I will be straightening my hair tonight.
Future perfect progressive	At the end of the term, Judy will have been teaching at this school for a decade.

1.7. TYPES OF SENTENCE

There are four main types of sentences.

1. Simple sentences
2. Compound sentences
3. Complex sentences
4. Compound-complex sentences

You can spot the sentence type by looking at the clauses.

1. Simple sentences

   Simple sentences usually communicate things clearly**.** The sentences do not need added information as they work well

on their own, and they consist of a single independent clause. For example:

- James waited for the bus.
- I looked for Mary at the park.
- We all walked to the shop.

Simple sentences usually communicate things clearly. The sentences do not need added information as they work well on their own; they consist of a single independent clause.

2. Compound sentences

   Compound sentences combine two or more independent clauses, joining them with a comma, semicolon, or coordinating conjunction (see our section on conjunctions for more information on what these are). Like simple sentences, compound sentences do not include dependent clauses (clauses that rely on the rest of the sentence). If the link (e.g. a comma or conjunction) between the two (or more) independent clauses weren't there, they could both work independently as simple sentences.

   - I need to go to work but I am too sick to drive.
   - He ran out of money so he couldn't buy lunch.
   - The sun is shining and the air is fresh.

3. Complex Sentences

   Complex sentences are slightly different from the other two types of sentences as they include a dependent clause (also known as a subordinate clause). They are formed by adding dependent clauses to an independent clause. The dependent clauses are either joined to the main (independent) clause through subordinating conjunctions or relative pronouns. The relative pronouns are *that, which, who, whose, whom,* and *whomever*.

   - I heated my food in the microwave because it had gone cold.

- Amy sent back her item after she realized it was damaged.
- I tried to get the attention of the cashier whose wig had fallen off.

4. Compound-Complex Sentences

   This type of sentence combines a compound sentence with a complex sentence. Compound-complex sentences contain two (or more) independent clauses as well as at least one dependent clause. Because of this, they are usually the longest sentence type, as they include a lot of clauses.

   - Since leaving school**,** I have been working in an office and I am saving up to buy a car.
   - I was thirsty so I went to the fridge to grab a can of soda.
   - Peter waited patiently until after midnight, but the tiger refused to budge.

1.8. SENTENCE FUNCTIONS

Sentence functions describe the purpose of a sentence. There are four main sentence functions in the English language: declarative, interrogative, imperative, and exclamative.

1. DECLARATIVE

   Declarative sentences are the most common. We use declarative sentences to make a statement, give an opinion, provide an explanation, state facts. For example:

   - I love hiking.
   - It's cold because he left the windows open.
   - The capital of Kenya is Nairobi

2. INTERROGATIVES

Interrogative sentences are used to ask questions and typically require an answer. Here are the different types of interrogative sentences along with examples:

- Yes / No interrogatives e.g. '*Have you ever been to India?'*
- Alternative interrogatives (questions that offer two or more alternative answers) e.g. '*Would you like tea or coffee?'*
- WH-interrogative (who / what / where / why / how) e.g. '*Where is the post office?'*
- Negative interrogatives (a question that has been made negative by adding a word such as *not, don't aren't* and *isn't)* e.g. '*Why aren't you in bed?'*
- Tag questions (short questions tagged onto the end of a declarative sentence) e.g. '*We forgot the milk, didn't we?'*

3. IMPERATIVES

Imperative sentences are predominantly used to give a command or a make a demand**.** They can be presented in several ways, such as: giving instructions, offering advice, making a wish on behalf of someone else, extending an invitation, giving a command. There is often no subject present when forming imperative sentences because the subject is assumed to be you - the reader or the listener. For example:

- Sit down!
- Set the oven to 180 degrees.
- Please, take a seat.

4. EXCLAMATIVE

   Exclamative sentences are used to express strong feelings and opinions, such as surprise, excitement, and anger. A true exclamative sentence should contain the words *what* or *how* and usually end with an exclamation mark (!).

   - What a nice surprise!
   - Oh, how lovely!
   - What's that?!

1.9. WORD CLASSES

Word classes help us to better understand the elements that form phrases and sentences.There are four main word classes: nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. These are considered lexical word classes and they provide the most meaning in a sentence. The other five word classes are prepositions, pronouns, determiners, conjunctions, and interjections. These are functional word classes; they give structure to sentences by "glueing" them together, and they also show the relationships between lexical items. See below for a summary of each word class, along with examples.

1. **Lexical word classes**

   Here is a table containing the lexical word classes.

Word class	Function	Examples	Examples in sentence
Nouns	Naming people, places, objects, feelings, concepts, etc.	Maria, holiday, Paris.	Maria had a holiday in Paris.
Verb	An action, event, feeling, or state of being.	Run, bake, laugh.	I ran home to bake you a cake.

Adjectives	Describing an attribute, quality, or state of being; modifying a noun to add this description.	Rainy, tiny, ridiculous.	It was a rainy day so I stayed inside my tiny house and wrote ridiculous poems.
Adverbs	Describing how, where, when, or how often something is done.	Yesterday (when), quickly (how), over (where).	Yesterday, I saw the fox jump quickly over the dog.

2. Functional word classes
   Here is a table containing the functional word classes.

Word Class	Function	Examples	Examples in sentence
Prepositions	Showing direction, location or time.	Before (time), into (direction), on (location).	Before dinner, she went into the café on the hill.
Pronouns	Replacing a noun.	She, her, he, him, they, them.	She took Rover for a walk and then gave him some treats.
Determiners	Clarifying information about the quantity, location, or ownership of a noun.	His, the, some.	His car broke down so he opened the trunk to grab some tools.

Conjunctions	Connecting words in a sentence.	And, but, because.	Sammy and Jim played snooker but couldn't finish the game because the venue closed early.
f	Expressing an emotion or reaction.	Wow, uh oh, Yippee, Yikes.	Wow, a crocodile - uh oh, it's heading right for us!

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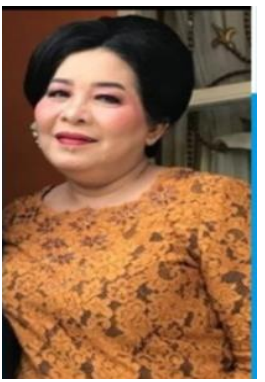

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CHAPTER 2
PHONETICS

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2.1. INTRODUCTION

Phonetics is a branch of linguistics that focuses on the study of speech sounds. It encompasses the physical production, acoustic transmission, and auditory perception of these sounds. According to Ladefoged and Johnson (2014), phonetics is crucial for understanding the nuances of spoken language and provides the foundation for the systematic analysis of speech. The field is typically divided into three main areas: articulatory phonetics, which examines how speech sounds are produced by the vocal organs; acoustic phonetics, which deals with the physical properties of speech sounds; and auditory phonetics, which investigates how speech sounds are perceived by the ear and brain.

The importance of phonetics in linguistics cannot be overstated. It serves as a critical tool for linguists, enabling them to transcribe and analyze speech in a consistent and detailed manner. Phonetic analysis facilitates the understanding of linguistic phenomena such as accent, dialect variation, and phonological processes (Ashby, 2011). Moreover, phonetics is essential for the development of language teaching methodologies, the creation of speech recognition systems, and the diagnosis and treatment of speech disorders. By providing insights into the physical and perceptual aspects of speech, phonetics bridges the gap between abstract linguistic theory and practical language use.

This chapter aims to provide a comprehensive overview of the fundamental aspects of phonetics. It will begin with a historical background, tracing the development of phonetic studies and highlighting key figures and contributions in the field. Following this, the chapter will delve into articulatory phonetics, explaining the speech production mechanism and classifying speech sounds based on their articulatory features. The subsequent sections will cover acoustic phonetics, discussing the acoustic properties of speech sounds and the tools and methods used for acoustic analysis, as well as auditory phonetics, which will explore the hearing mechanism and the perception of speech sounds. Additionally, the chapter will introduce phonetic transcription, focusing on the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) and providing practical examples. The discussion will extend to suprasegmental features such as stress, intonation, and rhythm. Furthermore, the chapter will examine the applications of phonetics in various fields, including language teaching, speech therapy, forensic phonetics, and speech technology. The chapter will conclude with an overview of recent advances and research trends in phonetics, highlighting technological innovations and future directions in the field.

2.2. ARTICULATORY PHONETICS

Articulatory phonetics is a subfield of phonetics that examines how speech sounds are produced by the movement of various parts of the vocal tract. Understanding the speech production mechanism involves analyzing the coordinated actions of the respiratory, phonatory, and articulatory systems, each of which plays a crucial role in sound generation.

Speech production is a complex process that begins with the airflow generated by the respiratory system. This airflow is then modulated by the phonatory system and shaped into distinct speech sounds by the articulatory system. Each system

contributes uniquely to the production of speech. (1) **Respiratory System** provides the airstream that is essential for speech production. It comprises the lungs, diaphragm, and intercostal muscles. During speech, the diaphragm contracts to increase the volume of the thoracic cavity, allowing the lungs to fill with air. This inhaled air is then expelled as the diaphragm relaxes, creating an airstream that passes through the trachea and into the larynx (Ferrand, 2018). (2) **Phonatory System** is primarily responsible for voice production and includes the larynx, which houses the vocal folds (also known as vocal cords). When air passes through the glottis, the space between the vocal folds, they can be brought together and vibrated to produce voiced sounds. The rate of vibration, or fundamental frequency, determines the pitch of the sound. For unvoiced sounds, the vocal folds remain apart, allowing air to pass through without vibration (Kent & Read, 2002). (3) **Articulatory System** consists of the movable and immovable structures within the vocal tract that shape the airflow into specific speech sounds. Key structures include the tongue, lips, teeth, alveolar ridge, hard palate, soft palate (velum), and uvula. The coordinated movements of these structures alter the shape of the vocal tract, modifying the airstream to produce different sounds (Ladefoged & Johnson, 2014).

2.3. DESCRIPTION OF SPEECH ORGANS

The speech organs, also known as articulators, are categorized into active and passive articulators. Active articulators are the parts that move during speech, while passive articulators remain stationary. (1) **Lips** can be brought together to produce bilabial sounds (e.g., [p], [b]) or rounded to shape vowels like [u] (Ladefoged & Johnson, 2014). **(2)Tongue** is the most versatile articulator, capable of creating a variety of speech sounds. It is divided into different parts: tip, blade, front, back,

and root. Each part plays a role in producing sounds by interacting with different areas of the mouth (Kent & Read, 2002). **(3) Teeth** are involved in producing dental sounds like [θ] and [ð] by placing the tongue against or near the upper teeth. (4) **Palate** provides a surface against which the tongue can form palatal sounds (e.g., [j]). The soft palate (velum) can be raised to close off the nasal cavity, producing oral sounds, or lowered to allow airflow through the nose, producing nasal sounds (e.g., [m], [n]) (Ferrand, 2018).

The classification of the speech sounds can be broadly classified into vowels and consonants based on their articulatory properties. (1) **Vowels** are produced with an open vocal tract, allowing the air to flow freely without significant constriction. The quality of a vowel is determined by the position of the tongue and the shape of the lips. Vowels are classified based on the height of the tongue (high, mid, low), the position of the tongue (front, central, back), and the degree of lip rounding (rounded, unrounded) (Ladefoged & Johnson, 2014). **(1a) High Vowels** produced with the tongue raised close to the roof of the mouth (e.g., [i], [u]). **(1b) Mid Vowels** produced with the tongue positioned midway between high and low (e.g., [e], [o**]). (1c) Low Vowels p**roduced with the tongue lowered (e.g., [a]). (2) **Consonants** are produced with a significant constriction or closure in the vocal tract. They are classified based on the place of articulation, the manner of articulation, and voicing (whether the vocal folds vibrate or not) (Kent & Read, 2002).

Place of Articulation refers to where the constriction occurs, such as bilabial (both lips), alveolar (tongue against the alveolar ridge), and velar (back of the tongue against the velum). Manner of Articulation refers to how the airstream is modified, such as stops (complete closure followed by release), fricatives (narrow constriction causing turbulent airflow), and nasals (airflow through the nose). Voicing refers to whether the vocal folds

vibrate during the production of the sound. Voiced consonants involve vocal fold vibration (e.g., [b], [d]), while voiceless consonants do not (e.g., [p], [t]).

Understanding articulatory phonetics is fundamental for analyzing and describing the physical production of speech sounds. By examining how different speech organs contribute to sound production, linguists can gain insights into the diversity and complexity of human languages.

2.4. PHONETIC TRANSCRIPTION

Phonetic transcription is the practice of visually representing the sounds of speech. The most widely used system for this purpose is the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA). This standardized system provides a consistent method for transcribing the sounds of all spoken languages, facilitating clear communication and analysis among linguists, language teachers, and speech pathologists. **Introduction to the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA)** was first created in the late 19th century by the International Phonetic Association. Its primary goal is to provide a universal set of symbols that accurately represent each distinct sound (phoneme) in human speech, regardless of the language in which it occurs. The IPA has undergone several revisions to incorporate new findings in phonetics and to better reflect the sounds of the world's languages (International Phonetic Association, 1999).

The IPA is a crucial tool in the field of phonetics because it allows for the precise and unambiguous transcription of speech sounds. Unlike traditional orthography, which often varies significantly from pronunciation, the IPA provides a one-to-one correspondence between sounds and symbols. This makes it an indispensable resource for linguists conducting phonetic research, language teachers developing curricula, and speech therapists diagnosing and treating speech disorders (Ladefoged

& Johnson, 2014). The IPA comprises a comprehensive set of symbols, each representing a specific speech sound. These symbols are organized into categories based on the articulatory features of the sounds they represent. The main categories include consonants, vowels, diacritics, and suprasegmentals.

Consonants symbols are categorized by place, manner of articulation, and voicing. For example, [p] represents a voiceless bilabial plosive, while [b] represents a voiced bilabial plosive. The IPA chart includes a wide range of consonant sounds, from common ones like [t] and [k] to less common ones like [ɬ] (voiceless alveolar lateral fricative) (International Phonetic Association, 1999). **Vowels** symbols are categorized by tongue height (high, mid, low), tongue position (front, central, back), and lip rounding (rounded, unrounded). For example, [i] represents a high front unrounded vowel, [u] a high back rounded vowel, and [a] a low front unrounded vowel. The vowel chart visually represents these dimensions, providing an intuitive way to understand vowel articulation (Ladefoged & Johnson, 2014).

Diacritics are small marks added to IPA symbols to indicate modifications or finer details of pronunciation. For instance, a tilde [~] over a vowel indicates nasalization, while a subscript dot [̪] under a consonant indicates a dental articulation. Diacritics enhance the precision of phonetic transcription, allowing linguists to capture subtle phonetic nuances (Pullum & Ladusaw, 2013). **Suprasegmentals** symbols indicate features such as stress, intonation, and length. For example, a vertical line [ˈ] before a syllable denotes primary stress, a colon [ː] after a vowel indicates lengthening, and an arrow [↗] indicates rising intonation. These symbols provide additional information about the prosodic aspects of speech (Cruttenden, 2014).

Practical Examples and Exercises of the IPA involves transcribing speech sounds accurately. Here are a few examples

and exercises to illustrate the use of IPA symbols. Example: Word: cat , IPA Transcription: [kæt]. The transcription represents a voiceless velar plosive [k], a low front unrounded vowel [æ], and a voiceless alveolar plosive [t].

2.5. SUPRASEGMENTAL FEATURES

Suprasegmental features are phonetic characteristics that extend over more than one segment (sound) in an utterance. These features include stress, intonation, rhythm, tone, and pitch, and they play a crucial role in conveying meaning, emotion, and syntactic information in spoken language. Unlike segmental features, which pertain to individual consonants and vowels, suprasegmental features operate on a higher level, influencing the prosodic elements of speech.

Stress, Intonation, and Rhythm refers to the relative emphasis that is placed on certain syllables or words within a sentence. In many languages, stressed syllables are typically louder, longer, and have a higher pitch compared to unstressed syllables. English, for instance, uses stress to distinguish between nouns and verbs in pairs such as 'record (noun) and re'cord (verb). Stress can be classified into two types: word stress and sentence stress. Word stress differentiates between syllables within a word, while sentence stress highlights keywords within a sentence to convey the intended message (Cruttenden, 2014).

Intonation is the variation of pitch across an utterance. It serves multiple functions, such as indicating questions, statements, commands, or emotions. In English, for example, rising intonation at the end of a sentence typically signals a question, whereas falling intonation indicates a statement. Intonation patterns help to organize speech into units and convey the speaker’s attitude (Ladd, 2008). Intonation also plays a critical role in discourse structure, signaling transitions

between topics and indicating information status (new vs. given information). Rhythm in speech refers to the pattern of stressed and unstressed syllables. Different languages exhibit different rhythmic patterns. English, for example, is considered a stress-timed language, where the intervals between stressed syllables are relatively equal, leading to varying lengths of unstressed syllables. In contrast, syllable-timed languages like Spanish have more uniform intervals between syllables, regardless of stress (Roach, 2009). Rhythm contributes to the natural flow of speech and aids in the listener's processing of spoken language.

Tone and Pitch involves the use of pitch to distinguish meaning at the word level, and it is a fundamental feature in tonal languages such as Mandarin Chinese, Thai, and Yoruba. In these languages, a single syllable with the same consonants and vowels can have different meanings depending on its pitch contour. For instance, in Mandarin Chinese, the syllable "ma" can mean "mother," "hemp," "horse," or "scold" depending on its tone (Yip, 2002). Pitch refers to the perceived frequency of sound and is a key component of both intonation and tone. In non-tonal languages, pitch variations contribute to intonation patterns and convey additional meaning beyond the lexical content. In tonal languages, specific pitch patterns are lexically significant and are used to differentiate words. Pitch also plays a role in stress, where stressed syllables often have a higher pitch than unstressed syllables (Cruttenden, 2014). nn English, the word "conduct" can be pronounced with the stress on the first syllable ('conduct) to mean a noun (e.g., behavior) or on the second syllable (con'duct) to mean a verb (e.g., to lead). In Mandarin Chinese, the syllable "ma" pronounced with a high-level tone (mā) means "mother," with a rising tone (má) means "hemp," with a falling-rising tone (mǎ) means "horse," and with a falling tone (mà) means "scold."

Speech Synthesis and Recognition: Suprasegmental features are essential in developing natural-sounding text-to-speech systems and improving speech recognition accuracy. Incorporating accurate stress, intonation, and rhythm patterns helps make synthesized speech more intelligible and expressive (Taylor, 2009). Clinical Phonetics: In speech therapy, understanding suprasegmental features is critical for diagnosing and treating speech disorders. Therapists work with individuals to improve their stress, intonation, and rhythm patterns, which can enhance overall speech intelligibility and communicative effectiveness (Ball et al., 2014).

Suprasegmental features are integral to the phonetic structure of language, influencing meaning, emotion, and communication efficiency. Mastery of these features is essential for linguists, language teachers, speech technologists, and clinicians to understand and facilitate effective spoken language. In the dynamic landscape of modern education and professional development, English for Specific Purposes (ESP) faces several significant challenges. As industries and professional fields rapidly evolve, largely due to technological advancements and changing global markets, ESP must continuously adapt to remain relevant and practical. This constant evolution presents a challenge for ESP educators and curriculum developers to keep pace with the latest trends and requirements in various fields (Dudley & John, 1998; Hyland, 2006).

2.6. APPLICATIONS OF PHONETICS

Phonetics, as a scientific study of speech sounds, finds diverse applications across various fields. These applications demonstrate the practical importance of phonetic knowledge in enhancing human communication, diagnosing and treating speech disorders, solving forensic cases, and advancing speech technology. This section elaborates on the significant roles

phonetics plays in language teaching and learning, speech therapy and pathology, forensic phonetics, and speech technology.

(1) Language Teaching and Learning Phonetics is fundamental in language teaching and learning, especially in the acquisition of accurate pronunciation. Phonetic instruction helps learners understand the articulation of sounds, stress patterns, intonation, and rhythm, which are crucial for achieving intelligible and native-like pronunciation. (2) **Pronunciation Instruction:** Phonetics provides teachers with tools and techniques to teach correct pronunciation. For example, the use of phonetic transcription, particularly the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA), allows learners to see a visual representation of how words are pronounced. This can be particularly helpful for distinguishing sounds that do not exist in the learner's native language (Gilbert, 2008). (3) **Listening Skills:** Phonetics training enhances learners' listening skills by making them aware of subtle differences in sounds, stress, and intonation. This awareness is essential for understanding spoken language, especially in real-time communication where speech may be rapid or accented (Celce-Murcia et al., 2010). (4) **Speech Production:** By learning the articulatory processes involved in speech production, learners can improve their ability to produce sounds accurately. For example, exercises that focus on tongue placement, lip rounding, and breath control can help learners produce challenging sounds (Derwing & Munro, 2015).

Phonetics plays a crucial role in speech therapy and pathology, where it is used to diagnose and treat speech and language disorders. **Assessment and Diagnosis**: Speech-language pathologists use phonetic analysis to assess speech disorders. By analyzing a patient's speech, therapists can identify phonetic errors and determine their underlying causes, such as articulatory difficulties or phonological processing

issues (Bernthal et al., 2017). **Therapeutic Interventions:** Phonetic knowledge guides the development of therapeutic interventions tailored to individual needs. For instance, therapists may use phonetic exercises to help patients improve their articulation, modify their speech patterns, and enhance their overall communication skills(Hedge, 2018). **Accent Modification:** Phonetics is also used in accent modification therapy, where individuals seek to modify their accent to achieve clearer communication or better integrate into a different linguistic community. Therapists use phonetic principles to help clients understand and produce the target accent (Lippi-Green, 2012).

Forensic Phonetics involves the application of phonetic knowledge to legal cases, where it can provide critical evidence in criminal and civil investigations. Speaker Identification is one of the primary applications of forensic phonetics is speaker identification. Phoneticians analyze voice recordings to determine whether they match a suspect's voice. This analysis includes examining features such as pitch, speech rate, accent, and specific phonetic characteristics (Rose, 2002). Voice Comparison is a forensic experts compare recorded speech samples to establish whether they come from the same individual. This involves detailed phonetic analysis and often includes the use of spectrographic voiceprints to visualize the acoustic properties of the speech **(Nolan, 1983).** Authentication of Recordings: Forensic phoneticians also work to authenticate voice recordings, ensuring that they have not been tampered with or edited. This is critical in cases where the integrity of audio evidence is questioned (Coulthard & Johnson, 2007).

2.7. SPEECH TECHNOLOGY

Phonetics underpins many advancements in speech technology, including speech recognition systems, text-to-speech (TTS) systems, and other applications that facilitate human-computer interaction. **Speech Recognition systems** convert spoken language into written text. Phonetic knowledge is essential for developing algorithms that accurately capture and process speech sounds. These systems rely on extensive phonetic databases and sophisticated models to recognize and differentiate between sounds, words, and sentences (Juang & Rabiner, 2005).

Text-to-Speech (TTS) Systems generate human-like speech from written text. Phonetics guides the development of these systems, ensuring that the synthesized speech sounds natural and intelligible. This involves creating phonetic rules for pronunciation, stress, intonation, and rhythm to produce high-quality speech output (Taylor, 2009). **Assistive Technologies** phonetics is also critical in developing assistive technologies for individuals with speech and hearing impairments. For example, voice output communication aids (VOCAs) use TTS technology to provide a voice for individuals who cannot speak. Phonetic principles ensure that these devices produce clear and understandable speech (Beukelman & Mirenda, 2013).

In conclusion, the applications of phonetics are extensive and impactful, contributing to fields as diverse as language education, speech therapy, forensic science, and technology. By leveraging phonetic knowledge, professionals in these areas can enhance communication, diagnose and treat disorders, solve forensic cases, and develop advanced speech technologies. Moreover, the diverse needs of ESP learners, who come from varied backgrounds with different levels of language proficiency and learning styles, add to the complexity of designing and implementing effective ESP programs. This diversity demands a

high degree of flexibility and adaptability in ESP teaching methodologies and materials (Basturkmen, 2010).

2.8. RECENT ADVANCES AND RESEARCH TRENDS

The field of phonetics has witnessed significant advancements in recent years, driven by technological innovations and interdisciplinary research. These developments have not only enhanced our understanding of speech production, transmission, and perception but also expanded the applications of phonetic knowledge across various domains. Technological advancements have revolutionized the study of phonetics, providing researchers with sophisticated tools and methodologies for analyzing speech. (**1) Acoustic Analysis Tools:** Modern acoustic analysis software, such as Praat and Wavesurfer, offers advanced features for detailed examination of speech sounds. These tools enable researchers to create spectrograms, measure formant frequencies, and analyze pitch contours with high precision. The integration of machine learning algorithms with these tools has further enhanced the accuracy and efficiency of phonetic analysis (Boersma & Weenink, 2020; Sjolander & Beskow, 2000). (**2) Ultrasound and Electropalatography (EPG)** have become essential in articulatory phonetics research. Ultrasound imaging allows researchers to visualize tongue movements in real-time, providing insights into the dynamic aspects of speech production. EPG, on the other hand, captures contact patterns between the tongue and the palate, offering detailed information about articulatory configurations. These technologies have proven invaluable in both research and clinical settings (Stone, 2010; (Gibbon, 2013). (**3) Neuroimaging Techniques**: Functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging (fMRI) and Electroencephalography (EEG) have opened new avenues for investigating the neural underpinnings of speech processing.

fMRI provides high-resolution images of brain activity associated with speech production and perception, while EEG offers temporal precision in capturing rapid neural responses to auditory stimuli. These techniques have deepened our understanding of the brain's role in phonetic processing (Hickok & Poeppel, 2015). (**4) Speech Synthesis and Recognition:** Advances in speech synthesis and recognition technologies have been bolstered by phonetic research. High-quality text-to-speech (TTS) systems now incorporate natural prosody, intonation, and rhythm, making synthesized speech more human-like. Similarly, speech recognition systems have achieved remarkable accuracy in transcribing spoken language into text, thanks to improved phonetic modeling and the use of deep learning techniques (Taylor, 2009; Hinton et al., 2012).

2.9. CONCLUSION

This chapter has provided a comprehensive overview of phonetics, encompassing its definition, historical development, and the key components of articulatory, acoustic, and auditory phonetics. It has also delved into phonetic transcription using the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA), the significance of suprasegmental features, and the diverse applications of phonetic knowledge in language teaching, speech therapy, forensic phonetics, and speech technology. Additionally, recent advances and research trends in phonetics, driven by technological innovations and interdisciplinary approaches, were highlighted. Phonetics plays an indispensable role in modern linguistics by offering the tools and methodologies necessary for the precise analysis and description of speech sounds. It bridges the gap between theoretical linguistics and practical applications, providing insights that enhance our understanding of language structure and use. Phonetic research informs phonological theory, contributes to the development of

effective language teaching methodologies, and supports the creation of advanced speech recognition and synthesis systems. Furthermore, phonetics is crucial in clinical settings, aiding in the diagnosis and treatment of speech disorders, and in forensic contexts, where it assists in speaker identification and authentication of voice recordings. As a foundational discipline within linguistics, phonetics continues to evolve, driven by ongoing research and technological advancements. The integration of computational methods, neuroimaging techniques, and interdisciplinary collaboration promises to deepen our understanding of speech processes and expand the practical applications of phonetic knowledge. Future research will likely further elucidate the complexities of speech production, transmission, and perception, contributing to both theoretical developments and practical innovations. Ultimately, the study of phonetics not only enriches our understanding of human language but also enhances our ability to communicate effectively and address various linguistic challenges in society.

2.10. EXERCISES

1. Transcribe the following English words using IPA: dog, ship, think.
2. Identify the places and manners of articulation for the following IPA symbols: [d], [θ], [ŋ].
3. Transcribe a short phrase from your native language into IPA and explain your transcription.

By practicing these transcriptions and familiarizing oneself with IPA symbols and conventions, one can develop a keen understanding of phonetic details across different languages. The IPA's rigorous and detailed framework ensures that speech sounds can be precisely documented, facilitating cross-linguistic

research and practical applications in various fields of linguistics.

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CHAPTER 3
PHONOLOGY

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3.1. INTRODUCTION

Phonology is a branch of linguistics that studies a language's sound system, including how language speakers organize, access, and interpret these sounds. Phonology is very important in understanding the structure of language because, through phonology, we can identify the sound patterns found in a language as well as the principles that govern the distribution of these sounds. In any language, we can identify a small number of regularly used sounds (vowels and consonants) that we call phonemes; for example, the vowels in the words ‘pin’ and ‘pen’ are different phonemes, and so are the consonants at the beginning of the words ‘pet’ and ‘bet’.

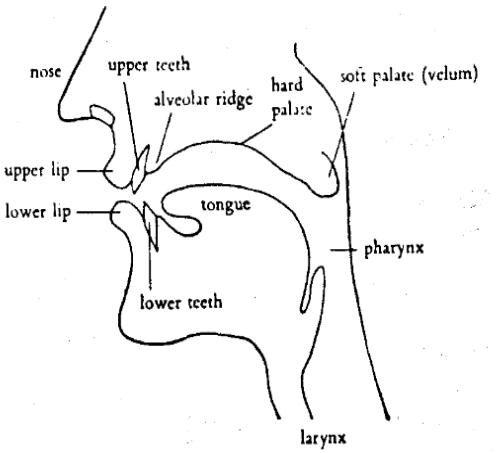
Phonology focuses on studying sound systems (phonemes) in human languages. Phonology deals with the way these sounds are grouped into certain categories in a language, how these sounds interact with each other, and how these sounds can change in various linguistic contexts. For example, in English, the /p/ sound in the word "pot" is phonemic different from the /b/ sound in the word "bot", so phonology would examine how this difference is interpreted in the language system. Phonology and intonation are two interrelated fields in linguistics, although their focus and scope are different. The following is the relationship between phonology and intonation: (1) Phonology is the study of sound systems in language, including the arrangement of sounds in a particular language and how these

sounds are recognized and used by speakers. This includes everything from phonemes (units of sound that differentiate meaning) to the rules of how these sounds interact in the context of a language. (2) Intonation as Part of Phonology. Intonation, on the other hand, is an aspect of prosody (the way sounds are conveyed) that includes intonation patterns used to convey additional meaning or certain nuances beyond the literal meaning of words. Intonation includes the rising and falling patterns of sound used in sentences, as well as the way of emphasis and rhythm in speech. (3) Effect of Sounds on Intonation.

Phonology influences intonation because phonological rules can influence how intonation is used in language. For example, rules about placing accents or stress in certain words can influence how intonation is applied in sentences. (4) Interdisciplinary Research. Although intonation is traditionally part of the study of prosody, which covers the rhythmic and melodic aspects of language, intonation also has implications in the study of phonology because it involves how sounds are processed and analyzed in language. (5) Role in Communication. Both phonology and intonation play a role in verbal communication. Phonology helps determine the structure of sounds in words and sentences, while intonation helps add additional layers of meaning, emotion, or information to a conversation.

3.2. THE PRODUCTION OF SPEECH SOUNDS

All the sounds someone makes when speaking result from muscles contracting. The muscles in the chest that we use for breathing produce the flow of air needed for almost all speech sounds; muscles in the larynx produce many different modifications in the flow of air from the chest to mouth.



Source: Roach, 1998, p.9

Figure 3.1. The Articulators (Roach, 1998, p.9)

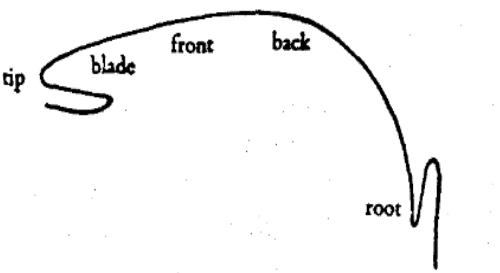
Figure 3.1 is a diagram that is used frequently in the study of phonetics. It represents the human head. You will need to look at it carefully as the articulators are described.

The following is an explanation of the parts of the mouth that play a role in sound production (phonation):

a. The pharynx: is the cavity behind the mouth and nose which functions as a pathway for air from the nose and mouth to the larynx. The pharynx plays an important role in the production of sonorant sounds because its arrangement affects the resonance of the sound.
b. The velum or soft palate: is the part of the roof of the mouth at the back. The velum functions to regulate airflow between the nose and mouth. When the velum is closed, air only comes out through the mouth, whereas when it is open, air can come out through the nose (nasalization).
c. The hard palate: is the part of the roof of the mouth at the front, which consists of hard bones. The function of the

hard palate is to provide an attachment point for the tongue and regulate airflow during sound production.

d. The alveolar ridge: is a small protrusion behind the upper incisors (teeth ridge) in the mouth. Sounds such as /t/, /d/, /n/, and /l/ are often articulated by pressing the tongue against the alveolar ridge.
e. The tongue: is the main organ used to produce sounds by changing its position and shape in the mouth. The tongue plays a role in regulating air flow and forming sound resonance.
f. The teeth (upper and lower): serve as attachment points for several sounds in voice production. For example, the sounds /f/ and /v/ are produced by controlling the flow of air through the gap between the upper teeth and the lower lip.



Source: Roach, 1998, p.12

Figure 3.2. Sub-divisions of the Tongue

g. The lips: The lips play a role in sound production by forming part of the vocal tract. Sounds such as /p/, /b/, /m/, and /w/ involve lip movements to regulate airflow.

Each of these parts of the mouth interacts in a complex way to produce the various sounds found in human languages. The movement and position of each part affects the acoustic characteristics of the sound produced.

3.3. PRINCIPLES IN PHONOLOGY

Some basic principles in phonology include: Phonemes and Allophones Phonemes are sound units that differentiate the meaning of one word from another word in a language, while allophones are sound variations that appear in a certain context without changing the meaning of the word. For example, in English, the sound /t/ in the words "top" and "stop" is an allophone of the phoneme /t/. Phonology examines how certain sounds are distributed in words and phrases in a language. For example, in some languages, the /k/ sound only appears at the beginning of a word and not at the end of a word. This refers to the systematic changes that occur in the sounds of a language. For example, in Indonesian, there is a process of sound assimilation between the word "eat" /i:t/ with the word "rice" /rais/ which results in /eat rice/ becoming [i:t rais].

1. **CONSONANTS**

   To produce any consonant, an active articulator, usually located somewhere along the base of the vocal tract, moves towards a passive articulator, somewhere along the top. There are three main manners of articulation (McMahon, 2002, pp.28-29):

2. **STOPS**

   a. If the active and passive articulators touch, stopping airflow through the oral cavity completely for a brief period, the sound articulated is a stop. Consonants included as stops are: Plosives may be voiceless, like [p], [t], and [k], or voiced, like their equivalents [b], [d] and [g].
   b. English [m], [n], and [ŋ] are therefore nasal stops
   c. Taps or trills [r]

3. **FRICATIVES**

   During the production of a fricative, the active and passive articulators are brought close together, but not near enough

to block the oral cavity. English [f] five and [s] size are voiceless fricatives, while [v] five and [z] size are voiced. The two relevant sounds for English are [tʃ], at the beginning and end of *church,* and its voiced equivalent [dʒ], found at the beginning and end of *judge*. If you pronounce these words extremely slowly, you should be able to identify the stop and fricative phases.

4. APPROXIMANTS

In approximants, on the other hand, the active and passive articulator never become sufficiently close to create audible friction. Instead, the open approximation of the articulators alters the shape of the oral cavity, and leads to the production of a particular sound quality. There are four approximant consonant phonemes in English: /j/ yes, /w/ wet, /r/ red (although as we have seen, /r/ may have a tapped allophone for some speakers) and /l/ let. All these approximants are voiced.

5. VOWELS

To describe vowels adequately and accurately, we then need to consider three different parameters, all of which can be seen as modifications of the place or manner of articulation continua for consonants: as we shall see, these are height, frontness, and rounding.

The Front-Back Dimension

Front vowels are produced with the front of the tongue raised towards the hard palate, such as:

1. Front Vowels

Kit	/ɪ/
Dress	/ ɜ/
Trap	/ æ/
Fleece	/i:/
face	/ei/

2. Back Vowels

Lot	/ɒ/
Foot	/ʊ/
Palm	/ɑ:/
Thought	/ɔ:/
Goat	/oʊ/
Goose	/u:/

The high-low Dimension

1. High vowels

Kit	
Fleece	/i:/
Foot	/ʊ/
goose	/u:/

2. Low vowels

Trap
lot
palm

3. Mid vowels

face	/eɪ/
goat	/oʊ/
dress	/ ɜ/
lot	/ɒ/
Thought	/ɔ:/
About	/ə/
Nurse	/ɜ:/
strut	/ʌ/

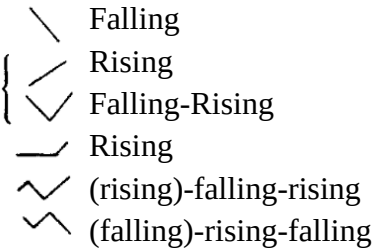
3.4. INTONATION

One of the most important tasks in analyzing intonation is to listen to the speaker's pitch and recognize what it is doing; this is not an easy thing to do, and it seems to be a quite different skill from that acquired in studying segmental phonetics. Intonation is described as high and low. Halliday (1967) has a rather odd-looking set of tones: Ladd (2008)

focuses on intonation as "the utilization of suprasegmental phonetic highlights to communicate post-lexical or sentence-level implications in an etymologically organized way". Wells (2006, p.1) characterizes pitch as "the song of discourse". He states that in exploring pitch, we center on how the pitch of the voice rises and falls and how speakers utilize this intonation variety to provide phonetic and practical meaning". Additionally, Robinett (1972, p.38) claims that "sound is the tune of what we say. More particularly, it is the combination of melodic tones on which we articulate the syllables that make up our discourse". Bradford (2005, p.1) stated that "sound may be included of the talked dialect. It comprises the ceaseless changing of the pitch of a speaker's voice to precise implications.

1. Form and function in intonation

Intonation refers to variations in tone in speech that can convey various meanings and functions in language. This includes rising and falling pitch patterns that signal a question, statement, emotion, or emphasis. Example: In the sentence "You're going already?", the rising intonation on the last word indicates a question.



Variations in intonation patterns are used in language to convey particular meanings or nuances. Here is how it is generally used:

1. Falling: Used when ending a complete statement and no question has been asked. For example, "I went to the store."
2. Rising: Used when ending a sentence that raises a question. For example, "Did you go to the store?"
3. Falling-Rising: Used to show doubt or uncertainty. It is often used in rhetorical interrogative sentences. For example, "You're sure about that?"
4. (Rising)-falling-rising: This can be used to highlight an important word or phrase in a sentence, such as underlining a question or stating an uncertainty that is being reaffirmed. For example, "Did you really mean that?"
5. (Falling)-rising-falling: Often used to indicate uncertainty or confusion followed by clarification. For example, "You're going there?"

Rising intonation is often necessary in the following contexts:

1. Yes/No Questions: When you ask a question that asks for a yes or no answer, rising intonation is used. For example, "Are you coming?"
2. Information Question: To ask for new information that the speaker does not already know. For example, "What time is the meeting?"
3. Expression of Suspicion or Astonishment: When expressing surprise or suspicion about something mentioned. For example, "You think so?"
4. Uncertain Statements: When you are unsure about the truth of a statement and want further confirmation or clarification. For example, "He's here?"

Intonation in languages can vary greatly depending on cultural and social context. Appropriate use of intonation can

help communicate richer meaning and nuance in everyday conversation.

2. Tone and tone languages (Tones and Tonal Languages)

Tonal languages are languages where the tone of a syllable can change its meaning. Examples are Mandarin and many languages in Africa. Tone can differentiate between words that are identical phonetically except in tone. Example: In Mandarin, the word "ma" can mean "mother" with a rising tone and "horse" with a flat tone. In linguistics, a tonal unit (or intonation unit) is a series of utterances that are considered to have a single intonation contour. Usually includes: 1. Core (the most prominent syllable or word), 2. Elements before and after the core that influence its overall meaning and function, 3. Example: In the sentence "She's going to the store", the tonal unit can start from the word "She's" with the nucleus in the word "store", where the intonation decreases at the end.

The structure of a tone unit, also known as an intonation unit, refers to the basic unit of spoken language that is typically marked by a single intonation contour. In English and many other languages, a tone unit can be described in terms of several components:

1. Stress: Each tone unit typically has one prominent stressed syllable, which may carry the main emphasis of the utterance.
2. Tonic Syllable: This is the stressed syllable within the tone unit that often carries the most prominent pitch change.
3. Nuclear Tone: The pitch pattern or intonation contour that marks the tone unit. In English, common nuclear tones include rising, falling, rising-falling, or falling-rising patterns.

4. Pre-head: Optional elements that can occur before the tonic syllable, such as fillers ("um," "well,") or discourse markers ("you know," "actually,").
5. Head: The beginning part of the tone unit that leads up to the tonic syllable. It can include unstressed syllables and secondary stresses.
6. Tail: The optional part that follows the tonic syllable. It can include further information or elaboration on the main point.
7. Boundary: Marks the end of the tone unit, often signaled by a pause or change in intonation.

Here's an example to illustrate these components "She bought a new car."

1. Stress: "bought" and "car" are stressed.
2. Tonic syllable: "bought" (with the highest pitch change).
3. Nuclear tone: Falling (the pitch falls from "bought" to "car").
4. Pre-head: None.
5. Head: "She".
6. Tail: "A new car".
7. Boundary: None (since it's the end of the sentence).

Understanding the structure of a tone unit helps in analyzing spoken language for its rhythm, emphasis, and overall meaning conveyed through intonation.

3.5. EXERCISE

In the following sentences and bits of dialogue, each underlined syllable must be given an appropriate tone mark. Write a tone mark just in front of each syllable.

1. This train is for Leeds, York, Darlington and Durham
2. Can you give me a lift?
   Possibly Where to?

3. No! Certainly not! Go away!
4. Did you know he'd been convicted of drunken driving?
   No!
5. If I give him money he goes and spends it
   If I lend him the bike, he loses it
   He's completely unreliable

3.6. CONCLUSION

Phonology is the study of sound systems in human languages that play a crucial role in understanding the structure of language. Through phonology, we can identify sound patterns, understand the principles that govern the distribution of sounds in language, and apply this knowledge in a variety of practical applications. This study continues to develop as new research and new technologies support a deeper understanding of the sound systems in language. By combining explanations and examples for each of these topics, readers can better understand how intonation and tone affect language structure and communication across languages, including English and other tonal languages. Phonology is a branch of linguistics that studies sound systems in language. It includes the study of phonemes, sound rules, and the internal structure of sounds in language. Phonology helps us understand how language sounds are recognized, organized, and used by speakers. Intonation, part of prosody in linguistics, is a pattern of rising and falling sounds used to convey additional meaning or nuance in speech. Intonation involves variations in the level of pitch, rhythm, and stress of words that can influence the understanding and interpretation of the message conveyed. The importance of intonation in phonology lies in its ability to: (1) Convey Nuances of Meaning. Intonation helps in conveying additional information such as questions, interrogative statements, decisions, or uncertainty, which is not directly implied by words

alone. (2) Communicating Emotions and Attitudes. Intonation can convey emotional expressions such as joy, astonishment, disappointment, or despair. This helps add psychological and interpersonal dimensions to communication. (3) Leads Context Understanding. Intonation helps in marking the structure of sentences, clauses, and phrases in conversation, guiding listeners in understanding the relationship between parts of a sentence. (4) Helps Language Teaching and Learning. Understanding intonation is important in language teaching and learning because it allows speakers to master not only words and grammar, but also the nuances and meaning contained in speech. Thus, phonology and intonation complement each other in understanding the way language is spoken, understood, and used in communicative interactions. An in-depth study of both helps us uncover the complexity of language and how language is used to communicate effectively in various cultural and social contexts. Overall, phonology and intonation complement each other in understanding how language is spoken, understood, and used in everyday communicative interactions. The study of phonology has broad implications in a variety of fields, including computational linguistics, language teaching, and language restoration. By understanding the principles of phonology, we can predict language changes that occur over time, develop speech recognition technology, and provide more effective teaching strategies in second language learning.

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CHAPTER 4
MORPHOLOGY

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4.1. INTRODUCTION

Linguistics is the study of language, and it is very important in daily life. Language is the most effective tool for communicating a message; it also reflects culture, identity, and human ways of thinking (Mailani dkk., 2022; Noermanzah, 2020; Rokhmah & Rahmadona, 2022). In an increasingly developing era, a deep understanding of language can help us address communication challenges that arise from linguistic and cultural diversity. Studying linguistics not only enhances our language skills but also sharpens our analytical and critical thinking abilities. By studying the structure of language, such as morphology and syntax, we can understand how words are formed and arranged to convey meaning. Moreover, linguistics helps us understand how languages evolve and adapt over time. This knowledge is invaluable in various fields, such as education, technology, and research. Therefore, it is essential for us to delve into the field of linguistics and apply it in various aspects of life, thus enhancing our communication skills and cross-cultural understanding.

In addition, morphology has an important role in understanding language variation and change, as well as in analyzing the patterns present within a language. For instance, by knowing the morphology of a word, we can explore the different meanings and functions it has in various contexts.

Thus, morphology not only provides insights into the language itself but also into human ways of thinking and communicating.

Theoretically, morphology is a branch of linguistics that defines the basic units of language as grammatical units (Camp, 2020). Words not only function as basic units in communication but also have smaller components such as morphemes, which can consist of roots, prefixes, and suffixes. By studying morphology, we can understand how words are formed, modified, and used in sentences (Aronoff & Fudeman, 2012). This explains how the combination of these components affects the meaning and function of words in language, as well as how changes in form can impact meaning and usage in sentences. While, According to (Lieber, 2010) morphology is the study of how words are formed, including the creation of new words in various languages and variations in word forms based on their usage in sentences. As a native speaker, you intuitively understand how to form new words and can recognize and comprehend words you have never heard before. Furthermore, morphology is a systematic study of words in natural language, explaining the relationship between the surface form of words (graphic or spoken) and their lexical form (analysis of words in lemma or dictionary forms along with their grammatical descriptions). This is more accurately referred to as inflectional morphology (Forsberg & Ranta, 2004). This article emphasizes the discussion of basic concepts in morphology, starting from the smallest units in word formation to its role in sentence structure. In addition, it discusses the types of morphological processes.

4.2. TYPES OF MORPHEMES

Some people might get little confused about the difference of word and morpheme. Let’s define them as linguists do. A morpheme is defined as the smallest linguistic unit that has its

own meaning (Lieber, 2010) or is with a grammatical function (Aronoff & Fudeman, 2012). The other hand, a word is one of linguistic unit that can consist of one morpheme or two morphemes and more. Words can stand alone a language, while some morphemes cannot. A word with a single morpheme is a simple word or simplex, and the one consisting two morphemes or more is complex (Lieber, 2010).

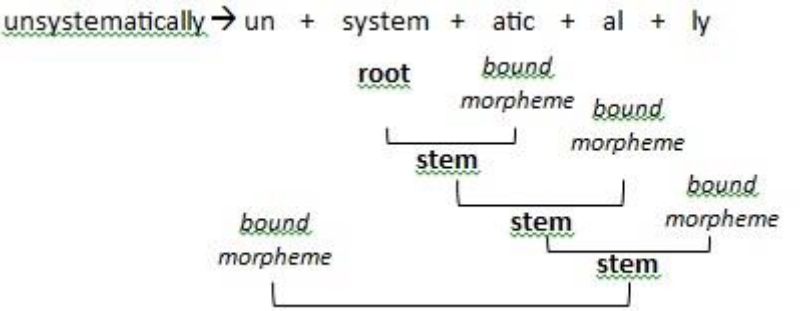
Table 4.1. Simplex and Complex Words

Word A linguistic unit that can stand alone	
Simplex A word consisting one morpheme	**Complex** A word consisting more than one morpheme
Cat	cats
girl	girls
create	creation
walk	walked
run	running
wash	rewash
approach	approachable
crystal	crystallize
happy	unhappy
act	enact
amuse	amusement
gentle	gentler
teach	teacher
govern	governments
judge	judgmental
agree	disagreement
system	unsystematically

As Table 4.1 showed, there are single morphemes standing alone and forming a word that has a meaning, such as cat, wash, teach and amuse. On the other side, there are words such as cats, rewash, teacher and amusement. Those words consist of more than one morpheme. The word 'cats' consists of cat + s, rewash is from re + wash, teacher is created from teach + er, and amusement consists of amuse + ment. The affixes '-s', 're-', '-er' and '-ment' cannot stand alone, moreover have a meaning. They need to attach to another word. In morphology, the first one is called free morpheme or root, and the latter is bound morpheme. Besides, there are complex words such as governments and judgmental that consists of more than two morphemes. In morphology, the words governments and judgmental can be analyzed as followed:

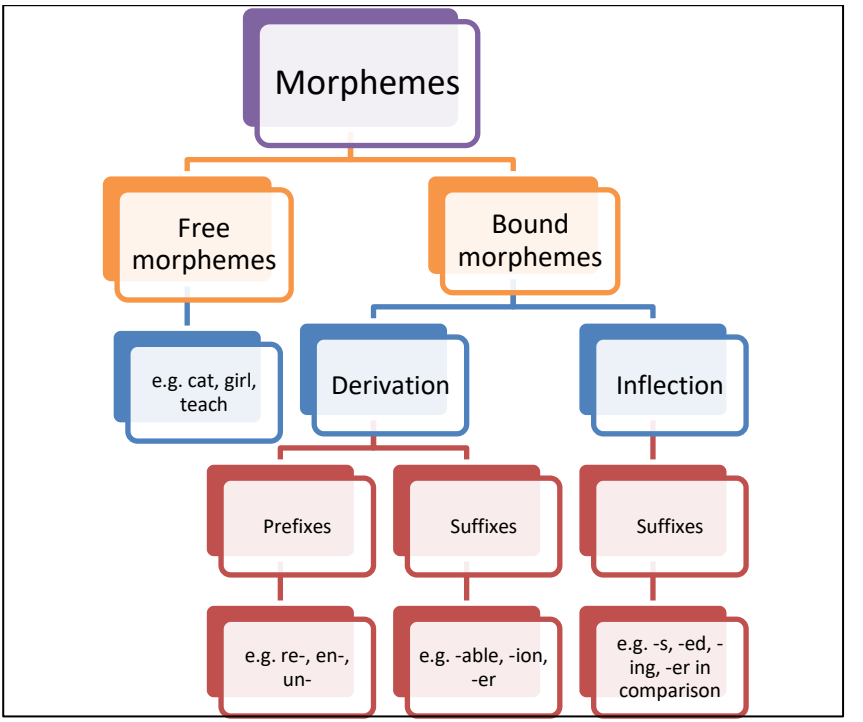
governments → governent + s → govern + ment
judgmental → judgment + al → judge + ment

As bound morphemes, suffixes '-s' and '-al' attach to the words government and judgment, respectively, while suffix '-ment' attaches to the words govern and judge. In morphology, the words govern and judge is called as the root (free morpheme), which is the core of the word to which a bound morpheme attached; while government and judgment are defined as stem, which is a base unit to which a bound morpheme attached (Aronoff & Fudeman, 2012). The stem itself can consist of a root and other bound morpheme(s). For example the word unsystematically, it is formed from bound morpheme 'un' and the stem systematically, while systematically is from stem systematical with bound morpheme '-ly'. In short, unsystematically has system as the root, and 'un-', '-atic', '-al', '-ly' as the bound morphemes.



Picture 4.1. Root and Stem Analysis for Unsystematically

Based on Table 4.1, there are words such as cat – cats, walk – walked, act – enact, and happy – unhappy. The words cat – cats and walk – walked do not have any different meaning even though the bound morpheme attached to them. However, the word act – enact and happy – unhappy have different meaning after the bound morpheme attached. It is because they have different types of bound morphemes.



Picture 4.2. Morpheme Types

The first type of bound morphemes is derivation. When a derivational morpheme is attached to a root or stem, it will create a new word/a new entry in dictionary (a new lexeme) and it may have a different meaning. For example, happy – unhappy and teach – teacher. When a derivational morpheme attached, one of these following three things happened (Lieber,2010) :

1. Changing part of the speech (category) of a word. It means that the derivational morpheme changes a noun into an adjective, a verb into a noun, etc.
   For example: amuse (v) → amusement (n)
2. Adding a new meaning: The derivational morpheme attached does not change the word category, but gives a different meaning. For example: happy (adj.) → unhappy (adj.) which means not happy (sad)

3. Changing category and adding a new meaning: It means when a derivational morpheme attached, it will both change the word category and add a new meaning. For example: teach (v) → teacher (n) which means the person who teaches

The second type is inflection, which relates to the formation of grammatical features. Inflectional morphemes do not involve in a new meaning addition and category changing, and just show grammatical distinction such as different tense use, number (plural/singular), gender (feminine, masculine, neuter), and person (first, second, third) as defined by the sentence structure. For example:

cat (n) → cats (n)	the addition of suffix -s shows plural form
walk (v) → walked (v)	the addition of suffix -ed shows past tense
run (v) → running (v)	the addition of suffix -ing shows present continuous
gentle (adj.) → gentler (adj.)	the addition of suffix -er shows comparison

The examples show that the inflectional morphemes attached neither adding a new meaning nor changing the category. In the dictionary, those whose inflectional morpheme attached are under the same entry as their root (do not creating a new lexeme).

4.3. MORPHOLOGICAL PROCESSES

Morphological processes can be defined as operations applied to a base (a root or a stem) that express the meaning that a speaker want to convey (Aikhenvald & Dixon, 2020). There are several types of morphological processes:

1. Affixation

Affixation is a morphological process that involves affixes, which are a linguistics part that should be attached to a root or a stem to form a new lexeme (derived form) or an inflected form (Aronoff & Fudeman, 2012). Affixes can be in the form of prefixes, suffixes, infixes and circumfixes. Even though there are several forms of affixes, not all of them occur in every language. Some affixes (prefixes and suffixes) have been discussed previously. To clarify, prefixes come before the root/stem, while suffixes come after. When both occur simultaneously, it is what is defined as circumfixes. Infixes are placed in the middle of the stem. Here are the examples of affixes taken from English and Indonesian:

Table 4.2. Example of Affixation

Affixes	Meaning/function	Example
	Prefix	
re-	Again	Rewash
un-	not	unhappy
mis-	wrong	misunderstand
	Suffix	
-able	capable of	Approachable
-ful	full of	fearful
-less	without	tasteless
	Infix	
-er-	various of	gerigi (Ind. gigi means tooth)
-em-	frequent intensity	gemuruh (Ind. guruh means thunder)
-em-	similar to	kemuning (Ind. kuning means yellow)

Circumfix		
ke-an	forming noun	kebahagiaan (Ind.
pe-an	forming noun	bahagia means happy)
per-an	indicating process	pencapaian (Ind. capai
	forming noun	means to achieve)
	indicating result	pertanyaan (Ind. tanya
		means to ask)

2. Compounding

Compounding is a process to derive a new lexeme by combining two or more free morphemes. For example:

dog + house → doghouse
water + fall → waterfall
oil + can → oil can
walk + man → Walkman
school + bus → school bus
green + house → greenhouse
hot + dog → hot dog

There are three different ways to write compound words, which are (a) with an intervening space, (b) with hyphens, and (c) without any break/written as one word. Here are the examples:

a. with an intervening space
   oil + can→ oil can
   school + bus → school bus
   hot + dog → hot dog
   end + zone → end zone
   high + school → high school
b. with hyphens
   twenty + six → twenty-six
   mother + in law → mother-in-law
   second + rate → second-rate

saber + tooth →saber-tooth

c. without any break

dog + house → doghouse
water + fall → waterfall
green + house → greenhouse
boat + house → boathouse
song + writer → songwriter

In linguistics, compounds can be divided into two categories. The first category is endocentric, and the second one is exocentric. The difference between the two is based on whether the compound has the head or not. The function of the head is to determine the meaning of the compound itself.

a. Endocentric Compound

Endocentric compound is the compound that has a head, and the head determines the core meaning of the compound and the lexical category of the compound as a whole. Here are the examples:

Table 4.3. Examples of Endocentric Compound

Compounds	**Head**
goldfish (n)	fish (n)
board game (n)	game (n)
oil can (n)	can (n)
policeman (n)	man (n)
graveyard (n)	yard (n)
aftertaste (n)	taste (n)
school bus (n)	bus (n)
doghouse (n)	house (n)
waterski (v)	ski (v)

The examples in Table 4.3 show that the meaning of each compound is determined from its head. The compound goldfish is determined by the head fish, so it can be defined as a certain type of fishes. Board game can be defined from its head which is game, so it is a certain type of game that uses a board to play. Oil can, based on its head, is a type of can which is used to store oil. The head also determines the category of the compound, when the head is a noun, the compound is also a noun, when the head is a verb like ski in waterski, the compound is a verb as well.

b. Exocentric Compound

Exocentric compound is a compound whose meaning and lexical category is not determined from its head; in other words, it does not have a head (Aronoff & Fudeman, 2012). Its meaning can be totally different from the meaning of those free morphemes joined. Here are the examples:

Figurehead	:	not a type of head, just a compound whose meaning is different from the free morphemes joined
Walkman	:	not a type of man, but a type of machine
Redhead	:	not a type of head, but a type of person
four-eyes	:	not a type of eyes, but a person wearing glasses
Hothead	:	a person who easily gets angry
red-hot	:	a type of candy

Even though that compounds can be categorized into endocentric and exocentric, the matter of the categorization sometimes is based on the opinion. As explained by (Fabb in Aronoff & Fudeman, 2012), the compound greenhouse can be both endocentric and exocentric. When it is thought as a type of house, which is house whose green paint, greenhouse is endocentric. However, when it is thought as

warm glassed-in structure for growing plants, it is exocentric.

c. Reduplication

Reduplication is a morphological process in which a certain part of word is duplicated. It can be the beginning or the end of the word or the whole word is duplicated. Sometimes, when duplicating, the vowel is changed at the same time. In languages, reduplication can be used for derivation or inflection. Depending on the language in which it is employed, reduplication is used for intensification, pluralization, or repetition.

Here are some examples taken from English and Indonesian:

Chitchat	:	small talk, gossip
Jinglejangle	:	a jingling and jangling sound
handy-dandy	:	convenient and useful
teeny-weeny	:	Tiny
kuda-kuda	:	Horses
rumah-rumah	:	Houses
pohon-pohon	:	Trees

The English reduplication teeny-weeny is used for intensification to describe how tiny something is. While the Indonesian reduplication kuda-kuda is used for pluralization to show that the horse is more than one. Jinglejangle in the example show repetition to imitate sound.

d. Conversion

Conversion is changing the word class without changing the form. According to (Nurhayati, 2013) conversion is a derivational process in which an element is changed or adapted into a new word class without the addition of an affix. It allows a word to function as a different part of speech depending on the context. Here are the examples:

1. Noun to Verb:
   Example : "Run" (noun) → "to run" (verb)
2. Adjective to Noun:
   Example : "Happy" (adjective) → "happiness" (noun)

The example show that, the word "run" as a noun refers to an instance of running or a race ("I went for a run"). When used as a verb, "to run" describes the action of moving quickly on foot ("I like to run"). The same form of the word is used, but its function changes depending on whether it's used as a noun or a verb.

While, the word "happy" describes a state of joy or contentment ("She feels happy"). When transformed into "happiness," it refers to the state or quality of being happy ("Her happiness is contagious"). The adjective describes a quality, while the noun represents the concept of that quality. In both examples, the words retain their original sound and spelling, but their grammatical roles shift depending on context. This flexibility allows for more dynamic expression in language.

e. Suppletion

Suppletion in morphology is a process where an irregular morphological change occurs, resulting in the use of completely different forms to express grammatical distinctions. This contrasts with regular morphological changes, where affixes are typically added to a base form. While, according to (Rokhmah & Rahmadona, 2022) suppletion in morphology is a process in which different word forms are used to indicate grammatical changes, even though there is no similarity in form or sound between the base word and the resulting form. Here are the examples:

1. **Good → Better → Best**: In this case, "good" becomes "better" and "best." All three forms have no structural similarity to the base form.

2. **Go → Went**: The verb "go" changes to "went" to indicate the past tense. This change does not follow a regular pattern.

Suppletion often occurs with highly common words in a language, such as irregular verbs and adjectives. This process demonstrates how language can evolve and adapt, with words taking on very different forms to convey different meanings.

4.4. CONCLUSION

Morphology is a branch of linguistics that focuses on word formation through morphemes, which are the smallest units of meaning. Morphemes can be classified into free morphemes, which can stand alone as words, and bound morphemes, which must attach to other words. The processes of morphological transformation—such as affixation, compounding, reduplication, conversion, and suppletion—highlight the dynamic nature of language. Each process serves a specific function: affixation modifies meaning or grammatical category; compounding creates new words from existing morphemes; reduplication emphasizes or pluralizes; conversion alters the word class without changing form; and suppletion involves irregular changes to convey grammatical distinctions. Together, these processes illustrate the complexity and adaptability of language, enabling nuanced communication and expression. By understanding morphology, we can explore linguistic variation and change, as well as the patterns inherent in language use. This research underscores that knowledge of morphology is not only beneficial for enhancing language skills but also for understanding how language functions within cultural and communicative contexts. Thus, an understanding of morphology can enrich communication skills and cross-cultural understanding in an increasingly diverse society.

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CHAPTER 5
SYNTAX

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5.1. INTRODUCTION TO SYNTAX

Syntax is the branch of linguistics that focuses on the rules and principles governing the structure of sentences in a language. In English, syntax plays a crucial role in how words and phrases are arranged to convey meaning. Unlike morphology, which deals with the formation of individual words, syntax explores the relationships between words and how these relationships shape the overall meaning of a sentence. By studying syntax, we can understand how native speakers intuitively construct grammatically correct sentences and how certain structures can vary while retaining meaning. The syntax of English is rule-governed yet flexible, allowing for a vast array of sentence structures. At the core of English syntax are subjects, verbs, and objects, but more complex elements such as clauses, phrases, and modifiers come into play as well. Understanding syntax involves exploring not just word order but also how different parts of a sentence work together to form coherent expressions, ask questions, issue commands, or express emotions.

As we delve into English syntax, it becomes evident that it is not only about grammatical correctness but also about style, clarity, and emphasis. These factors influence how we communicate, whether in written or spoken discourse. This chapter will provide an in-depth exploration of English syntax,

highlighting key principles, common patterns, and some of the intricacies that make it a rich field of study.

Syntax is a fundamental aspect of linguistics that deals with the structure of sentences and the rules that govern the arrangement of words within those sentences. It is crucial for understanding how meaning is constructed in language, as the syntactic structure can significantly alter the interpretation of a sentence. For instance, the difference between "The cat chased the dog" and "The dog chased the cat" illustrates how syntax influences meaning. Understanding syntax is essential for various linguistic applications, including language teaching, computational linguistics, and cognitive science, as it provides insights into language processing and acquisition (Jaelani et al., 2022; Bergs & Brinton, 2012).

The study of syntax has evolved significantly over the years, with Noam being one of the most influential figures in this field. 's work in the 1950s introduced the concept of generative grammar, which posits that a finite set of rules can generate an infinite number of sentences. His seminal work, "Aspects of the Theory of Syntax," laid the groundwork for modern syntactic theory by proposing that syntax is governed by universal principles applicable across languages (Peter & Chomsky, 1968; Chomsky, 2005). Over the decades, various approaches have emerged, including the Principles-and-Parameters model, which seeks to explain the similarities and differences among languages through a limited set of syntactic rules (Chomsky, 2005). This historical context highlights the dynamic nature of syntactic theory and its ongoing development.

5.2. SENTENCE STRUCTURE

A sentence is the basic unit of language that conveys a complete thought. It consists of several components that work together to form a coherent message. The subject is the noun or

pronoun that performs the action described by the verb. It typically comes first in a simple sentence. The predicate includes the verb and any additional information about the subject. It describes what the subject is doing or what is happening to the subject. Example: (1) Simple Sentence : "She ate breakfast.", Subject : "She", Predicate:"ate breakfast". Complex Sentences**:** (1) Independent Clauses: An independent clause can stand alone as a complete sentence., and (2) Dependent Clauses: A dependent clause cannot stand alone and relies on an independent clause for its meaning. Example: "Because she was tired, she went to bed early."Independent Clause: "She went to bed early." Dependent Clause:"Because she was tired."

5.2.1. PARTS OF SPEECH

Parts of speech are the categories into which words are classified based on their grammatical function. Major Parts of Speech:

1. Nouns (N): 1a) Proper Noun is names of specific people, places, or things e.g., John, London). 1b) Common Noun is general terms for people, places, or things e.g., man, city.
2. Verbs (V): 2a) Action Verbs is to describe physical or mental actions e.g., run, think. 2b) Linking Verbs is to connect the subject to additional information e.g., be, seem. 2c) Auxiliary Verbs:Help form the tense, mood, or voice of another verb e.g., will, have.
3. Adjectives (Adj): Modify or describe nouns or pronouns e.g., happy, blue.
4. Adverbs (Adv): to modify or describe verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs e.g., quickly, very.
5. Pronouns (Pron): Replace nouns in a sentence e.g., he, she.
6. Prepositions (Prep): Show relationships between words or phrases e.g., in, on.

7. Conjunctions (Conj): To connect words, phrases, or clauses e.g., and, but.
8. Interjections (Intj): Express emotion or feeling (e.g., oh, wow).

   Example: "The big red car drove quickly down the street." nouns: "car," "street"; verbs: "drove"; adjectives: "big," "red", adverbs: "quickly"; prepositions: "down"

5.2.2. PHRASE STRUCTURE

Phrase structure refers to the way in which words combine to form phrases, which are groups of words that function as a single unit. Basic Phrase Structures:

1. Noun Phrase (NP): a group of words that functions as a single unit and typically contains a noun as its head. Example: "The big red car" (Here, "car" is the head noun.)
2. Verb Phrase (VP): a group of words that functions as a single unit and typically contains a verb as its head. Example: "drove quickly down the street" (Here, "drove" is the main verb.)
3. Adjective Phrase (AdjP): a group of words that modifies a noun or pronoun. Example: "very happy with the news" (Here, "happy" modifies "news")
4. Adverbial Phrase (AdvP): a group of words that modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. Example: "quickly down the street" (Here, "quickly" modifies "drove")
5. Prepositional Phrase (PP): a group of words that begins with a preposition and ends with a noun or pronoun. Example: "down the street" (Here, "down" is the preposition)

5.2.3. PHRASE STRUCTURE RULES

1. Headedness: Phrases are typically headed by a specific word that determines their function.

2. Linear Order: Words within a phrase follow specific linear orders based on their grammatical roles.
3. Modification: Words within a phrase can modify each other to provide additional information. Example Analysis: Consider the sentence: "The big red car drove quickly down the street." noun Phrase: "The big red car", headed by "car", modified by "big" and "red". Verb Phrase: "drove quickly down the street", headed by "drove", modified by "quickly", contains a prepositional phrase "down the street"

5.3. SYNTACTIC CATEGORIES AND FUNCTIONS

1. Noun Phrases (NP)

A noun phrase (NP) is a group of words that functions as a single unit and typically contains a noun as its head. NPs can provide information about the noun, such as its properties, location, or quantity. Structure: (1) Determiners: Words like "the," "a," "an," and "this" that precede the noun and specify which noun is being referred to. (2) Adjectives: Modifiers that describe the noun, such as "big," "happy," or "blue." (3) Modifiers: Other words that provide additional information about the noun, including clauses or prepositional phrases. Example:

"The big red car" is a noun phrase where "The" is a determiner. "Big" and "red" are adjectives. "Car" is the head noun.

2. Verb Phrases (VPs)

A verb phrase (VP) is a group of words that functions as a single unit and typically contains a main verb as its head. VPs can include auxiliary verbs and other elements that provide additional information about the action or state described by the main verb. Structure: (1) Main Verbs: The primary action or state described by the verb phrase, such as "run," "eat," or "be."Auxiliary Verbs: Helping verbs like "will," "would," "can,"

or "have" that modify the main verb. Complements:Words or phrases that complete the meaning of the verb phrase, such as objects or subjects. Example: "She will run" is a verb phrase where "She" is the subject. "will" is an auxiliary verb. "Run" is the main verb.

3. Other Phrases: Prepositional Phrases (PPs)

A prepositional phrase (PP) is a group of words that functions as a single unit and typically begins with a preposition. PPs provide information about location, direction, time, manner, or other relationships. Structure: Prepositions: Words like "in," "on," "at," or "with" that introduce the phrase. Objects:The words or phrases that follow the preposition, such as nouns or pronouns. Example: "In the park" is a prepositional phrase where: "In" is the preposition. "the park" is the object.

4. Adjective Phrases (AdjPs)

An adjective phrase (AdjP) is a group of words that functions as a single unit and typically contains an adjective as its head. AdjPs describe or modify nouns or pronouns. Structure: (a) Adjectives: Modifiers that describe the noun or pronoun, such as "happy," "blue," or "very tall." (b) Modifiers:Other words that provide additional information about the adjective, including clauses or prepositional phrases. Example: "Very happy with the news" is an adjective phrase where: "very happy" is an adjective phrase describing "with the news." The word "very" is an intensifier. "happy" is an adjective.

5. Adverbial Phrases (AdvPs)

An adverbial phrase (AdvP) is a group of words that functions as a single unit and typically contains an adverb as its head. AdvPs provide information about manner, time, place, frequency, or other aspects of the action or state described by

the verb. Structure: (a) Adverbs: Modifiers that describe verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs, such as "quickly," "yesterday," or "here." (b) Modifiers:Other words that provide additional information about the adverb, including clauses or prepositional phrases. Example: "She sings beautifully" is an adverbial phrase where: The word "beautifully" is an adverb describing how she sings. It modifies the verb "sings."

5.4. SENTENCE TYPES AND STRUCTURES

Understanding the different types of sentences is essential for effective communication and comprehension. Here's a detailed look at simple, compound, complex, and compound-complex sentences:

1. **Simple Sentences**

   A simple sentence is a single independent clause that expresses a complete thought. It typically has a subject and a predicate and does not contain any subordinate clauses. Example: "She ate breakfast." (Here, "She" is the subject, and "ate breakfast" is the predicate.) The characteristics: (a) Single Independent Clause: The sentence contains only one main clause. (b) No Subordinate Clauses: There are no clauses that depend on another clause for their meaning.

2. **Compound Sentences**

   A compound sentence is formed by joining two or more independent clauses using a conjunction. Each independent clause can stand alone as a complete sentence. Examples: "She ate breakfast, and then she went to work." (Here, "She ate breakfast" and "then she went to work" are two independent clauses joined by "and."). "I love reading books, but I also enjoy watching movies." (Here, "I love reading books" and "I also enjoy watching movies" are two independent clauses joined by "but."). The characteristics: (a) two or More Independent Clauses:** The sentence

contains two or more main clauses. (b) Conjunctions:** The clauses are joined using coordinating conjunctions like "and," "but," "or," etc.

3. **Complex Sentences**

   A complex sentence is formed by combining an independent clause with one or more subordinate clauses. The subordinate clause cannot stand alone as a complete sentence.

   Examples: "Because she was tired, she went to bed early." (Here, "she went to bed early" is the independent clause, and "Because she was tired" is the subordinate clause.) "After finishing her homework, she watched TV." (Here, "she watched TV" is the independent clause, and "After finishing her homework" is the subordinate clause.) The characteristics: (a) One Independent Clause:The sentence contains one main clause. (b) One or More Subordinate Clauses:The sentence includes one or more clauses that depend on the independent clause for their meaning.

4. **Subordinate Clauses**

   Subordinate clauses are essential components of complex sentences. They provide additional information about the main clause but cannot stand alone as complete sentences. Types of Subordinate Clauses: (1) time Clauses: "When," "while," "after," etc. Example: "When I finish my homework, I will go out." (2) cause Clauses: "Because," "since," etc. Example: "Because it was raining, we stayed indoors." (3) condition Clauses: "If," "unless," etc. Example: "If I had more time, I would travel more." (4) Purpose Clauses: "So that," "in order to," etc. Example: "I studied hard so that I could pass the exam."

5. **Compound-Complex Sentences**

   A compound-complex sentence is a combination of both compound and complex sentences. It contains at least two

independent clauses and one or more subordinate clauses. Examples:

(a) "I went to the store because I needed milk, and I also bought eggs." (Here, "I went to the store because I needed milk" is a complex sentence with a subordinate clause, and "and I also bought eggs" is an independent clause.) (b) "After finishing my homework, I watched TV because I was tired." (Here, "After finishing my homework" is a subordinate clause, "I watched TV" is an independent clause, and "because I was tired" is another subordinate clause.) The characteristics: (a) two or More Independent Clauses: The sentence contains two or more main clauses. (b) One or More Subordinate Clauses:The sentence includes one or more clauses that depend on the independent clauses for their meaning.

5.5. TRANSFORMATIONS AND SYNTACTIC OPERATIONS

1. Movement Rules

Movement rules in syntax involve rearranging elements within a sentence to change its structure or emphasis. Two common movement operations are topicalization and wh-movement.

2. Topicalization

Topicalization involves moving a constituent to the beginning of a sentence to emphasize it. This operation typically involves moving a noun phrase or a clause to the front of the sentence. Example: (a) "The book, I read it yesterday." (Here, "the book" is topicalized to emphasize it.) (b) Original Sentence: "I read the book yesterday." (c)Topicalized Sentence: "The book, I read it yesterday."

3. Wh-Movement

Wh-movement involves moving a wh-word (such as "who," "what," "where," etc.) to the beginning of a sentence to form a question. This operation is part of forming interrogative sentences. Example: (a) Original Sentence:"I know who ate the cake." (b) Question Formed with Wh-Movement: "Who ate the cake?" The characteristics: (a) Rearrangement of Constituents: Movement rules involve rearranging elements within the sentence. (b) Emphasis and Focus: These operations can change the emphasis or focus of the sentence.

4. Passive Construction

Passive construction involves transforming an active sentence into a passive one by changing the focus from the doer of the action (the subject) to the action itself. The passive voice often uses the auxiliary verb "to be" in its various forms (e.g., "was," "were," "is," "are," etc.) and the past participle of the main verb. (a) Active Sentence: "The manager wrote the report." (b) Passive Sentence: "The report was written by the manager." The characteristics: (1) Subject-Verb Agreement: In passive constructions, the subject of the sentence is often the object of the active sentence. (2) Use of Auxiliary Verb:The auxiliary verb "to be" is used in its appropriate form to form the passive voice.

5. Question Formation

Question formation involves creating interrogative sentences from declarative ones. There are two main types of questions: yes/no questions and wh-questions. (a) Yes/No Questions: Yes/no questions are formed by changing the word order of a declarative sentence and typically end with a question mark. Examples: (1) Declarative Sentence: "She is going to the store." (2) Yes/No Question: "Is she going to the store?" The

characteristics: (b) Inversion of Subject and Auxiliary Verb: The subject and auxiliary verb are inverted in yes/no questions. Question Mark: The sentence ends with a question mark. (c) Wh-Questions: Wh-questions are formed by moving a wh-word (such as "who," "what," "where," etc.) to the beginning of a sentence. Examples: (1) Declarative Sentence: "I know who ate the cake." (2) Wh-Question: "Who ate the cake?" The characteristics: Movement of Wh-Word: The wh-word is moved to the beginning of the sentence in wh-questions. Use of Auxiliary Verb: The auxiliary verb may be moved along with the wh-word if necessary.

5.6. SYNTACTIC THEORIES AND APPROACHES

1. Generative Grammar (Chomsky's Generative Grammar)

Chomsky's generative grammar is a theoretical framework in linguistics that focuses on the innate ability of humans to generate an infinite number of sentences from a finite set of rules. It is primarily concerned with the deep and surface structures of sentences. (1) **Deep Structures**: these are the underlying, abstract structures of sentences that represent the underlying meaning. (2) **Surface Structures**: these are the actual sentences we speak, which are derived from the deep structures through transformational rules. Chomsky's theory, particularly his Government and Binding (GB) theory, posits that the deep structure is transformed into the surface structure through a series of transformations, which include movement and deletion rules. This framework has been influential in understanding the syntax of human language, but it has also faced criticisms regarding its complexity and the need for additional constraints.

2. Dependency Grammar

Dependency grammar (DG) is an alternative to phrase structure approaches, focusing on the relationships between words in a sentence rather than the hierarchical structure of phrases. Here are the key points about dependency grammar: (1) Basic Concepts: in DG, each word in a sentence is linked to another word, called the head, which it depends on. The one word that does not depend on any other word is called the root. (2) Dependency Relations: these are binary relations where each word is either a head or a dependent. The properties of these relations include acyclicity, rootedness, single-headedness, and asymmetry. Formal Properties: DG trees must adhere to constraints such as acyclicity (no cycles), rootedness (a single root), single-headedness (each word has one head), and asymmetry (a word cannot depend on itself and cannot be both head and dependent at the same time). Advantages and Disadvantage have been influential in natural language processing (NLP) due to its simplicity and flexibility. However, it has been criticized for its inability to handle complex sentences and its lack of clear projectivity rules.

3. Functional Grammar: Functional Approaches to Syntax

Functional grammar focuses on how syntactic structures serve communicative purposes. This approach emphasizes the role of syntax in conveying meaning and facilitating communication. (1) Communicative Purpose: functional grammarians argue that syntactic structures are not just abstract representations but are designed to serve specific communicative functions. This includes conveying information, expressing attitudes, and organizing discourse. (2) Syntactic Structures: these structures are seen as tools for achieving communicative goals. For example, the use of subject-verb-object word order in English is often linked to the need for clear

subject-identification and the expression of agency. (3) Variation and Context: functional grammar recognizes that syntactic structures can vary depending on context and communicative needs. This approach is more flexible and adaptive compared to generative grammar, which often relies on universal, innate rules.

Syntactic Variation and Change

1. Dialectal Variations

Dialectal variations in English syntax refer to the differences in grammatical structures and rules across different regional or social dialects. These variations can be observed in various aspects of syntax, including word order, clause structure, and the use of auxiliary verbs. Examples: (a) Word Order: In some dialects, the word order may differ from the standard Subject-Verb-Object (SVO) order. For instance, in some African American Vernacular English (AAVE), the verb may come before the subject in certain contexts. Example: "Me go store" instead of "I go to the store." (b) Auxiliary Verbs: The use of auxiliary verbs can also vary. In some dialects, the auxiliary "do" may be used more frequently in questions and negations. Example: "Did you see him?" (standard) vs. "You see him?" (some dialects).

Factors Influencing Dialectal Variations:

(1) Geographical Isolation: dialects in geographically isolated areas may develop unique grammatical features due to limited contact with speakers from other regions. (2) Cultural and Social Factors: dialects can reflect cultural and social norms, with certain grammatical structures becoming more prevalent in specific communities. (3) Language Contact: the influence of other languages spoken in the region can also shape the syntax of local dialects.

2. Language Change

Historical changes in English syntax are complex and multifaceted, driven by a variety of internal and external factors. (1) Old English to Middle English:The transition from Old English to Middle English saw significant changes in morphology and syntax. Inflectional endings weakened, making word order more important for distinguishing grammatical relationships. (2) Middle English to Modern English:During this period, English syntax became more standardized. The SVO word order became more common, and constructions like "do-support" in questions and negations became more widespread.

Factors Driving Syntactic Change:

(1) Language Contact: the influence of other languages, such as Latin and French during the Norman Conquest, introduced new grammatical structures and vocabulary that altered English syntax. (2) Grammaticalization: processes like grammaticalization, where lexical items evolve into grammatical ones, have contributed to changes in English syntax over time. (3) Pragmatic Factors: discourse-pragmatic factors, including the need for clarity and efficiency in communication, have also driven changes in how sentences are structured. Examples of Historical Changes: the Development of Subordinate Clauses: The use of subordinate clauses has evolved over time, with new constructions emerging to express complex relationships between clauses. Example: The development of relative clauses (e.g., "the book which I read") from earlier constructions like "the book that I read". The Rise of the Progressive Aspect: The frequency of the progressive aspect (e.g., "I am eating") has increased over the centuries, reflecting changes in how actions are described in English.

5.7. APPLICATION OF SYNTACTIC ANALYSIS

1. Parsing Sentences Using Syntactic Trees

Parsing Sentences are a visual representation of the structure of a sentence, showing how words are grouped into phrases and clauses. Here's how to parse sentences using syntactic trees: (a) Identify the Main Clause: start by identifying the main clause of the sentence. This is usually the part that contains the subject and the predicate. (b) Break Down the Clause: break down the main clause into smaller units such as noun phrases, verb phrases, and prepositional phrases. 3. Create a Tree Structure: use a tree diagram to represent the hierarchical structure of the sentence. Each node in the tree represents a word or phrase, and the branches show how these elements are related.

2. Label Nodes

Label each node with its part of speech (noun, verb, adjective, etc.) and indicate its function in the sentence (subject, object, modifier). Example: Consider the sentence "The big red car drove quickly down the street."

Syntactic Tree: root Node: sentence. **Branch 1**: Noun Phrase (NP), Node 1: Determiner (The). Node 2: Adjective Phrase (AdjP), Node 3: Adjective (big), Node 4: Adjective (red), Node 5: Noun (car) **Branch 2**: Verb Phrase (VP), Node 6: Verb (drove), Node 7: Adverb (quickly), Branch 3: Prepositional Phrase (PP), Node 8: Preposition (down), Node 9: Noun Phrase (NP), Node 10: Preposition (the), Node 11: Noun (street). This tree structure helps in understanding how each word contributes to the overall meaning of the sentence.

5.8. SYNTAX IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

Syntax is crucial for teaching English, especially for non-native speakers. Here are some implications: (1) Clear Structure:

non-native speakers often struggle with word order and sentence structure. Teaching clear and consistent structures helps them understand how to form grammatically correct sentences. (2) Practice Exercises: providing practice exercises where students can rearrange words to form correct sentences helps reinforce their understanding of syntax. (3) Contextual Learning: using real-life examples and contextual learning activities helps students see the practical application of syntax in everyday communication. (4) Feedback and Correction: regular feedback and correction on syntax errors are essential for improving students' skills. This can be done through peer review, teacher feedback, or using technology-enhanced learning tools. Example Activities: (a) Sentence Scramble Activity: Write a sentence with the words out of order and ask students to put them back in order. (b) Syntax Games: create games where students have to identify grammatical errors or complete sentences with correct syntax. (c) Interactive Lessons: Use interactive whiteboards or digital tools to create interactive lessons that demonstrate how sentences are structured.

5.9. SYNTAX AND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Development of Syntactic Knowledge: syntactic knowledge develops differently in first and second language learners: (1) First Language Learners: children acquiring their first language typically develop syntactic knowledge through exposure and interaction with their environment. They learn by imitating and practicing the structures they hear around them. (2) Second Language Learners: non-native speakers acquiring a second language often face challenges in understanding and using syntactic structures correctly. They may need explicit instruction, practice exercises, and feedback to develop their syntactic skills. The factors Influencing Acquisition: (1) Age: children tend to acquire syntax more naturally than adults, who

may need more structured instruction. (2) Instructional Methods: the effectiveness of instructional methods can significantly influence the development of syntactic knowledge in second language learners. (3) Practice Opportunities: regular practice opportunities, such as speaking and writing activities, are crucial for reinforcing syntactic knowledge. Example Studies: - The study by Siti Ismahani et al.highlights the diverse perceptions of syntax among undergraduate EFL students and emphasizes the role of context and practice in developing syntax understanding. - The book by Robert D. Van Valin Jr. provides a comprehensive introduction to syntax, including exercises and recommendations for further study, which can be valuable for both first and second language learners.

5.10. SUMMARY OF INTRODUCTION TO SYNTAX

Syntax is the branch of linguistics that focuses on the rules and principles governing sentence structure in language. It explores how words combine to form phrases and sentences, allowing language users to convey meaning. Syntax goes beyond the formation of individual words (morphology) and delves into the relationships between words in sentence construction. The importance of Syntax: (1) syntax shapes meaning; for example, the difference between "The cat chased the dog" and "The dog chased the cat" depends on syntactic structure. (2) understanding syntax is crucial in areas such as language teaching, computational linguistics, and cognitive science, as it offers insights into language processing and acquisition.

The study of syntax has evolved, with Noam Chomskybeing a central figure. His concept of generative grammar, introduced in the 1950s, proposed that a finite set of rules can generate an infinite number of sentences. Chomsky's work, such as "Aspects of the Theory of Syntax", laid the foundation for modern

syntactic theory and led to models like the Principles-and-Parameters framework, which explains language similarities and differences through universal syntactic principles. The key concepts in syntax: (1) Sentence Structure: sentences consist of subjects, predicates, and various clauses. Independent clauses can stand alone, while dependent clauses rely on independent clauses. (2) Parts of Speech: these include nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections, each serving specific grammatical functions. (3) Phrase Structure: phrases are groups of words functioning as a single unit, such as noun phrases (NP), verb phrases (VP), adjective phrases (AdjP), and adverbial phrases (AdvP). There are some types of sentences: (1) simple sentences : contain a single independent clause. (2) compound sentences: combine two or more independent clauses using conjunctions, (3) complex sentences: contain an independent clause and one or more subordinate clauses, (4) compound-complex sentences: Include two or more independent clauses and at least one subordinate clause. The syntactic Operations: (1) movement rules: involve rearranging elements within a sentence for emphasis or question formation (e.g., topicalization, wh-movement), (2) passive construction: shifts focus from the subject performing the action to the action itself (e.g., "The report was written by the manager"). (3) question Formation: involves inverting subjects and verbs for yes/no questions or moving a wh-word to the beginning for wh-questions.

Syntactic Theories and Approaches: (1) Generative Grammar: introduce Chomsky’s generative grammar, focusing on deep and surface structures. (2) Dependency Grammar: provide an overview of dependency grammar and how it differs from phrase structure approaches. (3) Functional Grammar:Discuss functional approaches to syntax, focusing on how syntactic structures serve communicative purposes.

Syntactic Variation and Change: (1) Dialectal Variations: regional dialects often display unique syntactic structures and (2) language Change: historical transitions in English syntax have been influenced by factors like language contact and grammaticalization. Syntax plays a vital role in teaching English, as understanding word order and sentence structure is essential for non-native speakers. Exercises like sentence scrambles, syntax games, and interactive lessons help learners grasp syntactic principles. This chapter underscores the importance of syntax in both theoretical and practical linguistic contexts, particularly in understanding how language operates at the sentence level.

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CHAPTER 6
SOCIOLINGUISTICS

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6.1. INTRODUCTION

Sociolinguistics is a vital subfield of linguistics that examines the intricate relationship between language and society. It explores how social factors such as ethnicity, gender, age, and socioeconomic status influence language use and variation. The field emerged prominently in the mid-20th century, with foundational contributions from scholars like William Labov and Basil Bernstein, who highlighted the social determinants of linguistic variation and communication patterns within different communities(Spolsky, 2010; Xamidullaevna, 2021). Sociolinguistics is interdisciplinary, bridging sociology and linguistics to provide a comprehensive understanding of how language functions within social contexts.

One of the primary objectives of sociolinguistics is to understand how language varies and changes in different social settings. This involves studying dialects, sociolects, and registers, which are influenced by factors such as region, social class, and context of use(Emike et al., 2021; Shu, 2019; UKEssays, 2021). For instance, dialectology, a branch of sociolinguistics, examines regional variations in language, while studies on sociolects focus on language variations within specific social groups. These variations are not merely linguistic phenomena but are deeply embedded in the social identities and cultural practices of the speakers.

Sociolinguistics also delves into the concept of language attitudes and ideologies, which are crucial for understanding how languages are perceived and valued within societies. Language attitudes can significantly impact language policy and planning, education, and even the survival of minority languages(Faizin, 2019; Nasution et al., 2019; Shu, 2019). For example, positive attitudes towards a language can lead to its promotion and preservation, while negative attitudes can contribute to language shift and decline. Sociolinguistic research thus provides valuable insights for policymakers and educators in designing effective language programs and interventions.

Another significant area of sociolinguistics is the study of bilingualism and multilingualism, which are increasingly relevant in today's globalized world. Sociolinguists investigate how individuals and communities navigate multiple languages, the social functions of code-switching, and the impact of language contact on linguistic structures(Emike et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2023; Yuen, 2024). This research is essential for understanding the dynamics of language use in multilingual societies and for addressing issues related to language rights and integration(UKEssays, 2021; Wardhaugh, 2022; Xamidullaevna, 2021).

6.2. DEFINITION OF SOCIOLINGUISTICS

Sociolinguistics is a branch of linguistics that examines the interplay between language and society. It focuses on how social factors such as cultural norms, expectations, context, and social variables (e.g., ethnicity, gender, age, social class) influence language use and variation. This field of study is inherently interdisciplinary, combining elements of sociology and linguistics to understand how language functions within different social contexts. Sociolinguistics is defined as the study of the effects of society on the way language is used. It

investigates how language varies and changes in different social settings and how these variations reflect and construct social identities and relationships. According to Trudgill (2000), sociolinguistics examines the relationship between language and society, focusing on how cultural norms and social contexts shape language use(Faizin, 2019). Some key concepts in sociolinguistics:

1. **Language Variation**: Sociolinguistics studies how language varies across different social groups and settings. This includes variations in dialects, sociolects, and registers. Factors such as geographic location, social class, gender, and age can influence these variations(Blakeley & Whittemore, 2023; Fauzan, 2021).
2. **Language and Identity**: Language is a crucial marker of identity. Sociolinguistics explores how individuals and groups use language to express their social identities and how language can signal membership in particular social groups(Fauzan, 2021).
3. **Code-Switching and Diglossia**: These phenomena involve switching between languages or dialects within a conversation or context. Code-switching often reflects social dynamics and relationships, while diglossia refers to the use of two distinct varieties of a language in different social contexts(Mittal et al., 2024).
4. **Language Attitudes and Ideologies**: Sociolinguistics also examines people's attitudes towards different languages or dialects and how these attitudes affect language use and policy. This includes studying stigmatized language forms and the social implications of language ideologies(Blakeley & Whittemore, 2023).

Sociolinguistic research employs various methods to collect and analyze data:

1. **Sociolinguistic Interviews**: These are structured or semi-structured interviews designed to elicit natural speech from participants. Researchers analyze the speech for linguistic variables and correlate them with social factors(Blakeley & Whittemore, 2023).
2. **Matched-Guise Tests**: These tests involve presenting listeners with speech samples in different guises to assess their attitudes towards various linguistic features(Blakeley & Whittemore, 2023).
3. **Dialect Surveys**: These surveys collect data on language use across different regions to study geographic variations in language(Blakeley & Whittemore, 2023).

Sociolinguistics has practical applications in areas such as language education, language policy, and translation. For instance, understanding sociolinguistic principles can help educators develop more effective language teaching strategies that consider students' social backgrounds and linguistic repertoires(Burnett et al., 2024; Faizin, 2019). In translation, sociolinguistic insights ensure that translations are not only linguistically accurate but also culturally appropriate(Blakeley & Whittemore, 2023; Hasanah et al., 2019).

Sociolinguistics provides a comprehensive framework for understanding the complex relationship between language and society. By examining how social factors influence language use and variation, sociolinguistics helps us appreciate the dynamic and multifaceted nature of human communication(Nisa, 2019; Nizomova, 2023).

6.3. SCOPE OF SOCIOLINGUISTICS

Sociolinguistics is a field of study that examines the relationship between language and society. It encompasses a wide range of topics that explore how social factors influence language use and how language use, in turn, reflects and shapes social structures and relationships. Key topics covered by sociolinguistics(Blakeley & Whittemore, 2023; Hymes, 2020; Mesthrie, 2023) include:

1. **Language Variation and Change**
    a. **Sociophonetics**: The study of the relationship between phonetics and social factors.
    b. **Language Maintenance and Shift**: Examining how languages change over time and how they are maintained or lost.
    c. **Languages in Contact**: The study of how languages interact and influence each other when they come into contact.
    d. **Multilingualism**: The study of societies where multiple languages are spoken.
    e. **Sociolinguistic Fieldwork**: Methods for collecting data on language use in different social contexts.
2. **Language and Identity:**
    a. Language and Ethnicity: How language use reflects and shapes ethnic identity.
    b. Language and Gender: The study of how language use varies by gender.
    c. Language and Social Class: Examining how language use reflects and shapes social class.
3. **Language Policy and Planning:**
    a. Language Policy: The study of policies that govern language use in different contexts.
    b. Language Planning: Examining how language policies are implemented and their impact on society.

4. **Language and Culture**
    a. **Linguistic Politeness**: The study of how language is used to show politeness and respect.
    b. **Language and Identity**: How language use reflects and shapes personal and group identities.
    c. **Language and Culture**: Examining how language use reflects and shapes cultural norms and values.
5. **Language in Social Contexts:**
    a. **Language in Education**: The study of how language is used in educational settings.
    b. **Language in the Workplace**: Examining how language is used in professional contexts.
    c. **Language and Power**: The study of how language use reflects and shapes power dynamics in society.
6. **Methodologies and Approaches:**
    a. **Sociolinguistic Interviews**: A method for collecting data on language use through in-depth interviews.
    b. **Discourse Analysis**: The study of language use in social contexts through the analysis of discourse.
    c. **Quantitative Methods**: The use of statistical methods to analyze language use patterns.
7. **Applications and Implications:**
    a. **Language Teaching**: Sociolinguistics informs language teaching by highlighting the importance of cultural and social context.
    b. **Translation**: Sociolinguistics-based translation frameworks incorporate social practices and cultural norms to ensure effective communication.
    c. **Social Attitudes and Identity**: Sociolinguistics helps understand how language use reflects and shapes social attitudes, identity, and relationships.

These topics illustrate the breadth and depth of sociolinguistics, highlighting its importance in understanding the complex relationships between language and society.

6.4. IMPORTANCE OF SOCIOLINGUISTICS

Sociolinguistics is a crucial field of study that explores the intricate relationship between language and society. Its importance spans various domains, including education, cultural understanding, and social interaction. Here are some key reasons why sociolinguistics is important:

1. **Enhancing Language Teaching and Learning**
   Sociolinguistics plays a significant role in language education by emphasizing the social context of language use. It helps educators understand how social factors such as culture, identity, and social norms influence language learning and teaching. This understanding can lead to more effective teaching strategies that consider the cultural and social backgrounds of learners, thereby improving their language acquisition and communication skills(Faizin, 2019; Thanh & Van, 2021).
2. **Promoting Cultural Awareness and Sensitivity**
   By studying sociolinguistics, individuals gain insights into how language reflects and shape cultural identities and social norms. This awareness fosters greater cultural sensitivity and respect for linguistic diversity. It helps people understand the cultural nuances and social expectations associated with different languages, reducing the risk of miscommunication and cultural misunderstandings(Bennett, 2020; UKEssays, 2021).
3. **Informing Language Policy and Planning**
   Sociolinguistics provides valuable data and insights that inform language policy and planning. Governments and educational institutions can use sociolinguistic research to

develop policies that promote linguistic diversity, support minority languages, and address issues related to language rights and language preservation. This ensures that language policies are inclusive and responsive to the needs of diverse linguistic communities(Thanh & Van, 2021).

4. **Understanding Language Variation and Change**
   Sociolinguistics examines how language varies across different social groups and contexts, and how it changes over time. This knowledge is essential for understanding the dynamics of language evolution and the factors that drive linguistic change. It also helps linguists and language planners to document and preserve endangered languages and dialects(UKEssays, 2021; Xamidullaevna, 2021).
5. **Improving Communication in Multilingual and Multicultural Settings**
   In an increasingly globalized world, effective communication across different languages and cultures is vital. Sociolinguistics helps individuals navigate multilingual and multicultural environments by providing insights into how language use varies in different social contexts. This understanding can enhance cross-cultural communication and collaboration in various settings, including business, education, and international relations(Bennett, 2020).
6. **Addressing Social Inequality and Promoting Social Justice**
   Sociolinguistics sheds light on how language can both reflect and perpetuate social inequalities. By studying language use in different social contexts, sociolinguists can identify patterns of linguistic discrimination and advocate for more equitable language practices. This contributes to broader efforts to promote social justice and reduce

linguistic prejudice and discrimination(Faizin, 2019; Xamidullaevna, 2021).

Sociolinguistics is essential for understanding the complex interplay between language and society. It enhances language education, promotes cultural awareness, informs language policy, and addresses social inequalities, making it a vital field of study in our interconnected world.

6.5. DEVELOPMENT OF SOCIOLINGUISTICS AS A SCIENCE

The development of sociolinguistics as a science has been marked by its interdisciplinary nature, drawing from both linguistics and sociology to understand the complex relationships between language and society. Here is a brief overview of its development:

Early Foundations of Sociolinguistics

The term "sociolinguistics" was first used by Eugene Nida in 1949, but the field began to take shape in the 1960s with the work of several key figures. **William Labov** is often considered the father of sociolinguistics, Labov's work on language variation and change, particularly his studies in New York City and Martha's Vineyard, laid the groundwork for the field. He emphasized the importance of quantitative methods and the social determinants of linguistic variation(Spolsky, 2010; Xamidullaevna, 2021). **Dell Hymes** introduced the concept of the "ethnography of communication," which focuses on understanding the cultural context of language use. His work helped shape educational linguistics and the broader field of sociolinguistics(Spolsky, 2010). **John Gumperz** is known for founding interactional sociolinguistics, Gumperz's work focused on the micro-level analysis of conversational interactions and

how social meaning is constructed through language use(Spolsky, 2010).

Institutional Support

The Linguistic Institute in Bloomington in 1964 was a landmark event that brought together many of the field's pioneers, including Labov, Hymes, and Gumperz. This event helped formalize sociolinguistics as a distinct field of study. The Committee on Sociolinguistics of the Social Sciences Research Council, established in 1963, played a crucial role in planning and supporting sociolinguistic research during its formative years(Spolsky, 2010).

Theoretical Developments

Variationist Sociolinguistics: This approach, pioneered by Labov, focuses on the systematic study of language variation and change within speech communities. It uses quantitative methods to analyze how linguistic variables correlate with social factors such as age, gender, and social class(Hymes, 2020).

Ethnography of Communication: Developed by Hymes, this approach emphasizes the importance of understanding the cultural and social contexts in which communication occurs. It looks at the rules and norms governing language use in different communities(Spolsky, 2010).

Interactional Sociolinguistics: Gumperz's work in this area focuses on the detailed analysis of conversational interactions, exploring how social meaning is constructed and negotiated through language use(Spolsky, 2010).

Historical Sociolinguistics: This subfield examines how languages have changed over time within their social contexts. It integrates methods from historical linguistics and sociolinguistics to study language change and variation in historical periods(Chimuco, 2021; Hymes, 2020).

6.6. THEORIES BEYOND SOCIOLINGUISTICS

Sociolinguistics is a dynamic field that intersects with various other disciplines and theoretical frameworks. Beyond the core theories of sociolinguistics, several other theories and approaches contribute to a deeper understanding of language in its social context. Here are some of the key theories beyond traditional sociolinguistics:

1. **Ethnography of Communication: Dell Hymes** introduced the concept of the "ethnography of communication," which emphasizes the importance of understanding the cultural context in which communication occurs. This approach looks at the rules and norms governing language use in different communities(Mesthrie, 2023).
2. **Sociology of Language**: Max Weber, Peter Berger, Thomas Luckmann, Harold Garfinkel, Jürgen Habermas were sociologists who have contributed to understanding language as a fundamental institution of social life. Their theories explore how language enables shared understanding and social interaction, focusing on concepts like interpretative sociology, phenomenological sociology, ethnomethodology, and communicative action(Moulene, 2015).
3. **Heteroglossia**: **Mikhail Bakhtin**'s concept of heteroglossia highlights the coexistence of multiple voices and perspectives within a single language. This theory is crucial for understanding multilingualism and the sociohistorical meanings of different linguistic practices(Wegenaar, 2019).
4. **Communities of Practice**: **Penelope Eckert's** theory of communities of practice focuses on how individuals create and maintain social identities through shared activities and mutual engagement. This approach contrasts with traditional speech communities defined by broader social categories like geography or class(Wegenaar, 2019).

5. **Language Ideologies**: **Paul Kroskrity's** work on language ideologies examines the beliefs and attitudes people have about language and how these ideologies influence language use and social identity(Wegenaar, 2019).
6. **Material and Symbolic Capital**: **Pierre Bourdieu**'s theory of capital includes linguistic capital as a form of cultural capital. He explores how language functions as a resource that can be exchanged for social advantage, emphasizing the role of language in maintaining social hierarchies(Wegenaar, 2019).
7. **Sociocultural Theory**: **Lev Vygotsky'**s sociocultural theory emphasizes the role of social interaction and cultural tools in cognitive development. This theory is often compared with sociolinguistic theories to understand how language and thought are shaped by social context(Fletcher, 2010).
8. **Discourse Analysis**: Michel Foucault and Norman Fairclough were the pionerrs of discourse analysis. Discourse analysis examines how language is used to construct social reality and power relations. Foucault's work on discourse and power and Fairclough's critical discourse analysis are key contributions to this field(Moulene, 2015).
9. **Interactional Sociolinguistics**: **John Gumperz**'s interactional sociolinguistics focuses on the micro-level analysis of conversational interactions, exploring how social meaning is constructed through language use in specific contexts(Mesthrie, 2023).
10. **Language and Social Networks**: **Lesley Milroy**'s work on social networks examines how individuals' language use is influenced by their social connections and the structure of their social networks(Cameron, 2009).

These theories and approaches extend the scope of sociolinguistics by incorporating insights from sociology, anthropology, psychology, and other disciplines. They provide a comprehensive framework for understanding the complex relationships between language, society, and culture.

6.7. CONTEMPORARY ISSUES IN SOCIOLINGUISTICS

Contemporary sociolinguistics addresses a variety of pressing issues that reflect the dynamic interplay between language and society. These issues are influenced by ongoing social, cultural, and technological changes. Here are some of the key contemporary issues in sociolinguistics(Aschale, 2013; Bulatovna et al., 2020; Mesthrie, 2023; Svejcer, 1986):

1. **Language Variation and Change:**
    a. **Dialectal Variation**: The study of regional dialects and how they evolve over time.
    b. **Sociolects**: Variations in language use among different social classes, genders, and age groups.
    c. **Language Change**: How languages transform over time due to internal developments and external influences.
2. **Bilingualism and Multilingualism**:
    a. **Language Maintenance and Shift**: How communities maintain their native languages or shift to new ones, often influenced by migration and globalization.
    b. **Code-Switching and Code-Mixing**: The practice of alternating between two or more languages or dialects within a conversation or discourse.
    c. **Language Endangerment**: The risk of languages becoming extinct as speakers shift to more dominant languages.

3. **Language and Identity**:
    a. **Ethnolinguistic Identity**: How language use reflects and shapes ethnic identity.
    b. **Gender and Language**: The study of how language use differs between genders and how these differences are socially constructed.
    c. **Language and Social Class**: How language use varies across different social classes and the implications of these variations.
4. **Language Policy and Planning**:
    a. **Language Policy**: The development and implementation of policies that govern language use in public and private spheres.
    b. **Language Rights**: Issues related to the rights of individuals and communities to use their native languages in various contexts.
    c. **Language Standardization**: Efforts to develop and promote standard languages for official and educational purposes.
5. **Technological Impact on Language:**
    a. **Digital Communication**: How the rise of digital media and communication technologies affects language use and variation.
    b. **Internet Linguistics**: The study of language use in online environments, including social media, forums, and other digital platforms.
    c. **Language and Artificial Intelligence**: The impact of AI and machine learning on language processing and communication.
6. **Sociolinguistic Methodologies**:
    a. **Ethnographic Methods**: The use of ethnographic techniques to study language use in natural settings.

b. **Quantitative Methods**: The application of statistical methods to analyze language variation and change.
c. **Discourse Analysis**: The study of language use in social contexts through the analysis of spoken or written discourse.

7. **Language and Power**:
   a. **Linguistic Discrimination**: The ways in which language can be used to discriminate against individuals or groups.
   b. **Language and Social Inequality**: How language use reflects and perpetuates social inequalities.
   c. **Critical Sociolinguistics**: The study of how language practices can challenge or reinforce power structures in society.
8. **Globalization and Language Contact**:
   a. **Global English**: The spread of English as a global lingua franca and its impact on other languages.
   b. **Translanguaging**: The practice of using multiple languages in a fluid and dynamic manner, often seen in multilingual communities.
   c. **Language and Migration**: How migration patterns influence language use and language policy in host countries.

Sociolinguistics has evolved into a well-established and dynamic field that bridges linguistics and sociology. Its development has been driven by the contributions of key figures and the integration of various theoretical approaches. Today, sociolinguistics continues to address contemporary issues related to language and society, making significant contributions to our understanding of how language functions in social contexts.

6.8. CONCLUSION

Sociolinguistics is an essential part of linguistics that offers profound insights into the social aspects of language. It helps us understand the complex interplay between language and society, shedding light on issues such as language variation, language attitudes, and multilingualism. By examining how social factors influence language, sociolinguistics contributes to our knowledge of human communication and social interaction, making it a crucial field for both theoretical research and practical applications in education, policy, and beyond. Sociolinguistics provides valuable insights into the complex relationship between language and society. By studying how language varies and changes in different social contexts, sociolinguists contribute to our understanding of social identity, communication, and cultural diversity. This field underscores the idea that language is not just a means of communication but also a social phenomenon deeply embedded in the fabric of society.

Sociolinguistics is a field of study that examines the relationship between language and society. It encompasses a wide range of topics that explore how social factors influence language use and how language use, in turn, reflects and shapes social structures and relationships. Sociolinguistics is essential for understanding the complex interplay between language and society. It enhances language education, promotes cultural awareness, informs language policy, and addresses social inequalities, making it a vital field of study in our interconnected world. There are various theories and approaches complement and extend the insights of sociolinguistics, providing a more comprehensive understanding of the complex relationships between language, society, and culture. The contemporary issues in sociolinguistics highlight the relevance and importance

of sociolinguistics in understanding the complex and ever-changing relationship between language and society.

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AUTHOR'S PROFILE

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CHAPTER 7
SEMANTICS

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7.1. INTRODUCTION TO SEMANTICS

Semantics is a branch of linguistics concerned with the study of meaning. It explores how words, phrases, sentences, and texts are used to convey meaning in language. Unlike syntax, which focuses on the structure of sentences, and phonetics, which deals with the sounds of language, semantics delves into how these structures and sounds convey meaning to users. In essence, semantics addresses the question of what language means and how meaning is constructed, interpreted, and understood by speakers and listeners. Understanding semantics is crucial for several reasons. Firstly, it provides insights into how language functions as a system for conveying information and emotions. Semantics helps linguists and language practitioners decipher how words can refer to things in the world, how they can be used to make assertions, ask questions, give commands, and express desires or feelings. Moreover, semantics plays a vital role in fields such as artificial intelligence, natural language processing, translation, and language education, where the accurate interpretation of meaning is essential. For instance, in natural language processing (NLP), semantics is integral to the development of algorithms that enable computers to understand and generate human language (Cruse, 2004). In translation, understanding the semantics of both source and target languages is necessary to convey the intended meaning accurately. Furthermore,

semantics helps in understanding linguistic relativity and the extent to which language influences thought.

Semantics intersects with several other branches of linguistics. It closely relates to pragmatics, which studies how context influences the interpretation of meaning. While semantics deals with the meaning inherent in linguistic expressions, pragmatics considers how speakers use context to derive specific meanings. For example, the sentence "Can you pass the salt?" semantically refers to a question about one's ability to pass the salt, but pragmatically, it is understood as a polite request.

Another closely related field is syntax, which concerns the rules governing the structure of sentences. The relationship between syntax and semantics is foundational in understanding how the structure of a sentence affects its meaning. This interplay is explored through compositional semantics, which examines how the meaning of a whole sentence emerges from its parts (Lyons, 1977).

7.2. FUNDAMENTAL CONCEPTS IN SEMANTICS

The distinction between sense and reference, introduced by the philosopher Gottlob Frege (1892), is a foundational concept in semantics. Sense refers to the inherent meaning or the mental concept associated with a word or expression, while reference pertains to the actual object or entity that the word or expression refers to in the real world. For example, the sense of the word "morning star" is the concept of a bright celestial body seen in the morning sky, while its reference is the planet Venus. This distinction helps explain how different expressions can have the same reference but different senses, as seen in the classic example of "morning star" and "evening star," both referring to Venus but under different conditions. Frege's theory highlights the importance of understanding both the meaning associated

with linguistic expressions and their actual referents in the world. This distinction also plays a crucial role in resolving ambiguities and clarifying meaning in language.

DENOTATION AND CONNOTATION

Denotation refers to the literal, dictionary definition of a word—the specific object or concept that a word refers to. In contrast, connotation encompasses the additional meanings, emotions, or associations that a word evokes beyond its literal meaning. For instance, the denotation of the word "snake" is a type of reptile, while its connotations might include fear, danger, or deceit due to cultural associations. These concepts are essential in understanding how words can carry both objective meanings and subjective, culturally influenced nuances. The work of Saeed (2009) emphasizes that denotation is often stable, while connotation can vary widely among different speakers and cultures, influencing communication and interpretation.

SEMANTIC FEATURES AND ROLES

Semantic features are the basic components of meaning that can be used to analyze and distinguish between words. These features are often conceptualized as binary oppositions, such as [+human] or [-human], [+animate] or [-animate]. For example, the words "man" and "woman" share the features [+human] and [+animate] but differ in the feature [+male] for "man" and [-male] for "woman." These features are fundamental in componential analysis, which breaks down words into their constituent features to understand their meaning and relationships with other words. Additionally, semantic roles (also known as thematic roles) describe the function of a word in a sentence, such as agent, patient, or experiencer. For example, in the sentence "John kicked the ball," "John" is the agent (the

doer of the action), and "the ball" is the patient (the entity affected by the action) (Fillmore, 1968).

LEXICAL SEMANTICS VS. SENTENCE SEMANTICS

Lexical semantics focuses on the meaning of individual words and their relationships, while sentence semantics (also known as compositional semantics) deals with how words combine to form meanings in sentences. Lexical semantics examines issues such as polysemy (multiple meanings of a word), homonymy (same spelling or pronunciation with different meanings), and synonymy (words with similar meanings). In contrast, sentence semantics explores how the meanings of words interact and combine according to syntactic rules to create the meaning of an entire sentence. This field relies heavily on the principle of compositionality, which posits that the meaning of a complex expression is determined by the meanings of its parts and the rules used to combine them (Partee, 1995). For instance, the meaning of "The cat sat on the mat" can be understood by combining the meanings of "cat," "sat," and "mat" along with the syntactic structure.

7.3. CONTEXT AND MEANING: PRAGMATICS AND CONTEXTUAL INFLUENCE

Pragmatics is a branch of linguistics that studies how context influences the interpretation of meaning. Unlike semantics, which deals with meaning derived from linguistic expressions themselves, pragmatics focuses on how speakers use context to convey and interpret meanings beyond the literal. Context in pragmatics includes situational factors, speaker and listener knowledge, and the communicative intent behind utterances. The concept of context in pragmatics can be divided into several types: physical context (location, time), linguistic context (the preceding and following discourse), and social

context (the relationship between speakers and listeners). For instance, the phrase "It's cold in here" could be interpreted as a mere observation or as a request to close a window or turn up the heat, depending on the context (Levinson, 1983).

DEIXIS AND INDEXICALS

Deixis refers to words and phrases, often called indexicals, whose meanings are context-dependent. Examples include words like "this," "that," "here," "there," "now," "then," "I," and "you." Deictic expressions require contextual information to resolve their reference. For instance, "this" could refer to a book in the speaker's hand, while "that" might point to a distant object. Charles Fillmore (1975) extensively discussed the concept of deixis, emphasizing that understanding the use of deictic expressions requires knowledge of the physical and social context. For example, the interpretation of "you" depends on who is speaking and who is being addressed, making it crucial to consider the speaker's and listener's identities.

SPEECH ACTS AND THEIR IMPLICATIONS

The theory of speech acts, developed by John Searle (1969) and based on earlier work by J.L. Austin (1962), explores how utterances function not only to convey information but also to perform actions. Searle categorized speech acts into five types: assertives, directives, commissives, expressives, and declarations.

1. Assertives: Statements that describe the world, such as "The sky is blue."
2. Directives: Attempts to get the listener to do something, like "Please close the door."
3. Commissives: Commitments to future actions, such as "I promise to call you."

4. Expressives: Expressions of the speaker's psychological state, like "I apologize."
5. Declarations: Utterances that bring about a change in the external situation, such as "I pronounce you husband and wife."

Speech act theory underscores the importance of understanding both the literal meaning and the intended action behind an utterance. For example, the statement "Can you pass the salt?" is a question literally but is typically understood as a polite request, depending on the context and the relationship between the speaker and listener.

IMPLICATURE AND PRESUPPOSITION

Implicature and presupposition are two crucial concepts in understanding how context influences meaning.

1. Implicature: A concept introduced by H.P. Grice (1975), implicature refers to the additional meaning that a speaker conveys, implies, or suggests without explicitly stating it. Grice's maxims of conversation (quantity, quality, relation, and manner) describe how speakers typically cooperate in conversation to make communication effective. For example, if someone says, "It's getting late," it might implicate a desire to leave, even if the speaker does not directly say so.
2. Presupposition: A presupposition is a background assumption that must be true for an utterance to make sense or be relevant. For example, the sentence "John's brother is tall" presupposes that John has a brother. Presuppositions are often signaled by specific linguistic triggers, such as definite descriptions, factive verbs (e.g., "know," "regret"), and cleft sentences. The study of presuppositions reveals

how speakers assume certain shared knowledge or beliefs in communication (Stalnaker, 1974).

7.4. CONTEXTUAL THEORIES IN SEMANTICS

Relevance Theory in semantics developed by Dan Sperber and Deirdre Wilson (1986), posits that human communication is guided by the search for relevance. This theory suggests that speakers provide information they believe to be relevant to the listener, while listeners interpret utterances based on the assumption that they are relevant. Relevance is defined in terms of cognitive effects and processing effort; the more significant the cognitive effect and the less effort required, the more relevant the information is considered. Relevance Theory extends Grice's work by focusing on how people manage the balance between providing enough information to be understood and not overloading the listener with unnecessary details. For instance, in a conversation, a speaker might say, "She's going to the party," assuming that the listener knows who "she" refers to and what party is being discussed, based on shared knowledge or context.

Contextualism, as explored by philosophers like Charles Travis (1989) and Jason Stanley (2007), argues that the meaning of sentences can vary depending on the context in which they are uttered. According to contextualism, the truth conditions of a statement depend on contextual factors, such as the speaker's intentions, the listener's knowledge, and situational aspects. For example, the truth of the sentence "It is raining" can depend on the location being referred to, even if the explicit location is not mentioned. Contextualism challenges the idea that sentences have fixed meanings independent of context, emphasizing the fluid and dynamic nature of language interpretation.

LEXICAL SEMANTICS

Lexical semantics is the study of how words convey meaning. This branch of linguistics focuses on the meaning of individual words and the relationships between them. Unlike sentence semantics, which examines how meanings are composed from syntactic structures, lexical semantics explores the properties of words themselves, including their sense, reference, and use in different contexts. It addresses issues like polysemy (multiple meanings), synonymy (similar meanings), antonymy (opposite meanings), and hyponymy (hierarchical relationships). The fundamental goal of lexical semantics is to understand how words map onto concepts and how they interact within a language's lexicon. By analyzing these relationships, linguists can uncover patterns and structures that govern language use and evolution.

7.5. THEORIES IN LEXICAL SEMANTICS

Componential analysis, also known as feature analysis, is a method used to break down word meanings into a set of distinct, primitive features. This theory assumes that words can be represented by a combination of binary semantic features, such as [+animate], [+human], [+female], etc. For instance, the word "woman" can be represented as [+human], [+female], and [+adult], while "girl" can be represented as [+human], [+female], and [-adult]. This approach allows for the systematic comparison of words and the identification of their unique features, as well as the overlapping features they share with other words (Katz & Fodor, 1963). While componential analysis is useful for distinguishing between closely related words, it has limitations in capturing the full richness of word meanings, especially those with abstract or culturally nuanced aspects.

Prototype theory, developed by Eleanor Rosch (1975), challenges the classical view that words are defined by a set of

necessary and sufficient conditions. Instead, it suggests that within a category, some members are more representative or "prototypical" than others. For example, when people think of the category "bird," they are more likely to think of a robin than an ostrich, because robins possess more of the common characteristics associated with the concept of a bird. This theory posits that categories have fuzzy boundaries, and membership is determined by the degree of similarity to the prototype rather than strict criteria. Prototype theory has been influential in understanding how people categorize and process information, as it aligns with cognitive processes like quick recognition and categorization.

Lexical field theory, as proposed by Jost Trier (1931), suggests that the meanings of words are defined relative to other words within the same domain. According to this theory, the meaning of a word can only be understood in relation to other words in its semantic field. For example, the words "teacher," "student," and "school" belong to the same lexical field, as they are all related to the domain of education. This approach emphasizes that words are not isolated units but are part of a network of related terms. Changes in one word's meaning can affect the entire field, demonstrating the dynamic nature of language. Lexical field theory helps explain how words can shift in meaning over time as their relationships within the field evolve.

Frame semantics, developed by Charles Fillmore (1982), proposes that word meanings are best understood in the context of structured background knowledge or "frames." A frame is a cognitive structure that represents a stereotypical situation, such as "dining at a restaurant," which includes roles like customer, waiter, food, and menu. According to this theory, understanding a word involves activating the relevant frame and understanding how the word fits into that context. For example, the word

"book" can invoke different frames depending on whether it is used in the context of reading or making a reservation. Frame semantics highlights the role of world knowledge and experience in shaping word meanings.

Semantic networks are a model for representing knowledge that emphasizes the connections between concepts. In this approach, words are nodes in a network connected by various types of relations, such as synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, and meronymy (part-whole relationships). One of the most notable implementations of this model is WordNet, a lexical database for English developed by George Miller and colleagues (1990). In WordNet, words are organized into sets of synonyms called synsets, each representing a specific concept. The database also includes relationships between synsets, allowing users to navigate the semantic connections between words. For instance, the synset for "car" is linked to "vehicle" (hypernym) and "sedan" (hyponym). WordNet has become an invaluable tool for computational linguistics, natural language processing, and artificial intelligence, as it provides a structured representation of lexical knowledge.

7.6. SENTENCE SEMANTICS

Sentence semantics is the study of how meanings are constructed and interpreted from syntactic structures. It examines how words and phrases combine to form sentences and how the meanings of these sentences are understood. This field addresses questions about the nature of meaning, how meaning is composed from individual elements, and how contextual factors influence interpretation. Unlike lexical semantics, which focuses on the meanings of individual words, sentence semantics explores the meanings of sentences as holistic units. Central to sentence semantics are issues such as compositionality, ambiguity, scope, and truth conditions. The

principle of compositionality, often attributed to Gottlob Frege (1892), states that the meaning of a sentence is determined by the meanings of its parts and the rules used to combine them. This principle is a cornerstone of formal semantics, guiding the systematic study of how meanings are derived from linguistic structures.

THEORIES IN SENTENCE SEMANTICS

Compositional semantics, as noted, relies on the principle of compositionality, asserting that the meaning of a complex expression is determined by its structure and the meanings of its constituents (Frege, 1892). For example, in the sentence "The cat sat on the mat," the meanings of "the cat," "sat," and "on the mat" combine according to syntactic rules to produce a coherent proposition. Richard Montague (1970) extended this idea into a formal system known as Montague grammar, which uses mathematical logic to represent the syntactic and semantic structure of sentences. Montague grammar provides precise rules for how the meanings of words and phrases combine, allowing for the formal analysis of complex linguistic phenomena, such as quantification and negation.

Sentences can be ambiguous, meaning they can be interpreted in more than one way. Ambiguity can arise from lexical ambiguity, where a word has multiple meanings, or structural ambiguity, where the syntax of a sentence allows for multiple interpretations. For instance, the sentence "I saw the man with the telescope" can mean that the observer used a telescope to see the man or that the man had a telescope. Disambiguation involves using contextual clues, world knowledge, and pragmatic reasoning to resolve these ambiguities. The role of context in disambiguation is crucial, as it helps interlocutors select the most relevant interpretation among several possibilities (Kempson, 1977). Pragmatics,

therefore, plays a vital role in sentence semantics by aiding in the interpretation of ambiguous sentences.

Scope refers to the range of elements that a particular word or phrase affects in a sentence, often involving quantifiers, negation, and modal verbs. For instance, in the sentence "Everyone didn't come," the scope of "everyone" and "didn't" can lead to two different interpretations: either no one came (wide scope of negation) or not everyone came (wide scope of quantifier). Quantifiers, such as "all," "some," "most," and "few," are central to discussions of scope. They determine how many entities in a domain satisfy a given predicate. The interaction between quantifiers and other sentence elements can produce complex meanings, which are often analyzed using tools from formal logic (Heim & Kratzer, 1998). The study of scope also involves the analysis of scope ambiguities, where different readings arise depending on the relative scopes of different operators.

A key aspect of sentence semantics is the concept of truth conditions. The truth conditions of a sentence specify the circumstances under which the sentence would be true. For example, the sentence "Snow is white" is true if and only if snow is, in fact, white. Truth-conditional semantics, largely developed by Donald Davidson (1967), aims to systematically describe the truth conditions of all sentences in a language.

A proposition is the meaning expressed by a declarative sentence and is typically evaluated as true or false. Propositions are abstract entities that do not depend on any particular language or expression. For instance, the English sentence "It is raining" and the French sentence "Il pleut" express the same proposition if they describe the same state of the world. Truth-conditional semantics provides a foundation for understanding how language relates to the world. By analyzing the truth

conditions of sentences, linguists can gain insights into how meaning is constructed and communicated.

Contextualism in sentence semantics posits that the meaning of a sentence cannot be fully determined without reference to the context in which it is uttered. According to contextualists, context-sensitive expressions, such as indexicals (e.g., "I," "here," "now"), and vague terms (e.g., "tall," "rich"), require contextual information for their interpretation (Stanley, 2007). Contextualism challenges the traditional view that meanings are fixed and context-independent. Dynamic semantics extends this idea by proposing that the meaning of a sentence is not merely a static set of truth conditions but also involves the potential to change the context or the informational state of the interlocutors. Dynamic approaches, such as Discourse Representation Theory (Kamp, 1981) and File Change Semantics (Heim, 1982), focus on how the interpretation of a sentence can affect subsequent discourse. For example, introducing a new referent ("A man walked in") changes the discourse context by making the referent available for anaphoric reference ("He sat down").

7.7. CONTEXT AND MEANING

The study of context and meaning in linguistics explores how the situational and linguistic context influences the interpretation of language. Context encompasses a range of factors, including the physical environment, the identities and intentions of the speakers, prior discourse, and cultural knowledge. These elements are crucial for understanding meaning beyond the literal interpretation of words and sentences. In semantics and pragmatics, context plays a vital role in resolving ambiguities, determining referents, and interpreting implicatures—unstated implications derived from what is said. The meaning of an utterance can shift dramatically

depending on the context, making the study of contextual effects essential for a comprehensive understanding of language use.

THEORIES IN CONTEXT AND MEANING

Speech Act Theory, introduced by J.L. Austin (1962) and further developed by John Searle (1969), posits that language is not only used to convey information but also to perform actions. According to this theory, utterances can function as declarations, promises, orders, questions, and more. Austin distinguishes between three types of acts performed in communication: locutionary acts (the act of saying something), illocutionary acts (the intention behind the utterance), and perlocutionary acts (the effect of the utterance on the listener). For example, the sentence "Can you pass the salt?" functions not just as a question about the listener's ability but typically as a polite request. The context of the dinner table and the speaker's tone help the listener interpret the true intention. Speech Act Theory emphasizes the importance of context in determining the illocutionary force of an utterance, as the same sentence can have different illocutionary acts in different contexts.

Pragmatics, as a field of study, focuses on how context influences the interpretation of meaning. One of the key concepts in pragmatics is implicature, introduced by H.P. Grice (1975). Grice distinguished between conventional implicature (which is encoded in the linguistic form) and conversational implicature (which arises from the context and conversational norms). Conversational implicatures rely on the Cooperative Principle and its associated maxims: Quality (truthfulness), Quantity (informativeness), Relevance (relation), and Manner (clarity). For instance, if someone says, "It's cold in here," in a room without a window, the implicature might be a request to close the door. The speaker relies on the listener to understand the intended meaning based on shared knowledge and context.

Deixis and indexicals are expressions that derive their meaning from the context in which they are used. Deictic expressions include words like "here," "there," "this," "that," "now," and "then," which are context-dependent. They require contextual information to resolve their referents. For example, the meaning of "this" in "This is delicious" depends on what the speaker is pointing to or referencing.

According to Levinson (1983), deixis plays a crucial role in language as it anchors utterances to specific points in space, time, and the discourse. Indexicals, like "I," "you," "today," and "yesterday," similarly depend on the context for their interpretation. The study of deixis and indexicals illustrates the necessity of context in determining meaning, as the same word can refer to different entities depending on the situation. Relevance Theory, proposed by Dan Sperber and Deirdre Wilson (1986), builds on Gricean pragmatics by emphasizing the role of cognitive effort and contextual effects in communication. The theory posits that humans communicate by providing information that they deem relevant, meaning that it has enough cognitive effects to justify the processing effort. An utterance is relevant if it provides meaningful information that alters the listener's mental state, knowledge, or assumptions. For example, if someone says, "I haven't eaten all day," it may be interpreted as a statement of hunger, a request for food, or an explanation for being irritable, depending on the context and the relevance of these interpretations. Relevance Theory suggests that listeners use context to infer the speaker's intended meaning, aiming to maximize relevance with minimal cognitive effort.

Contextualism, as discussed by philosophers like Charles Travis (1997) and Jason Stanley (2007), argues that the meaning of a sentence cannot be fully understood without reference to the context. This view challenges the traditional notion that

sentences have fixed, context-independent meanings. Instead, contextualism asserts that many expressions are context-sensitive, and their meanings can shift depending on various factors. For instance, the interpretation of "John is tall" can vary depending on the context, such as the reference group (e.g., among basketball players vs. among children). Contextualists argue that meaning is not only a matter of truth conditions but also involves understanding the speaker's intentions, the relevant standards of comparison, and the background assumptions.

7.8. THE ROLE OF CONTEXT IN LANGUAGE INTERPRETATION

Context is crucial for resolving ambiguity and polysemy, where a word or phrase has multiple potential meanings. For example, the word "bank" can refer to a financial institution or the side of a river. The surrounding context usually clarifies which meaning is intended. Similarly, context helps disambiguate pronouns, as in "She told her friend that she would help," where the referent of "she" must be inferred from the context. Context also plays a vital role in understanding presuppositions and entailments. A presupposition is an implicit assumption required for a sentence to make sense. For example, "The king of France is bald" presupposes that there is a king of France. If this presupposition is false, the sentence becomes problematic. Entailments are logical consequences that follow from the truth of a statement. For example, "John killed the snake" entails "The snake is dead." Understanding these aspects often requires contextual knowledge.

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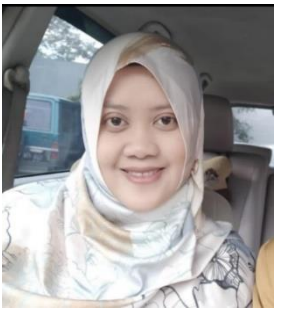
AUTHOR'S PROFILE



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CHAPTER 8
PRAGMATICS

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8.1. INTRODUCTION TO PRAGMATICS

Linguistics is the study of language. The Oxford dictionary defined linguistics as connected with language or it is the scientific study of language. In linguistics, the subfields of linguistics include several branches or subfields such as Phonology, Morphology, Syntax, Semantics etc. The term "pragmatic" in the Oxford dictionary is expressed in dealing with things in a sensible and realistic way. Pragmatics as part of linguistics is also one of the sub fields of Linguistics. It is an important part of the Linguistics branch where it helps linguists to look beyond literal meaning or words and utterances. This branch of linguistics helps linguists to focus on how meanings are built withing the context. When we want to express sarcasm to a friend without having to tell straight forward that he/she is being too lavish or wasteful, a speaker might say, "Did you win a lottery?" implying the other person's big order in the restaurant. Here the speaker is implying that the friend is ordering too much food. The message that we expressed is understood by others by understanding the literal meaning of "to win a lottery" with the act of ordering food lavishly. Therefore, in Pragmatics, we can understand sentences meaning by reading between the lines. The sentence will be understood if the hearer knows the vocabulary of the same language and has pragmatic knowledge. Pragmatic knowledge is how speaker's knowledge of the different way language is used in different settings and for

different purposes. For example, talking in an academic setting will be different when a speaker is teaching university students versus with kindergarten students. Therefore, pragmatics is how context contributes to the meaning and looking beyond its literal meaning.

According to Leech (1983:8 “Pragmatics is the study of meaning and the way that speech is related to any provided situations, as well as an aspect of how a speech is made in a situation.” Next there is the definition of Pragmatics by George Yule, pragmatics is the study of contextual meaning. It involves the interpretation of what the speaker means in a particular context and how the context influences what is being said. (Yule ,1996:3-4). Grice explained that what is said depended not only on conventional meaning of the words but also on the context of the utterance. (Niu, 2023). Austin’s definition of pragmatics is that it is the study of how do to things with words.. Allan (2012) explained that pragmatics as the study of human communication. Speakers make choices in expressing their intended meanings. They make inferences that hearers draw from the utterance in the context of its use. Therefore, hearers will draw the meaning of the utterances by inferring on the contexts of their common knowledge. In all the definitions on pragmatics, the key word that was mentioned by the experts was on context The ability of hearers in understanding a speaker’s intended meaning is called as pragmatic competence (Betti, 2021)

8.2. HISTORY OF PRAGMATICS

The origin of pragmatic thought can be traced from the ancient Greek and Roman philosophers, such as Aristotle (384-322 BC) who had explored pragmatics in his works on logic and rhetoric. It can be found in “De Interpretatione” in which he studied how context influences meaning. Pre-Qin scholars from

ancient China had also studied pragmatic tendencies in their philosophical inquiries through Confucian ideas "Rectification of Names" and Taoist concepts. However, the establishment of pragmatics as a separate linguistic discipline started in the 20th century. In the 1930s the term "pragmatics" started to appear in linguistic philosophy with Charles Morris distinguished it as an independent subfield within semiotics together with syntax and semantics. In the 1950s, J.L. Austin and H.P. Grice set the status of Pragmatics when Austin introduced the concept of Speech Acts. His work emphasized that utterances could perform actions rather than only conveying information. Grice also contributed his theory of conversational implicature which brought the field ahead by exploring how meaning is derived from context and conversational norms. The subfield of Pragmatics was believed to originate from the writing of John L. Austin (1911-1960) on "How to do things with words" in 1962. Other pragmatics experts, for example Herbert Paul Grice (1981-1988), John R. Searle (1952-) Stephen C. Levinson (1947-), Geoffrey Leech (1936-2014), Avram Naom Chomsky (1928-) and other linguists developed this subfield to its full triumph. In 1983, Stephen C. Levinson and Geoffrey Leech contributed their writings on Pragmatics and Principles of Pragmatics that helped to define the scope and methodologies of Pragmatics. (Ogha, 2020), (Niu, 2023)

8.3. THE ROLE OF CONTEXT IN PRAGMATICS

"Context" is the circumstances that come from a setting of an event, statement or idea and in terms of which can be fully understood. It can also mean the parts of something written or spoken which immediately comes before or after a word, these expressions come from Oxford Language Dictionary. In Merriam Webster, context is the part of discourse surrounding a word or passage that can shed light on the meaning of the

sentence. According to Nordquist (2023), context is the social signs, body language and tone of voice or what is meant by the pragmatics. Context is what makes the utterances to be clear or unclear to the speakers and to the hearers. For example, when an utterance such as "*Get off here, that's your house*". The hearer might feel offended. The hearer might misinterpret the driver's tone of voice which might sound gruff and angry. From the example, the context of the utterances can be interpreted wrongly by the different types of contexts in pragmatics. The literal meaning of the utterances *to get off from the car* can be misunderstood or misinterpreted by the types of contexts in the dialogue.

Ramdhani (2023) mentioned four types of contexts in pragmatics that influence the utterances to be understood and interpreted.

1. **Linguistic Context**

   The words, sentences and discourse surrounding an utterance can impact its meaning and interpretation. It relies on linguistic context in order to avoid complex or ambiguous meanings happen. For example, the word "clown " in *"He is a clown",* can also be interpreted as "funny" or "comical" where they were talking about the character of the man. When in its literal meaning the sentence might also mean his occupation is as a clown in a circus.

2. **Situational context**

   Situational context referred to the larger circumstances where a conversation or interaction occurred, such as the physical setting, the participants involved, the time and relevant events or activities. Understanding situational context is important in communication because misinterpretation might occur if the speaker and the hearer do not share the same contextual knowledge. For example,

"Ladies and gentlemen, we will now begin our seminar". In this example, the situation is understood to be a situation of a formal setting in which the participants will be addressed in a formal greeting.

3. **Cultural Context**

   In this type of context, the speaker and hearer have shared values, beliefs and customs of a particular group or society. Speakers therefore relied on cultural norms and expectations to share meaning and to negotiate social relationships. For example, in greetings each culture might differ. The customary greeting might be handshake, hugging, bowing etc. This can refer also to nonverbal communication. A nod in another culture might mean differently.

4. **Cognitive Context**

   Cognitive context in pragmatics involves the mental states and processes of the speaker's cognitive thinking in communication which will influence the inferential meaning and interpretation of the speaker and hearer. Speakers often make use of their mental state to process their utterances, and the hearers will process the utterance in their mind and interpret the meaning based on cognitive associations. (Ramadhani, 2023) For example, when a mother says *"The baby is crying"* to the babysitter, the babysitter will associate "baby crying" with a bottle of milk, reaching for the baby to calm her down etc. The babysitter interprets the intention of the other speaker due to the association of their mental states. The role of these concepts in pragmatics plays an important role in understanding and interpreting meaning in conversations. The hearer interpretation of the speaker's intention will help them respond appropriately towards the speaker.

5. **Conceptualization Cues**

The concept "conceptualization cues" was coined by an anthropological linguist John Gumperz in his theory of conversational Contextualization Cues inference. This theory explained how mutual understanding is achieved in social interactions. According to Gordon (2021) contextualization cues are what she explained as signaling mechanisms in which speakers used to mean what they say. The uses and interpretations of contextualization cues are shaped by individual cultural backgrounds. It includes features of language such as elements of linguistic structure (words and syntax) and other elements that relate to language such as paralinguistic features (pitch, tempo, laughter and nonverbal signals). It is also used in daily interactions with others where social language skills are used. What we say. how we say it, nonverbal communication such as eye contact, facial expressions, body language, and the appropriateness of our interactions in each situation of a conversation are foremost. (Leigh, 2018). For example, when a guest tasted your burned fish and said *"you must be a very good cook"* with the contextualization cue with her hand closing her mouth and laughing. Using a tone of voice that indicates sarcasm. The contextualization cues will be received by the listeners as utterance that has different meaning that its literal statement *"You are such a good cook"*.

Speakers make use of cues to help guide their listeners on the interpretation of their conversation. When speakers make sarcastic remarks but say the opposite of what they meant by using the tone of voice, nonverbal cues such as hand signals, facial expressions or body language will give a different understanding of the conversation. In the Indonesian culture for

example, when we see a cute baby, some speakers will remark *"how ugly you are, little baby!", "Ugly, ugly, you are so ugly"*, These remarks are culturally enforced by older generation as praising a baby is frowned upon. The mother of the baby might feel offended. Meanwhile the speaker commenting on the baby considered that she was following the norm in mutual cultural expression.

8.4. THE DOMAINS OF PRAGMATICS

Pragmatics deals with the study of language in context in which context helps listeners understand the speaker's meaning by interpreting the conversation. The use of language in social situations is considered for implied meaning, context, intention, presuppositions to understand communication beyond its literal words being used. (Irgy, 2023) In this section, the domains of Pragmatics will be discussed. they are Speech Acts, Deixis, Implicature, Politeness and Presuppositions.

8.4.1. SPEECH ACTS

The theory of speech acts came from the work of J.L. Austins and H. P. Grice. Speech acts focused on utterances function as actions in communication. Speech acts highlighted that when a speaker says something, it also meant the speaker is doing something. Speech acts studied how words are used to present information but also in carrying out actions. This theory was first introduced by J.L. Austins in his work "How to do things with Words". John Searle later developed it further. Later, Grice's Theory of conversation stated that hearers were entitled to have expectations towards the speaker in interpreting an utterance. (Shardimgaliev, 2016)

Speech acts can be direct or indirect where direct speech act is explicit and straightforward such as utterance using statement or asking a question. For example: *"It is 10 o'clock".* Or *"Is this*

the room for the Pragmatics class?". In the indirect speech act, the utterance is much more subtle and relied on contextual cues and social norms where speakers convey meaning. For example: "*Its so hot and humid here*", the meaning behind the utterance will be understood as the listener would then try to help the speaker by turning on the air-condition or the fan.

There are three types of speech acts:

a. Locutionary Act

It is the literal meaning of what is said. It acts in producing meaningful words or sentences that convey information. For example: *"We will have our first quiz tomorrow"* In this statement, the speaker conveys information to the listeners that they will have their first quiz tomorrow. It is a straightforward statement. *"This is my house".* In this statement, the speaker conveys information in which he/she is telling the person that the house is his/hers. The locutionary act is complete once the words were spoken regardless of the listeners' responses

b. Illocutionary

It carries an intended meaning behind the utterance. Just as a request or an order. In this type of act the utterance refers to the act of using language to perform a specific function or intention such as making a request, giving orders, making promises, expressing gratitude etc.

For example: A*:" Can I borrow a pen?"* B*: "Sure, just take the blue one".* In this example, the request is borrowing a pen. The illocutionary act is the intention of a request in which the speaker is asking to borrow a pen.

A: *"I am grateful for your help. Your kindness means a lot to me"*

B: *"Don't mention it, sis"*

In this example, the speaker is expressing his/her gratitude. The illocutionary act is the expression of gratitude for the

listener's help. Here the intended meaning is to show that the speaker's appreciation of the person's kindness.

c. Perlocutionary

It is the effect that speech act has on the listener to convince, persuade or ask the listener to do something or make the listener feel a certain way. It gives effect to the listeners using language such as to persuade, to do something, to inspire listeners to act or to make them feel moved. For example:

Doctor: *"You should exercise for at least thirty minutes, five times a week if you want to have a healthy body. A healthy body means that you will have a strong heart, therefore you will function better*.

Patient: *"I don't think I can walk for 30 minutes"*

Doctor: *"Just start slow, start 15 minutes daily at first for five days and gradually increase the time"*

Patient: "*Hmmm, I think 15 minutes is better"*

The speaker's perlocutionary act is to persuade the patient to exercise. The perlocutionary act is successful as the patient agrees to do the speaker's suggestions.

Speech acts are the building blocks in communicating and understanding all these types of speech acts is important for effective and efficient communication. By recognizing what the speaker is trying to say, the listener can respond appropriately to the intended meaning. In this way good communication will be achieved. (Ramdhani,2023) By understanding the speech acts. Speakers and listeners can understand each other.

8.4.2. DEIXIS

Deixis refers to words and phrases that require information on context to convey meaning. It refers to phrases that give meaning from context from the speaker's perspective. The word

deictic is used to express key connection between timeframe, space and people involved. Deictic comes from Greek which meant "to show, point, reference". Deixis in pragmatics and linguistics refers to the process where the words or expression are seen to rely on contexts. According to Stapleton (2017) pragmatics showed that utterance interpretation did not depend on linguistics knowledge only but also depended on the knowledge about the state of people involved in the conversation, the social information such as social status, familiarity with each other, the intention of the speaker, the place and time of the utterance. According to Levinson (1983), deixis is categorized into five types:

a. Personal deixis

Person deixis are the pronouns such as "I", "you", "he/she"."we","they" which changed when viewed on the speaker's and listener's identities. For example: (1) *"I am taking the bus home."* "I" in this utterance refers to the speaker's reference to himself. (2) *"She is my mother"* "She" in this utterance explains the speaker's reference that do not include the speaker and the listener. "She" refers to a third person in the utterance.

b. Spatial deixis

Spatial deixis refers to locations such as "here", "there" which depend on the speaker's location. The locations can be either about the speaker and listener or persons or objects which he/she is referring to. For example: (1) *"That store is on Sutomo street"* "That" refers to the location of the place "the store" which is on Sutomo street. (2)*"There's a good cup of coffee"*

"There" refers to a place where the speaker refers to as having a good cup of coffee.

c. Temporal deixis

This type of deixis refers to time with words such as "now", "then", "tomorrow", "yesterday" etc. which will be different according to the time they are spoken. Temporal deixis gives an understanding of when the event being referred to happens or when it will happen. For example: (1) *"Let's go to the park tomorrow"* "Tomorrow" is a temporal deixis expressing the time of the coming activity. (2) *"By then he would be gone"* "Then" is a temporal deixis expressing when the incident would have been done.

d. Social deixis

Social deixis is when the term of address to show the social status or professional status of the speaker and listeners is used. In this case, there is a change of form of address between them to show familiarity or politeness. The use of "sir", "madame", "Professor" etc. shows the formal situation as in the familiarity between close friends or families. For example: (1) *"Let me get you your food, sir". The words* "Sir" is a social deixis where the use of formal address for a respected gentleman. (2) *"Why don't you drink your milk, my sweet princess*" The words "My sweet princess" is a social deixis where a term of endearment is used which might be between a parent and his/her daughter.

e. Discourse deixis

In discourse deixis, or also called as text deixis happened when the use of deictic expressions is referred to something that we were talking about in the same utterance. For example: (1) When two friends have just watched a movie and they were talking about the movie, *"That movie was really sad".* "That" referred to the movie which the two friends were watching previously. (2) After a discussion about bullying in primary school, one of the audiences

exclaimed *"this is a really sad situation!"*. "This" referred to bullying, which was the topic of the discussion.

8.4.3. IMPLICATURE

The word implicature is the opposite of explicature which means explicitly communicated assumptions. Implicature is what is meant by the speaker's utterance that is not part of what is explicitly said. (Nordquist, 2024) Conversational implicature is the key concept in pragmatics which focuses on meanings implied by speakers beyond the literal interpretation of their utterances. The origin of implicature was from H. P. Grice (1913-1988) from his theory of Cooperative Principle. In Grice's theory, implicature can be divided into two types of implicature, Conventional and conversational implicature. The difference lies in their origin and their dependency on context. Conventional implicatures are implications that occur due to the inherent meaning of specific words or constructions, regardless of the context that they are used. Grice did not clarify too much about this type of implicature. He concentrated on the conversational implicatures which were based on context and motivated by the conversational maxims. When a speaker and listener were cooperating, and aiming to be relevant, a speaker would imply a meaning implicitly and felt confident that the listener would understand. (Bar, 2014) in (Nordquist, 2024) Conversational implicature is a term used to describe illustrations of utterances when the speaker means more than what he/she is saying. It refers to the meaning that is being inferred or implied in a conversation, beyond the literal or explicit meaning of the utterance. The speaker would add information or intention indirectly. For example:

A: *"Should we watch the movie tomorrow night?"*

B: *"My parents are coming tonight"*

The implicature here is that the listener won't be able to watch the movie tomorrow night as his/her parents are coming. The implication happens when the speaker says something that requires an interpretation and is an indirect way to say something. Instead of answering directly with "I am sorry, but I can't watch the movie with you tomorrow night". The person gave an indirect answer.

Conversational implicature involves implied meaning which is based on context and the cooperative principle, they are the maxims of quantity, maxims of quality, maxim of relation and maxim of manner. According to Gricean theory on Cooperative principle, communication is a collaborative effort that is aimed to achieve mutual understanding. The theory guides speakers to use the context and purpose of the conversation by following four maxims: (1) maxim of quantity: the speaker should be informed enough but not more than necessary, (2) maxim of quality: the speaker should avoid making false statements, (3) maxim of relation: the speaker's utterance should be relevant to the conversation, (4) maxim of manner: the speaker should use straightforward and clear language.

Conversational implicatures can be categorized into two parts, they are generalized or context-independent and particularized or context-dependent.

a. Generalized Conversational Implicature

In generalized conversational implicature, the implications work using reasoning that can be applied across different contexts. It will provide predictable and consistent interpretations. On the other hand, particularized requires specific contextual knowledge to infer meaning, where the interpretation will vary widely based on different aspects of each situation. For example: *"The tea is bitter".* Implicature: The tea is not sweet. *"The ice cream has melted"*. Implicature: The ice cream is not frozen.

b. Particularized Conversational Implicature

In a particularized conversational implicature some specific contextual knowledge inferred is required. In this type of implicature, a request is implicated, and the request can be carried out which will depend on the relationship between the speaker and the listener.

For example:

"The spaghetti looks delicious".

Implicature: She would like to taste the spaghetti.

The implication is that she wishes to taste the spaghetti, her wish to try it will depend on the close relationship between the speaker and the listener. The listener might suggest for the speaker to taste the food. Implicatures play important roles in improving the efficiency of communication and the depth of everyday conversations. It is an essential concept in pragmatics which help distinguish what is explicitly stated and what is implied in communication. Grice's cooperative principle and its maxims became the guide in conversational implicature which aid mutual understanding,

8.4.4. POLITENESS

Politeness theory explored how individuals managed social interaction through "face" – in which people wished to maintain a positive self-image. The concept of "face theory "originated from Erving Goffman. Brown and Levinson developed the concept focusing on how and why we are polite to each other. Positive politeness is expressed by how the speaker wishes to make the listener feel good about themselves. It is the desire to be liked and appreciated or to focus on a person's self-esteem. The use of positive politeness can be in the form of a compliment, congratulating on an achievement, agreeing on what the person was saying etc. In positive politeness we avoid criticizing, insulting or disagreeing. For example: (1) *"You look*

so pretty in that blue dress" The person is using positive politeness where she is being complimented. (2) *" Great job, Ben!* " The speaker is using positive politeness in which he/she is congratulating him.

On the other hand, negative politeness the speaker wanted the listener to feel that he/she hasn't been taken advantage of or being disturbed. It is the desire to protect their personal rights such as freedom of speech and action. In negative politeness, we are making the individual feel like he/she hasn't been forced upon or taken advantage of. In the negative politeness, the use of hedging and indirectness are used to avoid the listeners feeling imposed. The feeling of being imposed or imposition is a situation in which someone expects another person to do something for the speaker that he/she doesn't want to or is not convenient for the listener. For example:

"I know you have a lot of experience in this situation, but I think I would like to try my method. I hope you don't mind" The speaker uses negative politeness to recognize and the hearer's rights to make his own decision, which is to save the listener's face

According to Brown and Levinson, when we are rude to other people, and we admit that we are wrong and we need to apologize, we are then committing face-threatening acts. They suggested that cooperation was needed between the speakers and listeners during social interaction to help maintain the face of the speaker and the listener. Face-threatening act is an act which can be linguistic or non-linguistic which threatened someone's positive or negative face. There are four Politeness Strategies to limit the threat to the listener's face. These strategies are used to avoid embarrassing listeners or making listeners feel uncomfortable. The first two were positive politeness and negative politeness which has been discussed

above, there are also what is called bald on record and off record. For example:

a. Bald on record: The speaker will embarrass and make the listener feel uncomfortable as the speaker address the lisstener directly or using direct command. For example: *"Go to your room now"*. In here the speaker is addressing the listener directly and giving an order.
b. Off-record: It consisted of giving hints, being unclear and being sarcastic or making jokes. For example: *"That's why you should clean up before you leave"* Here the speaker is being sarcastic.

8.4.5. PRESUPPOSITION

Presupposition is an assumed fact which is true in which an utterance is delivered. Presupposition also refers to implicit assumptions or background beliefs which were taken for granted in communication, these presuppositions will influence how the utterances were interpreted. Yule in 1996 defined presuppositions as what the speaker assumed on the topic of the conversation is known before making the utterance. Griffith (2006) in Chandra (2023) expressed that presuppositions are shared background assumptions which are true. Presuppositions are interpreted as belief, conjecture or opinion known by the people communicating. Presuppositions are known by the symbol (>>) which means presuppose.

For example:

- "*The baby has started to eat solid food."* >> The baby drank milk before.
- *"Jokowi has left the palace*". >> Jokowi is not the President of Indonesia anymore. .

Yule (1996) in Ramdhani (2023), Sharoz (2016) mentioned six types of presuppositions which deals with implicit meanings conveyed by speakers: They are as follow:

a. Existential: refers to assumption that something exists or is true. For example:
   "*My daughter is three years old*" >>Her daughter is Stacy. Both speakers assumed that the girl exists. This is the existential presupposition in the conversation.
b. Lexical: refers to presuppositions with specific words or phrases that have an inherent meaning beyond its literal meaning. For example: *"He drove through the red light again" >>*" again" presuppose that he had driven through the red light before.
c. Structural: refers to presuppositions that occur from the grammatical structure of an utterance. For example: *" When did she graduate?">>* she graduated. The speaker and the listener presupposed that she had graduated at the moment the question was asked.
d. Factive: refers to the assumption that something is true because of the presence of certain verbs such as "know", "realize" etc. For example: *"She didn't realize that he was sick">>* He was sick.
e. Non-factive: refers to the assumption referred about something that is not true. Certain verbs such as "imagine", "pretend" etc . For example: *"We imagined that we were going to America">>* we were not in America.
f. Counter-factual: Refers to the assumption that is presupposed is not only untrue it is the opposite of what is true. The use of "if" or conditionals are often used. For example:
   "If you were my son, I would disown you." >> you are not my son.

8.5. CONCLUSION

The study of pragmatics provided insights into the social communication of everyday life. Contextual factors such as the use of tone, gesture, social norms, are critical factors in contributing to a deeper understanding in human communication. The understanding of speech acts, deixis, implicatures, politeness and presupposition will aid the speaker and the listener to have better interpretation of the intended meaning versus the literal meaning. The correct interpretation of speaker's intended meaning will be achieved when the use of pragmatics is practiced. Pragmatics became vital in understanding the interpretations of intended versus literal meaning within the contexts of linguistic structures. By knowing the practical applications of pragmatics, the fields of advertising, politics, law, crime or education can benefit enormously. Knowledge in the field of pragmatics will help people to understand complex communication situations and aid understanding in language use.

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CHAPTER 9
CHILD LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

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9.1. INTRODUCTION

Language acquisition is a process in child's brain when he acquires his first language or his mother tongue. Two processes occur, competence process and performance process. Competence means an unconscious process in acquiring grammar. Competence process is a requirement to next process or to have performance process. There are two processes in this phase, namely comprehension process and production process (producing sentences). First language acquisition is striking with the speed of a child to adopt new words and develop them. The speed in acquiring language informs us that every child has innate regardless his culture and his society. The innate is as language faculty of a child.

Ability in using language is unique. Children sometime utter words and create their own sentences which are very different with adult's statement. Sometimes, they are different because they say uncommon phrase or sentence. The following example shows the unstandard phrase made by a child.

Child : Want other one spoon, Daddy.
Father : You mean, you want the other spoon.
Child : Yes, I want other one spoon, please Daddy.
Father : Can you say "the other spoon"?
Child : Other … one ... spoon.
Father : Say "other".
Child : Other

Father : "spoon"
Child : Spoon
Father : "Other spoon".
Child : Other … spoon. Now give me other one spoon?
Martin Braine (1971)

The conversation above shows the uniqueness of a child in acquiring language. Related to child language acquisition, this chapter covers about the basic requirement in acquiring first language, some phases in acquiring the first language, and development of child's first language in form of phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics.

9.2. BASIC REQUIREMENT

A child in the age of one till three really needs an interaction with others to have an ability in acquiring a language or certain language. If a child never listens and uses a language, it means he never learns any language. Besides, cultural transmission is also related to the acquisition of a language. A language that a child has is not inherited, but it is obtained from the child's surrounding. A child also must have physical ability to send and to receive sound signal in a language. Every baby makes "cooing" and "babbling" sound during his first year. However, the sounds disappear after about six months if he is deaf. Therefore, in order to use language, a baby has to hear the language itself and does communication by using it. For that reason, the basic requirement to acquire a language is to do interaction with others by using the language.

9.3. SCHEDULE OF ACQUIRING FIRST LANGUAGE

Every normal child is able to acquire a language in the same schedule and the same phase. It is like the children learn to sit, stand, walk, use hands and do other physical activity. Schedule

in acquiring the first language is biologically specific as the development of motoric ability. Biological development is related to the maturity of baby's brain and lateralization process. The acquisition of language has a close relationship with the child's social environment. He has biological capacity to differentiate numerous linguistic aspects in some phases during his first life. The acquisition capacity needs sufficient constant input to acquire the rule of a language. The child can be said to have acquired a language if he can use the language with the appropriate rule that he usually hears.

9.4. STAGE OF ACQUIRING FIRST LANGUAGE

Child language acquisition really depends on adult's attitude around him. Adults like mother, father, grandmother, and grandfather have communication with the children as if they are not involved in adult-to-adult conversation. The style that adult use to have conversation with a child is called as **caregiver speech**. In the first stage, the style applied in interacting with children has a lot of forms which is known as *baby talk*. It can be seen that adults use the simplified form, like tummy, nana, or the repetition sounds to show the things around the children, like choo-choo, poo-poo, pee-pee dan wawa.

a. COOING AND BABLING

The first stage of acquiring first language is known as **cooing** and **babling**. **Cooing** is characterized by producing the velar consonants [k] and [g] and the vowels [i] and [u]. The child is capable to produce the sounds in age of three months although numerous sounds produced by the child are different from sounds created by his parents. When the child is five months old, the baby can differentiate between the vowels [i] and [a] and between syllables [ba] and [ga].

Babling stage is described by production of a number of different vowels and consonants and by combining syllables such as ba-ba-ba and ga-ga-ga. It occurs between six and eight months. In the later babling stage, around nine to ten months, the child creates intonation of the consonant and vowel combination. The children also produces nasal sounds and certain syllable combination such as ma-ma-ma and da-da-da which are interpreted by parents as “mama” and “dada” and produced back t the children. The late babling stage is also characterized by various sound-play and imitation of sound. The “prelanguage” stage offers experience of the social role of speech because the parents will react to the babling sounds and the child will contribute in social interaction. One point should be noted in this stage. Researchers describe that it is important for them to be very careful in reporting the children they examine. However, they also state that there is variation among children in acquiring certain language features in the language development stage.

b. THE ONE-WORD STAGE

Between twelve and eighteen months, the child starts to produce various single-unit utterances. This period is labeled as the one-word stage. This phase is characterized by using one term for objects which are used daily, such as milk, cookie, cat, and cup. Furthermore, one word uttered by the child can mean as much as a complete sentence used by an adult. The word "mother" can mean "Mom, come here!", "Where are you?", "Mom, help me", "That's your clothes" or "Mom, I'm hungry", so one-word stage can be called as **holophrastic**. It means that one word can function as a phrase or a sentence.

c. THE TWO-WORD STAGE

The two-word stage occurs around the age of eighteen months to twenty months in line with the child's vocabulary which exceeds fifty words. By the time the child is two years old, numerous combinations of phrase will occur. Phrase such as *baby chair, mommy eat, cat bad* will usually appear; the adult's interpretation of these phrases is, of course, very closely related to the context of their utterance. The phrase *baby chair* could be possessive form (the same as *this is the baby's chair*) or as a request (*put the baby in the chair*) or as a statement (*the baby is in the chair*). Whatever the child actually means through these phrases, adults must act as if communication is actually taking place. This means that the child not only produces utterance, but the child also receives a reply confirming that his speech is truly successful. In addition, by the age of two years, children can produce 200 or 400 different words and are able to understand them.

d. TELEGRAPHIC SPEECH

Between two and two and a half years old, children begin to produce many utterances that can be grouped as multiple-word speech. Children begin to recognize many words and come up with various word forms. Apart from that, at this stage children begin to produce various inflectional morphemes. This stage is known as telegraphic speech. This stage is mainly characterized by a series of lexical morphemes in phrases such as *Andrew want ball, Cat drink milk,* and *This shoe all wet.* At this age, children have the capacity to make sentences and arrange word forms correctly. Besides, the use of simple preposition such as *in* or *on* is also starting to appear. By the age of two and a half, the child's vocabulary develops rapidly and the child begins

to talk a lot. This coincides with children's physical activities such as running and jumping. By the age of three, his vocabulary continues to increase to hundreds of words. Children pronounce words more clearly and almost resemble adult pronunciation so that we can really see that children can really speak.

9.5. THE ACQUISITION PROCESS

As children's language abilities and skills increase, children will construct phrases and sentences, then try whether the construction works or not. The combination of words which is made is based on what they received and given to him. Of course, children imitate what adults say to them and collect as much vocabulary as possible from what they hear. Children also learn first language through imitation or replication words or phrases uttered to them. They imitate what they hear from adults and their environment. The followings are examples of sentence uttered by adult and repeated by a child.

Adult's sentence	Child's repetition
The dogs are hungry.	*dog hungry*
The owl who eats candy runs fast.	*owl eat a candy and he run fast*

It seems that a child understands what adult says to him, but he has his own way to produce the sentences and the examples also show that although a child cannot create a complete sentence like an adult, he tries to express what he understand.

In addition, his own way in creating forms indicates that a child has his own form until they acquire the correct form. Although correction is made by adult, the child uses his own way to express his personal construction.

Child : My teacher **holded** the baby rabbits and we patted them.

Mother : Did you say your teacher **held** the baby rabbits?

Child : Yes
Mother : What did you say she did?
Child : She **holded** the baby rabbits and we patted them.
Mother : Did you say she **held** them tightly?
Child : No, she **holded** them loosely.

Based on the example the child says what he understands by ignoring adult's correction and repetition. It can be seen that adult's imitation does not work here since the child will continue to use his personal form.

9.5.1. PHONOLOGICAL DEVELOPMENT

One main point in the process of language acquisition is the use of sound and the construction of words. In other words, children's ability to combine sounds and words is important factor to learn language. They can do the construction either through interaction with other people or by playing with words by themseslves. It can happen with others or when the child is alone. Thus, the children are not passive in learning language; they experience and try with combination of sounds and words. The experiment can occur when they do conversation with adults. It also can happen when they are alone; they play words and repeat sounds which support their language development. So, they are active in using the language whether through interaction or individual play.

9.5.2. MORPHOLOGICAL DEVELOPMENT

When a child is two and a half years old, he will undergo the stage of telegraphic speech and use several inflectional morphemes that indicate the grammatical function of the nouns and verbs used. The first form that usually appears is the *-ing* form in expressions such as *cat sitting* and *mommy reading book*. This is followed by the preposition *in* and *on*. The next

morphological development is the adding the regular plural with *-s*, as in the words *boys* and *cats*. The acquisition of this form is usually accompanied by a process of **overgeneralization**. The child overgeneralizes the rule for adding *-s* to form plurals and will use it in *foots* and *mans*. When the pronunciation of other plural marker morphemes is used in the word *houses* ending in [əz], children also use this form in other words such as *boyses* or *footses*. At the same time as this overgeneralization, some children also begin to use irregular plural forms such as *men* (which persist for some time) but they also begin to use general rules and produce expressions such as *some mens* and *two feets*.

The use of the possessive inflection *-s* appears in expressions such as *girl's dog* and *Mommy's book* as well as various forms of the verb "to be" such as *are* and *was*. Also in noun phrases, the articles *a* and *the* start to be used. We can also notice the occurence of the forms *was*, *went* and *came*, which are forms of irregular verb changes, in this period. This form even predates the appearance of regular verb forms. Some regular verb forms that often appear in children's speech are *walked* and *played* which are then replaced by overgeneralized forms such as *went* and *comed*. For some time, there is confusion in the *-ed* inflection which causes the child to produce the words *walkded* and *wented*. However, children will use plural forms well after the age of four. At the end, the regular *-s* for the third person in the verb also appears. This appears with the verb (*comes, looks*) and the auxiliary verbs *does, has*. There could be some variations in different child related to language acquisition sequence, but the overall sequence can be seen from the following table.

ACQUISITION OF MORPHEMES

Stage	Morpheme	Examples
1	*-ing*	*cat sitting, mommy reading book*
2=	*in*	*in bag, not in that*
3=	*on*	*on bed, that on top*
4	plural *-s*	*boys, cats*
5=	irregular past tense	*he came, it went away*
6=	possessive *-s*	*Karen's bed, mommy's book*
7	verb "to be" (*is, are*)	*this is no, you are look*
8	articles (*a, the*)	*a cat, the dog*
9	past tense *-ed*	*it opened, he walked*
10	present tense *-s*	*it comes, she knows*

("=") Note that Stages 2 and 3 can be exchanged, similarly Stages 5 and 6.

From the sequence above various variations could happen. Some children may produce a good form one day and then change it to a different form the next day. It is important to remember that children are actually getting to know how to use the language system when they use it as a communication tool. For children, the use of *goed* and *foots* is only a tool as an attempt to convey meaning during certain stages of development. In addition, the explanation above shows the development of morphology in children who acquire English. The data were taken from documentation and research conducted in European languages.

9.5.3. SYNTACTIC DEVELOPMENT

A two year old child can repeat what he hears and can imitate what an adult utters. When he hears an adult speech *the*

owl who eats candy runs fast, he will repeat it as *owl eats candy and he runs fast*. From this case we can see that the child understands what the adult says, but he has his own way of conveying it. There is a lot of researchs on the development of syntax in children's language. We will limit our discussion to two things that have been successfully researched and recorded, namely interrogative sentences and negative sentences. These two things seem to be acquired by children regularly. The formation of interrogative sentences and negative sentences will go through three stages. The age at which the child experiences it will also be different but generally occurs at the age of 18 and 26 months for stage 1, 22 and 30 months for stage 2, and 24 and 40 months for stage 3 (It should be emphasized that there is no very precise age that can be determined in these stages of development. Each child goes through different phases).

QUESTION FORM

In forming interrogative sentences, the first stage has two different procedures. The child adds the *wh-* (*where*) form at the beginning of the expression or phrase or raise the intonation at the end of the sentence.

Where Kitty? Sit chair?

In the second stage, more complicated expressions are formed but the strategy of raising intonation still continues. At that time, more complicated *wh-* forms such as *what* and *why* appear.

You want eat? Why you smiling?

In the third stage, the use of subject and verb begins to appear but the *wh*-form is not always present in every sentence. The exchange of subject and verb position, called inversion, is increasingly visible in the interrogative sentences made by

children. However, this inversion does not appear in interrogative sentence in negative form. In addition to these difficulties with *wh*-questions, there are ongoing issues with verb morphology. In the third stage, the interrogative sentences made by children almost resemble those spoken by adults.

Can I have a piece? Why kitty can't do it? Did I caught it?

Acquisition of Questions

Stage 1	(1 or 2 words + rising intonation) (add *Where*)	*Doggie* *Where Kitty?*	*Sit chair?* *Where that?*
Stage 2	(2 or 3 words + rising intonation) (add *What* and *Why*)	*You want eat?* *What book name?*	*See my doggies?* *Why you smiling?*
Stage 3	(3 or 4 words + inversion) (add *Who* and *How*) (non-adult forms)	*Can I have a piece?* *Who did you go?* *Why kitty can't do it?*	*Will you help me?* *How is that open?* *Did I caught it?*

Negative Form

In forming negative sentences, stage 1 is characterized by a simple strategy of *no* or *not* at the beginning of an expression or a sentence. *No* or *not* is put before verb or noun (*no sit there, not a teddy bear*). The expression *No doing it* can mean *I am not doing it* (a denial) or *I don't want to do it* (a desire). In stage 2, the negative forms *don't* and *can't* appear (*You can't dance*) and the words *no* and *not* are used in front of the verb (*He no bite you*) instead of at the beginning of the sentence. In the third stage, auxiliary forms or other words begin to appear, such as *didn't* and *won't*, and the forms that existed in the first stage

disappear. The latest acquisition is *isn't* form, and the negative form in the second stage continues to be used for quite some time.

The research on the use of negative forms by children found many examples of the use of negative sentences. These sentences are used by children with rules made by the children themselves. One of the best known examples is from McNeill. The case shows the failure of adult to correct child's speech.

Child : *Nobody don't like me*.
Mother : *No, say "nobody likes me."*
Child : *Nobody don't like me*.
(Eight repetitions of this dialog)
Mother : *No, now listen carefully; say "nobody likes me."*
Child : *Oh! Nobody don't likes me.*

Acquisition of Negatives

Stage 1	(add *No* or *Not* to beginning)	*No mitten* *No doing it*	*Not a teddy bear* *Not sit there*
Stage 2	(add *no* or *not* to verb) (add *don't* or *can't* to verb)	*He no bite you* *I don't want it*	*That not touch* *You can't dance*
Stage 3	(add *didn't* or *won't* to verb) (non-adult forms)	*I didn't caught it* *This not ice cream*	*She won't let go* *He not taking it*

9.5.4. SEMANTIC DEVELOPMENT

In the process of language acquisition, children must learn to understand the meaning of new words. In other words, children develope a dictionary of word meanings in their brain.

At first they guess the meaning of a word from the context in which it is said. In an effort to understand the meaning of a word, children must make a hypothesis about the meaning of the word. The way to do this is by mapping their concepts about objects, events, properties and relationships that are familiar to them. Sometimes knowing or determining the correct meaning of a word is not an easy thing for a child.

During the holophrastic stage, many children use a limited vocabulary to refer to unrelated objects. A child first uses *bow-wow* to say a dog. Other children often use the word to refer to cats, horses and cows. This process is called **overextension**, where children usually expand the meaning of a word based on similarities in shape, sound, or size, even based on movement and texture. The word *ball* refers to all round objects, including light bulb and the moon. A *tick-tock* is used for watch, but it is also used for scale or temperature gauge in bathroom which has a round shape. Based on size, the word *fly* was first used to refer to insect, then it was also used for bread crumbs and dirty stains. For similarities in texture, the word *sizo* was first used by children for scissors and then it evolved to all objects made of metal. Semantic development in children's word use usually occurs in a process of overextension, accompanied by a gradual process of narrowing its application as more words are learned.

Although overextension occurs in expanding the meaning of a word, overextension does not occur in comprehending speech. In speaking, a two year old child uses the word *apple* to refer to a number of round objects such as tomatoes and balls. However, he had no difficulty in actually recognizing the apple itself when he was asked to pick it from a number of round objects.

A very interesting thing about a child's semantic development is how to use certain lexical relationships. In terms of hyponymy, children always use the term "middle level" in all hyponyms such as *animal-dog-poodle*. Perhaps it would make

more sense to learn the common word (animal), but all the evidence suggests that children first use the word *dog* for all objects that have the meaning '*animal*'. Children understand antonym of words at a late stage (after five years of age). In one study, kindergarten children pointed to the same tree when they were asked which tree had more apples and which tree had fewer apples. They seem to think that the correct answer is to point to the largest tree, without caring about the difference between *more* and *less*. The differences between a number of other word pairs such as *before* and *after*, *buy* and *sell* are also mastered by children rather late.

Children have gone through the largest part of the language acquisition process at the age of five. However, they are still in the stage of mastering aspects of the language during childhood. According to some opinions, after that age, children are in a good position or the right age to start learning a second language (foreign language).

9.6. CONCLUSION

First language acquisition is the process experienced by children in acquiring their first language in their childhood from their environment. This process implies that children do not immediately absorb all the words and systems of the language they acquire. To adopt language and apply their first language properly, the adults around the child must always interact with the child. Furthermore, because children will always imitate the people around them, adults are expected to set a good example and provide wise correction if children make mistakes. Since language acquisition is a process, there are several stages in first language acquisition. The stages are *cooing* and *babling* stage, the one word stage (*holophrastic*), the two word stage, and *telegraphic speech*. The change from one stage to another will

show the progress or development of the child's language in the form of phonology, morphology, syntax and semantic.

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CHAPTER 10
ADULT LANGUAGE LEARNING

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10.1. INTRODUCTION

Adult language learning is a complex and multifaceted phenomenon that has gained increasing attention in our globalized world. Unlike child language acquisition, which occurs naturally and effortlessly, adult language learning presents unique challenges and opportunities. It is characterized by a diverse range of learner profiles, motivations, and contexts, from professionals seeking to enhance their career prospects to immigrants striving for integration in new communities. The field of adult language learning intersects with various disciplines, including linguistics, psychology, neuroscience, and education, making it a rich area for research and practical application. As our understanding of cognitive processes, social dynamics, and technological affordances evolves, so too do the approaches to adult language instruction and acquisition. This chapter explores the key aspects of adult language learning, examining the factors that influence success, the theories that underpin our understanding, and the practical strategies that can enhance the learning process. By delving into this subject, we not only gain insights into language acquisition but also into the nature of adult learning and cognitive plasticity across the lifespan. Understanding adult language learning is crucial for developing effective educational policies, designing tailored instructional methods, and empowering individuals to achieve their linguistic goals in an increasingly interconnected world.

Adult language learning is a complex process that occurs after the onset of puberty, characterized by distinct cognitive and strategic differences compared to child language acquisition. This distinction is crucial as adult learners often utilize different cognitive processes and learning strategies, which can impact their outcomes in language proficiency. Vanhove (2013) emphasizes that adult language learners typically rely on metacognitive strategies, which are less prevalent in children, who tend to acquire language more naturally through immersion and social interaction (Stein-Smith, 2021).

The significance of adult language learning has been amplified in our increasingly globalized world, where multilingual competence is becoming a necessity rather than a luxury. Stein-Smith (2021) argues that the demand for multilingualism is driven by the need for effective communication across cultural boundaries, which is essential for both personal and professional success in a global context (Stein-Smith, 2021). This need is echoed by (Liu & Evans, 2015), who highlight that multilingualism fosters better educational outcomes and enhances social cohesion within diverse communities (Liu & Evans, 2015).

Moreover, the cognitive benefits of multilingualism in adults are well-documented. Research indicates that multilingual individuals often exhibit enhanced cognitive flexibility and problem-solving skills, which can be attributed to their experience in managing multiple language systems (Usanova & Schnoor, 2022). For instance, Abutalebi et al. (2011) found that bilinguals demonstrate superior conflict monitoring abilities, suggesting that the cognitive demands of managing multiple languages can lead to improved executive functions (Abutalebi et al., 2011). This cognitive advantage is particularly relevant for adult learners, who may face unique challenges in language

acquisition due to varying educational backgrounds and life experiences (Ewert, 2013).

The scope of adult language learning is broad and diverse, covering a range of learning contexts. These contexts include formal classroom instruction, where learners receive structured lessons from qualified instructors, as well as immersion experiences that provide opportunities to practice the language in real-life settings. Additionally, self-study allows individuals to take control of their learning through books, apps, and other resources, while technology-assisted learning introduces a variety of digital tools, such as language learning apps, online platforms, and virtual classrooms, that facilitate learning at one's own pace. Adult language learning also spans a wide spectrum of proficiency levels, from complete beginners to advanced learners. Beginners may focus on foundational skills such as basic vocabulary and grammar, while advanced learners work on refining fluency, comprehension, and cultural nuances. The goal at each level is to build confidence and competency in using the language in various contexts, from casual conversation to professional or academic settings.

Moreover, the field of adult language learning is supported by multiple areas of research. Linguistic studies explore the structure and function of language, while psychological research delves into the cognitive processes involved in language acquisition, such as memory, motivation, and learning strategies. Social influences, including interaction with native speakers and exposure to diverse linguistic communities, play a critical role, as do cultural considerations that help learners understand not only the language but also the cultural context in which it is used. All of these factors contribute to a rich and multidimensional approach to adult language learning.

10.2. DIFFERENCES BETWEEN CHILD LANGUAGE ACQUISITION AND ADULT LANGUAGE LEARNING

Several experts in the field of language acquisition, including Krashen (1982) and Lightbown (2006), have explored the distinctions between child and adult language learning. One of the key advantages adults possess is their more developed cognitive abilities, which enable them to excel in analytical thinking and explicit rule learning. Adults are also better equipped with advanced problem-solving skills, allowing them to approach language learning with more strategic methods. Additionally, adults have a greater capacity for metacognition, meaning they can reflect on their learning processes and adjust their strategies as needed. This cognitive maturity enables them to grasp complex grammatical concepts more quickly, often leading to faster progress in reading and writing skills compared to younger learners.

However, adults also face distinct challenges in language acquisition. Achieving native-like pronunciation and intonation can be particularly difficult for adult learners, as they tend to struggle with the intuitive, unconscious learning of grammar that children are naturally better at. Instead, adults often rely more heavily on explicit instruction and the conscious application of grammatical rules. This reliance can result in slower processing times during spontaneous speech and less automatic production of the target language (Krashen, 1982; Lightbown & Spada, 2006). As a result, adults may need more time to develop fluency, especially in spoken communication.

10.3. FACTORS AFFECTING ADULT LANGUAGE LEARNING

1. Age and the Critical Period Hypothesis

The relationship between age and second language acquisition has long been debated in linguistics, particularly through the lens of the **Critical Period Hypothesis** (**CPH**). Proposed by Lenneberg (1967), the CPH posits that there is a biologically determined window during which language can be more easily acquired. Initially focused on first language acquisition, this hypothesis has also been applied to second language learning. Recent research has offered more nuanced perspectives on the CPH regarding adult language learning. Researchers now frequently discuss **sensitive periods** rather than a single critical period for various language aspects. For example, Hartshorne et al. (2018) note that the capacity to acquire native-like pronunciation may diminish earlier than the ability to learn vocabulary. Furthermore, studies indicate a **gradual decline** in language learning ability with age, as evidenced by Hakuta et al. (2003), who found that this decline occurs linearly rather than abruptly. Moreover, while age is an important factor, there is notable **variability in outcomes** among adult learners. Some late learners achieve near-native proficiency, challenging a strict interpretation of the CPH (Birdsong, 2018). Advances in **neuroplasticity** research have revealed that the adult brain retains significant plasticity, allowing for continued structural and functional changes during second language acquisition. Although learning a new language may require more effort in adulthood, Li et al. (2014) suggest that these ongoing changes can facilitate the process.

2. Cognitive Factors

Cognitive factors are critical in adult language learning, often helping to offset age-related challenges. Memory

processes, for instance, play a significant role. Adults generally possess more developed working memory, which aids in language comprehension and production; Linck et al. (2014) found a strong correlation between working memory capacity and language skills. Moreover, according to Ullman's (2015) declarative/procedural model, adults tend to rely more on declarative memory for explicit rule learning, while children utilize procedural memory for implicit grammar acquisition. This distinction can explain why adults excel in explicit learning but may struggle with intuitively acquiring grammatical structures. Additionally, adults can enhance their language retention through explicit memory strategies such as mnemonic techniques and spaced repetition systems, which have proven effective for vocabulary retention (Chien, 2015). Attention is another vital cognitive factor influencing language learning. Adults often exhibit developed selective attention skills, allowing them to focus on relevant linguistic inputs effectively. Segalowitz and Frenkiel-Fishman (2005) highlight the connection between attentional control and second language proficiency. However, adults also face challenges related to **divided attention**, where managing multiple tasks can lead to cognitive overload in complex communication situations (Biedroń & Szczepaniak, 2012). Schmidt's (1990) Noticing Hypothesis posits that conscious attention to language forms is necessary for acquisition, and adults' ability to focus on these structures can facilitate learning.

Problem-solving skills also significantly contribute to adult language learning. Adults' advanced cognitive development enables them to analyze complex grammatical rules and patterns, with Kormos and Csizér (2014) noting a preference for explicit, rule-based instruction. Furthermore, adults often utilize **metacognitive strategies**, allowing them to plan, monitor, and evaluate their learning processes effectively. Such strategies

have been shown to impact language learning success significantly (Raoofi et al., 2014). Additionally, adults can transfer problem-solving skills from other areas into language learning tasks, leveraging their diverse experiences to enhance efficiency (Jessner, 2008).

3. Affective Factors

Affective factors play a crucial role in adult language learning, often influencing success more than they do in child language acquisition. **Motivation** is a primary determinant; Dörnyei and Al-Hoorie (2017) identify different types of motivation, including intrinsic (personal interest), extrinsic (external rewards), and integrative (desire to engage with the target language community). Adults often experience motivational fluctuations, making it a challenge to maintain long-term motivation (Waninge et al., 2014). Dörnyei's (2009) L2 Motivational Self System emphasizes that learners' visions of themselves as future speakers can drive their motivation, particularly when they have clear language goals.

Anxiety can significantly affect adult learners' performance and willingness to communicate. The concept of **foreign language anxiety** introduced by Horwitz et al. (1986) remains relevant, as adults often experience heightened anxiety due to fear of negative evaluation and perfectionism. While moderate anxiety can sometimes facilitate performance, high levels typically impair learning (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014). Teaching anxiety management strategies, such as mindfulness techniques, can provide significant benefits for adult learners (Fallah, 2017).

Finally, **self-confidence** and self-efficacy beliefs are crucial for persistence and success in language learning. Raoofi et al. (2012) found that learners' beliefs about their capabilities strongly influence their performance. MacIntyre et al. (1998)

introduced the concept of **willingness to communicate**, highlighting how self-confidence interacts with other variables to affect learners' readiness to use the target language. Promoting a **growth mindset** (Dweck, 2006) can help adult learners overcome self-imposed limitations and foster resilience in the face of challenges.

4. Social and Cultural Factors

In addition to cognitive and affective factors, social and cultural factors play a significant role in adult language acquisition. Norton's (2013) work on identity illustrates how learners' social identities shape their investment in language learning. For adults, the degree of **acculturation** to the target language community can significantly influence language acquisition, as suggested by Schumann's (1986) Acculturation Model. Social networks within the target language community also impact learning outcomes, with Lam (2004) demonstrating how social connections facilitate access to language input and practice opportunities.

Moreover, the **cultural distance** between learners' native culture and the target culture can affect motivation and acquisition ease, with Ryder et al. (2000) suggesting that smaller cultural distances may facilitate learning. For many adults, language learning is closely tied to **workplace learning**, which presents both opportunities and challenges for language acquisition (Newton & Kusmierczyk, 2011). Understanding these multifaceted factors is essential for developing effective approaches to adult language teaching and supporting learners throughout their language acquisition journeys. The interplay among these factors necessitates personalized and flexible instructional strategies to maximize learning outcomes.

10.4. OPTIMIZING ADULT LANGUAGE LEARNING: APPROACHES, METHODS, AND STRATEGIES

Adult language learning incorporates a variety of methods, approaches, and strategies to address the unique needs of learners. One traditional approach is the **Grammar-Translation Method**, which, though considered outdated, remains influential in academic settings by focusing on explicit grammar instruction and translation exercises (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). In contrast, the **Direct Method** emphasizes immersive learning, using only the target language during instruction to create a more natural environment for learners (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2013). Another approach, the **Audio-Lingual Method**, is based on behaviorist principles and relies on repetition and drills to form language habits. Although less commonly used today, it remains relevant in pronunciation training (Celce-Murcia et al., 2010).

More contemporary methods, like **Communicative Language Teaching** (**CLT**), focus on developing communicative competence through meaningful interaction and remain widely adopted in adult language education (Nunan, 2014). Similarly, **Task-Based Language Teaching** (**TBLT**) engages learners by using real-world tasks to promote language acquisition, leveraging adults' problem-solving abilities and practical knowledge (Long, 2015). Another effective approach is **Content-Based Instruction** (CBI), which integrates language learning with content from other disciplines, making it especially relevant for learners with specific academic or professional goals (Brinton & Snow, 2017). Successful adult language learning also depends on the use of targeted strategies. **Metacognitive strategies**—such as planning, monitoring, and evaluating one's learning process—are crucial for improving language outcomes, as they enable learners to reflect on and adjust their approach (Rahimi & Katal, 2012). **Cognitive**

strategies, like note-taking, summarizing, and employing mnemonic devices, help learners process and retain language information (Oxford, 2016). Additionally, **socio-affective strategies** focus on interacting with others and managing emotions, which is essential for adults who may experience anxiety or self-doubt during language learning (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014). The increasing use of **technology and online resources** also plays a critical role, with mobile-assisted language learning (MALL) providing flexible and accessible platforms for self-directed learning (Chwo et al., 2018). Together, these methods and strategies offer a comprehensive framework for adult language learning success.

10.5. ADDRESSING CHALLENGES AND IMPLEMENTING EFFECTIVE ASSESSMENT IN ADULT LANGUAGE LEARNING

Adult language learning presents a variety of challenges that often require innovative solutions. One common difficulty is **time constraints**, as adult learners must balance their studies with work and family commitments, leading to a need for flexible learning options and efficient study strategies (Pfenninger & Polz, 2018). Another challenge is **fossilization of errors**, where ingrained mistakes become difficult to correct, limiting progress in language proficiency. Han (2013) delves into the causes and potential solutions for this issue. Additionally, **interference from the first language** can impact pronunciation, syntax, and vocabulary in the target language, making it harder for adults to achieve fluency (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008). Furthermore, adults often face **limited exposure to authentic language use**, unlike children who are typically immersed in language-rich environments. This lack of real-world practice has spurred interest in technology and

community-based programs to create immersive experiences (Dörnyei et al., 2016).

In terms of **assessment and evaluation,** adult language learning relies on a variety of methods to track progress and tailor instruction. **Formative, summative, and diagnostic assessments** each serve different purposes, helping educators monitor learner development and make informed instructional decisions (Brown & Abeywickrama, 2018). Common tools include standardized tests like TOEFL and IELTS, as well as **portfolio and performance-based assessments**, with the choice of method depending on the learner's goals and context (Green, 2014). Moreover, **self-assessment** plays a vital role in fostering learner autonomy. According to Little (2007), developing self-assessment skills not only improves learning outcomes but also equips adult learners with the tools needed for lifelong language acquisition.

10.6. CURRENT TRENDS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS IN ADULT LANGUAGE LEARNING

Blended learning approaches have gained significant traction in adult language education, combining the advantages of face-to-face instruction with the flexibility of online learning. This hybrid model caters to the diverse needs of adult learners, allowing them to engage in personalized learning experiences that fit their individual schedules and learning preferences. By incorporating both in-person classes and online modules, educators can provide a richer learning environment that promotes interaction, collaboration, and immediate feedback (McCarthy, 2016). This approach not only facilitates the mastery of language skills but also helps learners balance their educational pursuits with other life commitments.

Another transformative trend in language learning is **mobile-assisted language learning (MALL)**. The widespread use of smartphones has led to a remarkable increase in mobile language learning applications and platforms. These tools offer learners the convenience of studying anytime and anywhere, making language acquisition more accessible than ever before. Research by Kukulska-Hulme et al. (2017) emphasizes the potential of MALL to support informal and incidental learning, allowing learners to engage with the target language in their everyday lives. This form of learning is particularly beneficial for adults who may not have the time to attend traditional classes, enabling them to integrate language practice into their routines through interactive exercises, flashcards, and games.

Furthermore, the advent of **artificial intelligence** (**AI**) in language learning is revolutionizing the way instruction is delivered. AI-powered tools, such as chatbots and adaptive learning systems, provide personalized learning experiences by adapting to individual learner needs and progress. These technologies can offer immediate feedback, suggest tailored exercises, and engage learners in conversational practice, making language learning more dynamic and responsive (Chassignol et al., 2018). As AI continues to evolve, its potential to enhance language acquisition becomes increasingly promising, providing learners with the tools to practice and refine their skills in a supportive and interactive environment.

Finally, advancements in **neurolinguistic approaches** are shedding light on the intricacies of adult language learning. Neuroscience research is uncovering how the brain processes language, offering valuable insights that can inform more effective teaching methodologies. For instance, studies by Li et al. (2014) suggest that understanding the neurological underpinnings of language acquisition can help educators design curricula that align with how adults learn best. By applying

these insights, teachers can implement strategies that cater to cognitive processes, enhance retention, and foster a deeper understanding of the target language. This evolving field holds the promise of optimizing language learning experiences for adults, ultimately contributing to more successful outcomes.

10.7. CONCLUSION

Adult language learning remains a complex and multifaceted field, characterized by unique challenges and opportunities. This chapter has explored various aspects of adult language acquisition, from the cognitive and affective factors influencing learning to the methods and strategies employed in teaching. Key insights from this discussion include: (1) the critical period hypothesis, while still debated, suggests that adult learners face distinct challenges compared to children, particularly in areas such as pronunciation and intuitive grammar acquisition. (2) Cognitive factors, including memory processes, attention, and problem-solving skills, play crucial roles in adult language learning. While adults may struggle with implicit language acquisition, they often excel in explicit rule learning and analytical approaches to language. (3) Affective factors, such as motivation, anxiety, and self-confidence, significantly impact adult learners' success. Understanding and addressing these factors is crucial for effective language instruction. (4) Social and cultural contexts profoundly influence adult language learning, affecting learners' identities, motivations, and access to language input. (5) A variety of teaching approaches and methods, from traditional grammar-translation to more contemporary communicative and task-based approaches, can be effective when tailored to adult learners' needs and goals. (6) Assessment in adult language learning should be multifaceted, incorporating formative, summative, and self-assessment techniques to provide a comprehensive picture

of learner progress. (7) Emerging trends, including blended learning, mobile-assisted language learning, and AI-powered tools, are reshaping the landscape of adult language education, offering new opportunities for personalized and flexible learning. As our global society continues to evolve, the importance of adult language learning is likely to grow. The ability to communicate across linguistic and cultural boundaries is increasingly vital for personal, professional, and societal development. Successful adult language learning requires a holistic approach that considers the learner's cognitive abilities, affective states, social contexts, and individual goals. By continuing to refine our understanding and approaches, we can empower adult learners to achieve their linguistic aspirations and contribute to a more interconnected world.

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CHAPTER 11
PSYCHOLINGUISTICS

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11.1. INTRODUCTION

Language is an essential part of human life. It is used by people to communicate and express ideas and opinions to others. In daily interaction, people use language in various ways, whether they speak directly or use gestures and body language. Furthermore, language shapes our thoughts, interactions, and identities. Therefore, learning how languages work is important. It is unique when people, particularly children, learn to communicate and produce language. When babies were born, they could not produce nor comprehend language. However, at 4 years old and beyond, they have acquired capabilities to speak with some variation in vocabulary and better in sentence structures. This situation was prevalent in all languages around the world. This phenomenon also creates “envy” for adults who struggle to learn their second or foreign languages. An attempt to explain that phenomenon becomes the fundamental issue for psycholinguists.

Psycholinguistics is a study that concerns the relationship between language and the brain. In the 19th century, a German physician, Wilhelm Maximilian Wundt, studied the relationship between behavior and cognitive characteristics of those who use language. This was believed to be the origin of psycholinguistics. However, the term "psycholinguistics" itself derived from Jacob Robert Kantor, who wrote a book entitled An Objective Psychology of Grammar in 1936. The book was

used by lecturers at Indiana University. One of his students, Nicholas Henry Pronko, based on that book, wrote an article "Language and psycholinguistics: a review" in 1946. Later on, in 1954, Charles E. Osgood and Thomas A. Sebeok composed a book with the title Psycholinguistics: A survey of theory and research problems. Psycholinguistics is a study of how the human brain acquires language, processes it, comprehends it, and gives feedback or produces language. It is an interdisciplinary field. Hence, it is related to several disciplines such as psychology, cognitive science linguistics, and speech and language pathology. It further has subdivisions, such as orthography, phonology, semantics, syntax, etc.

Psycholinguistics deals with the nature of the computations and processes that determine how the brain works to comprehend and produce language. For instance, it tries to describe how words are retrieved from the mental lexicon when a person hears or sees linguistic input. It also explores and elaborates on how children acquire their language, how adults comprehend and produce language, language development, as well as language and speech disorders. This chapter will explore various concepts and theories underlying psycholinguistics, as well as its practical applications in everyday life. From how children learn to speak to how the brain processes the words we hear and read..

11.2. LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Language acquisition in children is one of the most important aspects in psycholinguistics. This process encompasses how children begin to understand and produce language from an early age, which in turn helps them communicate with the world around them. Balamurugan & Thirunavukkarasu (2018) mentioned several thories of language acquisition as follows:

1. The behaviorist theory, proposed by B.F. Skinner, states that language is acquired through reinforcement and imitation. Children learn to speak by imitating the speech of adults and receiving praise or rewards when they speak correctly.
2. The nativist theory, proposed by Noam Chomsky, asserts that humans are born with an innate ability to learn language. Chomsky introduced the concept of a Language Acquisition Device (LAD) that enables children to understand the grammatical rules of any language they hear.
3. The interactionist theory, proposed by Lev Vygotsky, emphasizes the importance of social interaction in language acquisition. According to this theory, children learn language through interactions with adults and peers in social contexts.
4. The cognitive theory which states that a child first grasps concepts like relative size before they learn the words and patterns to express them. Essentially, a young child cannot articulate ideas they are unfamiliar with. Once they understand their surroundings, they can link language to their prior experiences. For instance, an infant's experience of a cat involves recognizing that it meows, is furry, and eats from a bowl in the kitchen. They form the concept of a cat first and subsequently learn to associate the word "kitty" with that concept.
5. The usage-based theory of language acquisition, developed by Michael Tomasello, suggests that children acquire language through their interactions and experiences with their surroundings. This theory highlights the importance of social cognition and communicative motivation in the language learning process.
6. The optimality theory developed in the field of phonology by linguists Alan Prince and Paul Smolensky in the early

1990s provides understanding language acquisition by focusing on how children learn to balance and rank constraints. This process explains both the simplifications observed in early speech and the gradual progression toward adult-like linguistic competence.

In the process of children's language acquisition, there are several factors that accompany that process, such as biological factors, social factors, and physical and cultural environments. Biological factors include genetic and neurological aspects that affect a child's ability to learn language. Some research suggests that there is a critical period in brain development when children are most capable of learning language. Social factors include a child's interactions with adults and other children in their environment. Children who frequently engage in conversations and language activities tend to acquire language more quickly. The physical and cultural environment also plays a significant role in language acquisition. Children who grow up in environments rich with verbal stimulation and books tend to have a broader vocabulary and better grammatical understanding..

11.3. LANGUAGE PRODUCTION

Language production is the process by which someone generates words, phrases, or sentences to communicate. In the process of language production, Steinberg & Sciarini (2006) stated that children will face several phases to produce a language, which started with initial vocalizations. In this stage, infants start by making various sounds such as crying, cooing, and gurgling. These early sounds are essential precursors to speech, helping infants develop the skills necessary for speech production.

Next phase is babbling. As infants grow, they begin babbling, producing sounds that resemble speech but lack specific meaning. Babbling is a crucial stage in speech development as it prepares infants for the production of actual speech sounds. The third stage is speech emergence. Speech production develops from the ability to understand speech. Comprehension precedes production in typical children and even in mute-hearing children, where comprehension can develop without accompanying speech production. This suggests that children's ability to produce speech is built upon their understanding of language sounds and structures. Children worldwide follow similar developmental paths in acquiring speech production skills.

11.4. LANGUAGE COMPREHENSION

Language comprehension is the process by which a listener or reader processes linguistic input to understand the intended message. It is a quite difficult process since we perceive the input until we comprehend it. This process involves several stages and cognitive mechanisms such as phonological perception, lexical processing, as well as syntax, semantic, and pragmatic processing. Treiman et al. (2003) stated that language comprehension occurs when listeners or readers successfully extract meaning from spoken or written language. This process involves integrating multiple sources of linguistic and non-linguistic information, such as grammar, syntax, situational context, and knowledge of the world. Language comprehension can occur at both the sentence level and the discourse level, and it is influenced by various factors, including the frequency of exposure to certain linguistic constructions, the expectations of the listener or reader, and the cognitive load of processing information.

The mental lexicon plays an important role in language comprehension. Zhou & Marslen-wilson (1995) claimed that mental lexicon is responsible for storing and accessing our knowledge of words and morphemes, and allows us to quickly recognize and understand the meaning of incoming speech. When we encounter a familiar word, the lexicon retrieves information about its meaning, pronunciation, and syntactic properties, enabling us to interpret the sentence in which it appears. Without the mental lexicon, language comprehension would be much slower and more difficult.

During spoken word recognition, Treiman et al. (2003) explained that listeners perceive speech input via their auditory system and convert the acoustic signal into meaningful representations. Spoken words are recognized by matching the acoustic input to stored phonological and syntactic representations in the mental lexicon. Listeners access these stored representations to extract the meaning of spoken words. The process of spoken word recognition is sequential and time-limited because speech signals unfold continuously over time, and listeners must integrate information as it is presented. In contrast, during printed word recognition, readers convert visual input into orthographic representations and use these representations to recognize words. Printed words can be recognized in parallel because the eyes take in all of the letters during a single fixation. The reader's visual system detects the shape of individual letters and uses them to recognize words. The processing procedures of spoken and printed word recognition are similar because the mental lexicon contains both phonological and orthographic representations, allowing readers and listeners to understand words regardless of the mode of delivery.

11.5. LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT

Language development refers to the process through which children acquire the ability to communicate verbally with others using the particular language that is predominant in their environment. This process typically begins from birth and continues through childhood, starting with cooing and babbling sounds, and eventually developing into spoken language and then written language. Although language development is a natural process, it is influenced by a variety of factors such as cognitive abilities, environmental factors, and socio-cultural factors. The importance of language development lies in the development of communication skills, both verbal and nonverbal, and the ability to engage with others in social contexts (Al-harbi, 2020)

Language development is a unique and complex process. Sudrajat, (2017) argue that this process depends on different theories such as the behaviorist theory, the nativist, and the interactionist theory. According to cognitive linguistics, language is a part of humans' broader intellectual development and emerges within the context of problem-solving, memorization, and attention. Children usually go through different developmental stages in an order that is universal in all children. Piaget's cognitive theory states that children's language reflects the development of their logical thinking and reasoning skills in stages, with each period having a specific name and age reference. Vygotsky's social interaction theory also argues that children can be influenced by their environment and the language input they receive from their caregivers. Below are the elaboration of those theories.

a. **Behaviorist theory of language development**, learning is a process of habit formation that involves a period of trial and error where the child tries and fails to use correct language until it succeeds. Infants have human role models in their

environment that provide the stimuli and rewards required for operant conditioning. Children learn through rewards and punishments for behavior, just like in other cognitive behaviors. This means that a child's language is shaped by reinforcement from their environment and caregivers. If a child babble that resembles appropriate words, their babbling will be rewarded by a caregiver or a loved one through positive reinforcement, such as a smile or clap. This reward reinforces further articulations of the same sort into groupings of syllables and words in a similar situation. Children also learn to speak by copying the utterances they hear around them and their responses are strengthened by the repetitions, corrections, and reactions that adults provide. According to the behaviorist theory, language acquisition is a process of imitation and and operant conditioning

b. **The nativist theory of language development** proposed by Noam Chomsky suggests that children have an innate ability to learn language and that the capacity for language is biologically determined. Chomsky argued that all humans have an innate language acquisition device (LAD) that enables them to learn language. The LAD contains a set of grammatical rules that are common to all human languages and allows children to acquire language easily and rapidly. Chomsky believed that children are born with the ability to understand and create complex linguistic structures that they have never encountered before. He believed that children are genetically programmed to acquire language and that they have an inborn ability to recognize the grammatical structure of language from birth. He referred to this innate ability as 'Universal Grammar.'

c. **The nativist theory**, children are able to learn language because they have an innate understanding of its basic

principles. Children are able to generate an infinite number of sentences based on the grammar rules that are hard-wired into their brains. The nativist theory suggests that language acquisition is not based on imitation or reinforcement but rather it is an innate ability of humans.

d. **Vygotsky's social interaction theory,** children learn language through their interactions with their caregivers and other individuals in their environment. Language development takes place in the context of social and cultural interactions and is heavily influenced by the cultural context in which it occurs. Vygotsky argues that when children are born, they lack the knowledge to communicate with others, but slowly, through interactions with their caregivers, they develop the language they need to function in their social world. Caregivers typically simplify their language and provide a nurturing environment to encourage language development. Vygotsky stressed the importance of the zone of proximal development, which refers to the difference between what a child can do independently and what they can do with assistance or guidance from a more skilled individual. He believed that children learn best when they are within this zone and that it is important for caregivers to provide the appropriate level of support and guidance to help children reach their full potential. Overall, Vygotsky's theory emphasizes the crucial role of social interaction in language development, with the caregiver acting as a facilitator of the child's development.

11.6. SIGN LANGUAGES

Sign language appears as an important means of communication for deaf and hard-of-hearing individuals. It help them to break down barrrier of communication. Cowles (2011) argued that sign language is a visual-gestural communication

system based on the idea that the hands, facial expressions, and body movements can convey meaning, like spoken words. Just like spoken language, sign language has its unique syntax, grammar, and vocabulary, and different sign languages are used in different parts of the world, including American Sign Language, British Sign Language, and Chinese Sign Language, among others. Van Staden et al. (2009) stated that deaf learners can acquire sign language in the same way hearing learners acquire spoken language, following similar acquisition stages such as syllabic babbling stage, first-word stage, and a two-word stage. Deaf infants exposed to sign language usually begin babbling with their hands, gradually transitioning into a one- and two-word (sign) stage until they master the complex morphological system of sign language.

There are many examples of sign language in daily life, such as communicating with Deaf friends or family members, ordering food at a restaurant, or even just exchanging basic pleasantries with someone who is Deaf. Sign language can also be used in educational or professional settings. Shelly & Schneck (1998) explained that Anyone can use sign language to communicate, regardless of their age, gender, ethnicity, or ability. While sign language is commonly used among the Deaf and hard-of-hearing community, it can also be used by those who are not Deaf or hard-of-hearing. For example, parents may use sign language to communicate with their infants before they are able to speak, or individuals may use sign language to communicate in noisy environments. Additionally, those who work with the Deaf or hard-of-hearing, such as interpreters, educators, and healthcare professionals, may also use sign language to facilitate communication.

11.7. LANGUAGE DISORDERS

Language disorders can manifest in various ways and can include difficulty producing speech sounds, putting words together to form sentences, and understanding what others say. Reilly (2016) clasified two main types of language disorders: receptive language disorder and expressive language disorder. Receptive language disorder involves difficulty understanding or processing language. an example of a receptive language disorder is when a person experiences difficulty understanding or processing language. This can manifest in a variety of ways, such as difficulty comprehending spoken language, following directions, recognizing and responding to nonverbal cues (such as gestures or facial expressions), and difficulties with reading comprehension. A person with a receptive language disorder may struggle to understand the meaning of words, sentences, or entire conversations, even if their hearing and intelligence are normal. Some possible causes of receptive language disorder include neurological damage or developmental disorders such as autism spectrum disorders. Expressive language disorder refers to difficulties with verbal expression, specifically difficulty with forming and communicating ideas through language. A person with expressive language disorder may struggle with basic language skills, such as vocabulary, grammar, syntax, and pronunciation. They may also have difficulty recalling the right words to use when speaking or writing. For example, a child with expressive language disorder may have difficulty forming sentences correctly, speaking in a coherent manner, or may use the wrong tense or word endings such as "-ed" or "-ing". Additionally, a person with expressive language disorder may struggle with complex language tasks such as understanding jokes or figurative language (idioms, metaphors, expressions, etc.). This can make social interactions and academic performance difficult.

There are several possible causes of expressive language disorder, including genetic factors, developmental delays, and neurological conditions such as cerebral palsy or traumatic brain injury. Treatment and therapy for expressive language disorder may include speech and language therapy, occupational therapy, and counseling to help individuals improve their language skills and confidence in using language.

In other hand, Pachalska et. al (2007) mentioned about specific language impairment (SLI), classified among the developmental speech disorders. Language impairment and speech impairment are both types of communication disorders. Language impairment refers to difficulties in acquiring and using language, such as problems with grammar, vocabulary, or comprehension. Language impairment can be developmental, meaning that it is present in childhood and often persists into adulthood. Alternatively, it can be acquired due to damage or disease to the brain as in aphasia. Speech impairment, on the other hand, refers to difficulties in the physical production of speech sounds, which can make speech difficult to understand. Speech impairment includes difficulties with articulation, phonation, fluency, and breath control caused by structural abnormalities or neurological impairment. Speech impairment can also be developmental or acquired throughout lifetime. It is important to distinguish between the two because treatment and management approaches vary for each respective impairment. While speech therapy is commonly used in both language and speech impairments, the focus may vary depending on the specific needs of the individual.

11.8. EXERCISES

Answer the following questions based on the explanation above!

1. How does psycholinguistics explain the ability of children to acquire language, and why does this phenomenon create challenges for adults learning a second language?
2. What are the key areas of focus in psycholinguistics, and how do these areas contribute to understanding the relationship between language and the brain?
3. How do the different theories of language acquisition (behaviorist, nativist, interactionist, cognitive, usage-based, and optimality theory) explain the process by which children learn to understand and produce language?
4. What role do biological, social, and environmental factors play in influencing a child's ability to acquire language, and how do these factors interact with the critical period of brain development?
5. What are the key stages of language production in children as outlined by Steinberg & Sciarini, and how do these stages contribute to the development of speech?
6. How does the relationship between speech comprehension and speech production influence the language development process in children, particularly during the speech emergence phase?
7. How does the mental lexicon function in both spoken and printed word recognition, and why is it essential for efficient language comprehension?
8. How do the behaviorist, nativist, and social interaction theories explain the process of language development in children, and what role does reinforcement, innate ability, and social interaction play in each theory?
9. In what ways can sign language be utilized beyond the Deaf and hard-of-hearing community, and how does it serve as

an effective communication tool in various everyday situations?

10. What are the distinguishing features of receptive and expressive language disorders, and how do these disorders impact an individual's ability to communicate and comprehend language?

11.9. CONCLUSION

Psycholinguistics is a study which concern with the relationship between language and brain. It concern with the study of how human brain acquires language, processes it, comprehends it and gives feedback or produces language. There are several theories which support the language acquisition process namely the behaviorist theory, the nativist theory, the interactionist theory, the cognitive theory, the usage-based theory and the optimality theory . In the process of children language acquisition, there are several factors that accompanying that process such biological factors, social factors and physical and cultural environments. Language production is the process by which someone generates words, phrases, or sentences to communicate. In the process of language production. It started from initial vocalizations, babling, and speech emergence. Language comprehension is the process by which a listener or reader processes linguistic input to understand the intended message.it is a quite difficult process since we perceive the input until comprehend it. This process involves several stages and cognitive mechanisms such as phonological perception, lexical processing as well as syntax, semantic and pragmatic processing. Language development refers to the process through which children acquire the ability to communicate verbally with others using the particular language that is predominant in their environment. Sign language is a visual-gestural communication system based on

the idea that the hands, facial expressions, and body movements can convey meaning, like spoken words. Just like spoken language, sign language has its unique syntax, grammar, and vocabulary, and different sign languages are used in different parts of the world, including American Sign Language, British Sign Language, and Chinese Sign Language, among others. Language disorders happend when people have difficulty producing speech sounds, putting words together to form sentences, and understanding what others say. It has two main types of language disorders: receptive language disorder and expressive language disorder.

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AUTHOR'S PROFILE

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CHAPTER 12
STYLISTICS

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12.1. INTRODUCTION

Stylistics is a branch of linguistics that focuses on the study of style in texts, especially literary ones, but it can also be applied to non-literary texts. It explores how language is utilized to produce specific effects, communicate meaning, and elicit reactions from readers or listeners. It includes the analysis of various elements such as word choice, sentence structure, figurative language, and sound patterns. According to Abdulmughni (2019) style can be found in both spoken and written forms, whether they are literary or non-literary, and indicates a variation in an individual's speech or writing. Style typically changes from casual to formal based on the situation, location, historical context, topic, and the audience. A particular style is often referred to as a stylistic register or variety, such as colloquial or formal. A speech variety used by a particular group of people often reflects shared interests or occupations. Each register distinguishes itself from others through different vocabulary, specific phrases or words, and sometimes unique legal language or grammatical constructions. Style shift refers to changes in style during verbal or written communication. Typically, style shifts happen when the writer or speaker re-evaluates or redefines the situation. For instance, a writer might include informal details in a formal text if they are familiar with the audience. Similarly, a speaker may switch to informal speech to reduce tension during a highly formal political

address. This phenomenon is also observed in interviews, where interviewees are encouraged to relax, leading them to transition from a formal to an informal style, thereby enhancing their expressiveness. The stylistic variation of a person or group can be assessed by examining recorded speech or written text and comparing them. These stylistic differences can be identified through various words, expressions, or sentence structures used in different contexts.

Stylistic analysis differs from linguistic analysis in that linguistics focuses on the structures of words, phrases, clauses, and sentences, which form the foundation for stylistic text analysis. Stylistic is a method of interpreting texts where language takes precedence. Linguistic structures serve as a crucial guide to understanding the function of a text, encompassing various forms, levels, and patterns based on language stylistics. Textual language highlights the stylistic elements that stand out from other types of critical practice. A writer's style reflects the author's personality, distinct characteristics, and unique voice.

"Style is a selection of linguistics; a sort of medium of revolt against the norm; a repetition of linguistic forms. Style also defines the personality of a person. Style shows the thoughts and ideas of a person" (Leech, 1969, as cited in Abdulmughni, 2019, p. 414).

In general, there are four styles of writing in English: narrative, descriptive, persuasive, and expository. A narrative is a type of fictional text that describes events happening to a character or group of characters, with the author writing as if they were part of the story. The narration does not need to be factual and can be from the perspective of one of the characters. Narrative texts are designed to be read in one sitting, aiming to explain the events of the story sequentially. The narrator's goal is to bring the story to life (Rosyadi, Septyan, & Rohmana,

2023). Descriptive text is a type of writing that details the appearance of things, people, animals, and places, aiming to explain an object in detail. It has two main structures: identification and description. Identification provides an overview of what will be described, while the description elaborates on features, colors, characteristics, and other details. Descriptive text also includes specific language features that set it apart from other text types. It uses specific participants, the simple present tense, adjectives and conjunctions (Rohman & Rizqiya, 2021). Meanwhile, persuasive text is written to influence the reader to take a specific action or adopt a particular point of view. It aims to convince the reader of the author's perspective on an issue. Persuasive writing, whether creative or argumentative, uses carefully chosen words to persuade the reader to agree with the author's viewpoint (Simatupang, 2022). Lastly, an expository paragraph is a style of writing that describes and explains a topic with clear, detailed, and sequential information, aiming to convey information as effectively as possible to the reader. It typically focuses on a single aspect of a subject to enhance the reader's understanding. This is similar to how expository essays and procedural texts are presented in Indonesian. The main purpose of expository writing is to inform readers about specific information or explain a truth using evidence or facts. The text is organized in a particular order to facilitate better comprehension. Characteristics of expository writing include: (1) providing informational comprehension, (2) presenting data and facts that support the explanation, and (3) including some elements of persuasion or solicitation, though to a lesser extent compared to persuasive texts (Sari, 2021).

12.2. HISTORICAL AND CONTEMPORARY PERSPECTIVE OF STYLISTICS

HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

The origins of stylistics trace back to ancient poetics and rhetoric. In classical rhetoric, the third of the five canons is particularly significant for stylistics. The ancient Greeks referred to this canon as '*lexis*', while the Romans called it '*elocutio*'. Today, this concept is known as style (Burke, 2023a). The great classical period of rhetoric and poetics began around the fifth century BC with the onset of democracy in Athens and continued until the fall of the Western Roman Empire. However, the Roman tradition of rhetorical education persisted in the Eastern Roman world until the fall of the Byzantine Empire in the fifteenth century AD. Following the fall of Constantinople, rhetoric gained further prominence in the West, becoming an integral part of the European trivium- the core of academic education, which included grammar, logic, and rhetoric. This system remained largely unchanged through the Renaissance and Early Modern periods, only disappearing from European education in the early nineteenth century (Burke, 2014b). Aristotle is highlighted as the first to systematically approach literary theory with his work, the *Poetics*, focusing on concepts like mimesis (imitation), catharsis (emotional cleansing), and plot structure. Unlike Plato, who critiqued poetry as a threat to truth, Aristotle viewed it as a meaningful art form that benefits society. Meanwhile, Roman theorists Horace and Longinus, emphasizing their contributions to literary aesthetics and criticism. Horace valued decorum and character, while Longinus explored the concept of sublime, a blend of natural talent and rhetorical skill.

Poetic ideas are grounded in rhetoric and the instructional methods used in the rhetorical schools of ancient Greece and

Rome. The English noun ‘rhetoric’ is derived from the Greek word *rhēma* (meaning ‘a word’), which is connected to *rhētor* (‘a teacher of oratory’). Originally, the concept of rhetoric was deeply rooted in language. However, rhetoric also involves structure and strategy. Structure can be viewed on both a macro and micro level. The macro level pertains to the overall arrangement of the rhetorical process, while the micro level refers to the discourse itself, whether spoken or written. The macro level is expressed through the five canons of rhetoric, which are the logical steps in creating a persuasive discourse. These steps are: (1) the discovery or ‘invention’ stage; (2) the arrangement stage; (3) the stylization stage; (4) the memorization stage; (5) the delivery stage (Burke, 2014b). The following table shows the Latin and Greek terms used by several scholars:

Table 12.1. The five canons of rhetoric

No	English term	Meaning	Latin name	Greek name
1	Discovery	Coming up with materials for arguments	*Inventio*	*heúrisis*
2	Arrangement	Ordering your discourse	*Dispositio*	*taxìs*
3	Stylization	Saying/writing things well and in a persuasive manner	*Elocutio*	*Lexis/phrases*
4	Memorization	Strategic remembering	*Memoria*	*mnémé*
5	Delivery	Presenting your ideas	*Pronuncatio / Actio*	*Hupókrisis*

Source: Burke (2023b, p. 21)

The first canon, discovery/invention, is arguably the most important of the five for courses and modules in 'composition' and 'academic writing'. The second canon of rhetoric deals with ordering or arranging the text or its elements. A famous model of discourse presentation, which became highly influential during the Renaissance period, is found in the first-century BC handbook *Rhetorica ad Herennium*. The author of this manual is unknown. According to this manual, there are six distinct parts to speech or written discourse.

Table 12.2. A six-part composition plan from the *Rhetorica ad Herennium*

1	Introduction (*exordium*)	Where you foster goodwill, make your audience receptive and attentive and state your standpoint
2	Background (*narratio*)	Where you set the scene (past facts)
3	Brief list of arguments (*divisio/partitio*)	Where you state your arguments briefly
4	Arguments in favour (*confirmatio*)	Where you put forward your arguments in detail
5	Counter arguments (*confutatio*)	Where you deal with the views of your opponents
6	Conclusion (*peroratio*)	Where you end appropriately (summarizing and employing style figures)

Source: Burke (2023b, p. 23)

The third canon of rhetoric deals with style. This canon has had the greatest influence on the structuring and development of modern-day stylistics. The fourth and fifth canons address the performative aspects of rhetoric, primarily focusing on oral

rather than written production. These canons are memorisation and delivery. Delivery emphasizes intonation, prosody, voice, rhythm, and gesture- elements that Roman orators elevated to an art form.

Rhetoric significantly influences modern stylistics, particularly in foregrounding, relevance theory, and metaphor. Foregrounding, rooted in classical rhetoric, relies on parallelism, repetition, and deviation. Limiting analysis to these terms results in superficial observations. A broader use of rhetorical tools such as schemes and tropes allow for deeper analysis, revealing patterns that support interpretations. Despite rhetoric's importance, it has been neglected in recent stylistics education and research. Reviving rhetoric in stylistics can enhance analysis and innovation. Integrating rhetorical tools is crucial as stylistics advances into creative writing and cognitive neuroscience, enriching the toolkit of modern stylistics.

CONTEMPORARY PERSPECTIVES

Overtime, stylisticians have consistently drawn on the latest insights from linguistics, adopting the most current and practical theories, methods, and frameworks. This has led to the identification of a set of working practices and principles for the field. According to Giovanelli & Harrison (2022) first, stylistics adopts a distinctive methodological stance that aims to be rigorous by drawing on an established set of concepts and tools. It is retrievable, as analyses are presented in an organized and transparent manner using commonly shared terminology rather than idiosyncratic expressions. Additionally, it is replicable, allowing other researchers to apply the same methods to the same text to understand how an interpretation was reached, or to use those methods more broadly on other texts. Stylisticians adopt a pragmatic approach when selecting the most suitable tools for analysis, viewing "eclecticism" as a positive trait. They

always focus on the theories and methods best suited to the task at hand, showcasing flexibility through the wide array of theories and tools utilized by researchers. A significant recent advancement in the field has emerged from cognitive science, particularly cognitive linguistics, which offers revolutionary ways of rethinking the connections between mind, body, and meaning. Stylistics pays close attention to context. While earlier analyses focused on smaller language units, contemporary stylistics now has the means to seriously consider context by incorporating cultural and historical perspectives from traditional literary scholarship and by empirically studying readers' contexts of reception. Stylistics aims to view the reader as more than a theoretical concept, establishing a tradition of examining responses from both general readers and professional academic critics to understand how texts are interpreted and discussed. These studies are fully contextualized, highlighting the various situations where interpretations are shared and meanings negotiated, such as online review sites, reading groups, and educational settings. Responses are analyzed alongside textual features to gain deeper insights into how language influences readers' reactions, verify theoretical accounts of meaning, and explore how interpretative effects are expressed in specific social contexts.

12.3. KEY CONCEPTS IN STYLISTICS

FOREGROUNDING

Foregrounding refers to the perceptual prominence of certain elements against the background of other, less noticeable elements. In a visual and more apparent sense, foregrounding can manifest as a psychological effect created by specific elements within images, which directs the viewer's attention to certain aspects of the image or to themselves. For example, in

poster advertising, foregrounding effects are used by designers to manipulate the size and position of words and objects to guide the observers' focus toward specific features of the product being advertised, while simultaneously diverting attention from potentially unappealing aspects. Key images related to the product, such as smiling faces of supposed users and pictures of the product itself, are prominently displayed as large and central elements on the poster. Conversely, text related to limited product surveys or legal disclaimers, such as 'patent pending' is often included in small print at the bottom of the design, away from the viewer's primary focus (Gregoriou, 2023). Moreover, according to Gregoriou (2023) foregrounding can manifest as what are known in stylistic and rhetorical circles as 'deviation' and 'parallelism'.

'Deviation' or 'deviance' is a somewhat elusive concept that is difficult to define. Definitions that describe deviation as a departure from a 'norm' often face criticisms questioning the clarity of the term 'norm' itself. When a text deviates from norms established outside of it in relation to its context, such deviation can be considered 'external'. In contrast to external deviance, which violates primary norms, internal deviance breaches secondary norms – those established by the text itself. This type of deviance is often based on some form of repetition or parallelism (Gregoriou, 2023).

Parallelism is the straightforward repetition of linguistic elements. Parallelism involves introducing additional regularities rather than irregularities into the language (Leech, 1969, as cited in Gregoriou, 2023). Repetition at the grammar level is referred to as grammatical parallelism, while repetition at the phonological level is known as phonological parallelism. The concept of parallelism, achieved through the patterning of various phonological, lexical, syntactic, graphological, and semantic structures, requires interpretation to understand the

overall organizational pattern used to create the effect. Thus, parallelism can occur at multiple linguistic levels, and sometimes a single item may operate across different levels simultaneously (Baro & Dwivedi, 2020).

Classic linguistic foregrounding analysis is a method that unveils the intricate complexity of language use. Additionally, it helps explain reader reactions to both literary and non-literary texts, making it applicable in diverse contexts and for various purposes. This analysis can be employed in educational settings, such as creative writing classes and general language or literature teaching. It is also valuable in studying or mastering powerful creative language uses, including advertising, journalism, and political oratory (Gregoriou, 2023).

COHESION AND COHERENCE

Cohesion refers to the grammatical and lexical linking within a text that holds it together, while coherence refers to the logical connections that make a text understandable and meaningful. Text coherence is a widely recognized concept. The level of text coherence frequently acts as a criterion for evaluation, whether directly or indirectly, in language learning, language use, and composition. The study of text coherence encompasses the entire process and nearly all aspects of discourse analysis. While coherence is expressed through various cohesive mechanisms, it is not merely a formal feature but a semantic one, manifested as the semantic connections or consistency throughout the text. This semantic connectivity is influenced not by the text's formal and semantic features alone but by external factors, which Halliday (1973) referred to as 'behavioral potential" within a cultural context. These factors relate to the common practices and habits of people sharing the same cultural background and include rules and principles for speaking and writing, such as those governing generic structure

formation. From an individual perspective, these conventionalized social behavioral characteristics can be described as cognitive patterns, including schemas, frameworks, scripts, psychological models, and plans (Delu & Rushan, 2022).

Text coherence, as a semantic concept, must be realized through the formal features of language. However, these linguistic formal features only directly express explicit and presupposed meanings. Implicit meanings, which arise from shared knowledge, cultural background, and situational context, cannot be formally expressed, leading to many "missing links" in the linguistic form. To fill in these gaps, listeners must rely on shared knowledge, sociocultural factors, and situational context to infer implied meanings. A comprehensive analysis of form must be combined with considerations of culture, context, and communicative intention to fully assess text coherence. Formal features that realize text coherence can appear at various levels and ranks within language. These include non-structural and structural cohesive mechanisms at the lexicon-grammatical level, as well as phonological and intonational cohesive mechanisms at the phonological level (Delu & Rushan, 2022). Non-structural cohesive mechanisms refer to the formal mechanisms that link clauses or units of text together. These include lexical and grammatical cohesive mechanisms such as reference, ellipsis, substitution, conjunction, and lexical cohesion (Halliday & Ruqaiya, 1976). Meanwhile, structural cohesive mechanisms refer to the ways grammatical units are connected through semantic ties to create cohesion. These include thematic structures, information structures, transitivity, and mood structures.

In general, Delu & Rushan (2022) argue that the conditions of text coherence can be classified into two categories: "internal conditions" and "external conditions". External conditions

include the context of culture, the context of situation, cognitive models, and thought patterns. These external factors, along with communicative intentions and individual characteristics, regulate the choice of meaning and thus determine the coherence of the text. Internal conditions influence text coherence from the perspective of the text's meaning and cohesive mechanisms.

FIGURATIVE LANGUAGE

Figurative language has consistently been an essential component of literary creations. Figurative language is a literary device that uses figures of speech to be more effective, persuasive, and impactful. These figures of speech go beyond the literal meanings of the words to give readers new insights or to appeal to the senses. In a dichotomous perspective on language, figurative language might be seen as the counterpoint to literal language. While basic differentiation might seem adequate, figurative language actually encompasses more than just a mere deviation from literal usage. In this regard, figurative language involves cognitive processes that create multiple layers of meaning. Consequently, it is important to explore the mechanisms and processes that set figurative language apart from literal language (Reyes & Saldivar, 2022). Abdullayev & Kholbekova (2023) conduct an in-depth analysis of different types of figurative language found in literature. It delves into the importance of metaphors, similes, personification, hyperbole, symbolism, allusion, and irony in enriching the literary experience and investigates how these stylistic devices enhance depth, evoke emotions, create vivid imagery, and contribute to the overall artistry of literary works.

a. METAPHOR

According to Csabi (2023, p. 206) the most common perspectives on metaphor are as follows; (1) metaphor is seen as a linguistic phenomenon, a characteristic of words.

For instance, using the word '*angel*' metaphorically in the sentence *'Sue is an angel*' is a trait of the expression '*angel*'. (2) metaphor is founded on resemblance, a pre-existing similarity between the entities being compared and identified; it is a condensed comparison. Thus, in the sentence *'Sue is an angel*', Sue must have shared some essential qualities with an angel for the metaphor to be effective. (3) metaphor is often employed for artistic and rhetorical purposes, particularly in literature. (4) since metaphor involves the conscious and deliberate use of words, it requires a special talent to use it effectively. Consequently, metaphor is often dominant in literary works. (5) metaphor is used for special effects and is not considered an inevitable part of everyday communication, thought, or reasoning. (6) metaphor is sometimes viewed as a deviant or improper use of words because it is used in place of equivalent literal expressions.

Table 12.3. Examples of metaphor

"Shall I compare thee to a summer's day?" (Sonnet 18) William Shakespeare	In this renowned line, Shakespeare likens the beauty of his beloved to the perfection and vibrancy of a summer's day. The metaphor implies that the person he is addressing is even more beautiful and enduring than the transient beauty of a season.
"Hope is the thing with feathers" (Hope is the thing with feathers)	In this poem, Dickinson employs the metaphor of a bird to symbolize hope. By likening

Emily Dickinson	hope to a bird with feathers, she conveys that hope is delicate yet resilient and ever-present, offering comfort and inspiration
"The fog comes on little cat feet" (Fog) Carl Sandburg	Sanburg uses the metaphor of a cat to depict the silent and gradual arrival of fog. This metaphor captures the quiet, stealthy nature of fog as it envelops its surroundings, enhancing the atmospheric imagery in the poem.

Source: Abdullayev & Kholbekova (2023, p. 157)

b. SIMILE

Similar to a metaphor, a simile involves comparing two distinct objects or ideas using explicit comparative words such as "like" or "as".

Table 12.4. Examples of simile

"*Baba was impossible to ignore, even in his sleep. I used to bury cotton wisps in my ears, pull the blankets over my head, and still the sounds of Baba's snoring, so much* ***like a growling truck engine***" (The Kite Runner, chapter 3, p. 13)	The clause "**like a growling truck engine**" is a simile because it portrays someone as having a strong, imposing personality that always attracts attention, even while he is sleeping. His snoring is so loud and is compared to the sound of a truck engine.

*"Taliban scurried **like a rat into the caves**"* (The Kite Runner, chapter 25, p. 362) Khaled Hosseini	"Like a rat into the caves" describes people of the Taliban who, full of fear, flee to a safe place due to an attack by the Northern Alliance

Source: Indarti, Fikri, & Manar (2023, p. 791)

c. PERSONIFICATION

Personification is the process of attributing human characteristics to an animal, object, or idea. This literary device makes inanimate objects or abstract concepts act like humans. By doing so, personification endows these objects or ideas with human qualities, bringing the narrative to life.

Table 12.5. Examples of personification

"The wind whispered secrets through the trees" (Memories) Lang Leav	In this line, Lang Leav personifies the wind by giving it the ability to whisper secrets. This personification adds a sense of intimacy and mystery, creating a vivid and evocative image.
"The sun kissed the ocean goodnight" (The dark between stars) Atticus	Atticus personifies the sun by describing it as "kissing" the ocean goodnight. This personification endows natural elements with human-like qualities, evoking a sense of tenderness and beauty.

Source: Abdullayev & Kholbekova (2023, p. 160)

d. HYPERBOLE

Hyperbole involves intentional exaggeration for emphasis or dramatic effect. It is used to express something in a way that is more extreme than usual, enhancing the impact of the statement.

Table 12.6. Examples of hyperbole

*"And suddenly Hassan's voice whispered in head: For you **a thousand time over***" (The Kite Runner, chapter 2, p. 5) Khaleed Hosseini	A thousand times over conveys idea of hearing a voice repeatedly
*"But he is always **buried in those books**"* (The Kite Runner, chapter 3, p. 16) Khaleed Hosseini	Buried in those books signifies that the main character has a deep love for reading, indicating that he is thoroughly engrossed in his books.

Source: Indarti, Fikri, & Manar (2023, p. 793)

e. SYMBOLISM

Symbolism employs objects, characters, or events to represent abstract ideas or themes. A symbol signifies something beyond its literal meaning, often conveying deeper or more complex concepts. It functions like a logo, using a familiar word or image to embody a unique and often profound meaning.

Table 12.7. Examples of symbolism

*"D'you want to tell me what's wrong with stopping a massive **snake** biting off Justin's head?" he said. "What does it matter how I*	In the Harry Potter series, snakes symbolize evil, drawing from religious imagery that dates back to the Biblical creation story. Examples of

did it as long as Justin doesn't have to join the Headless Hunt?" *"It matters," said Hermione, speaking at last in a hushed voice, "because being able to talk to* ***snakes*** *was what Salazar Slytherin was famous for. That's why the symbol of Slytherin House is a serpent."* Harry Potter series, by J.K. Rowling (1997-2007)	evil snakes in the stories include Voldemort's snake, Nagini, and the Basilisk.

Source: Luke (2024)

f. ALLUSION

Allusion refers to indirect references to well-known people, events, or literary works. It is a literary device where a writer makes a reference to a familiar person, character, place or event to deepen the readers' understanding of their work.

Table 12.8. Examples of allusion

All overgrown by cunning moss, *All interspersed with weed,* *The little cage of "Currer Bell"* *In quite "Haworth" laid* Emily Dickinson	In this poem, renowned American poet Emily Dickinson references Currer Bell, the pen name of English author Charlotte Bronte, best known for her novel Jane Eyre. Dickinson also mentions the English village of Haworth, where Bronte died and was buried (or "laid", as the poem

	puts it). The quotation marks suggest to the reader that these references (the name and the place) are not just products of Dickinson's imagination. However, one would need to be familiar with Bronte to recognize the connection.

Source: Muniz (2024)

g. IRONY

Irony is the use of words or situations to convey a meaning that is opposite to what is expected. It involves expressing something contrary to the literal or apparent meaning, often highlighting a contrast between expectation and reality.

Table 12.9. Examples of irony

Thank heaven! The crisis, the danger is past, *And the lingering illness is over at last* *And the fever called 'living' is over at last* For Annie by Edgar Allan Poe	In Edgar Allan Poe's "For Annie", the irony is profound. The poem expresses relief that the fever of 'living' has ended. The irony lies in the idea that death is the cure for the chaotic fever of life. Life's hardships are compared to a severe illness, creating a grim irony about living. This verse serves as a haunting reminder of life's complexities and the irony of seeing mortality as a solution to life's ongoing struggles.

Source: Literary Devices (2024)

12.4. CONCLUSION

In summary, the study of stylistics within linguistics offers a profound understanding of how language operates in various textual forms, both literary and non-literary. The exploration of stylistics bridges the gap between linguistic structure and the functional use of language in context, highlighting the intricacies of word choice, sentence construction, figurative language, and sound patterns. This analysis reveals the nuanced ways in which style influences meaning, elicits reader reactions, and reflects the author's personality and voice. Historically, stylistics has its roots in ancient poetics and rhetoric, where classical theories laid the groundwork for modern stylistic analysis. The five canons of rhetoric – discovery, arrangement, style, memorization, and delivery – continue to inform contemporary stylistic practices. These classical foundations emphasize the importance of structure and strategy in both spoken and written discourse, underscoring the enduring relevance of rhetorical principles in modern stylistic studies. Contemporary stylistics, however, has evolved by integrating insights from cognitive science, particularly cognitive linguistics. This interdisciplinary approach has enriched stylistic analysis, allowing researchers to examine the connections between mind, body, and meaning. The focus on context has become more pronounced, with stylistics now considering cultural, historical, and reader-response perspectives. This shift acknowledges the importance of the reader's role in interpreting texts and the social contexts in which these interpretations occur. Key concepts in stylistics, such as foregrounding, cohesion, coherence, and figurative language, are crucial in understanding how texts create meaning and achieve their intended effects. Foregrounding, through parallelism and deviation, highlights significant elements within a text, guiding reader attention and interpretation. Cohesion and coherence

ensure that texts are logically connected and comprehensible, relying on both grammatical and lexical links as well as shared knowledge and cultural context. Figurative language, with its use of metaphors, similes, and other rhetorical devices, adds depth and emotional resonance to texts, enhancing their impact and artistic quality.

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