Penulis
Haris Sunubi

INTRODUCTION TO LINGUISTICS

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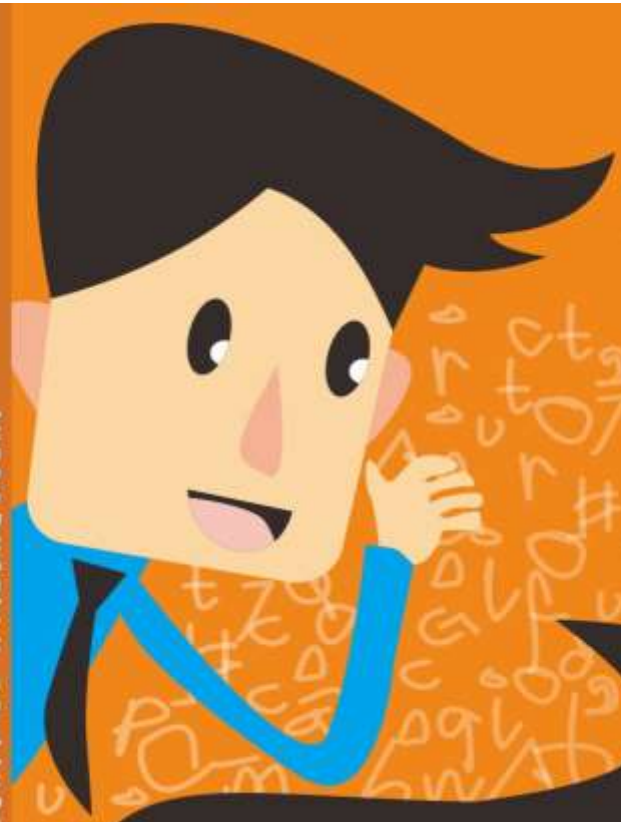

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INTRODUCTION TO LINGUISTICS

Introduction to Linguistics

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Penulis
Abdul Haris Sunubi

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PREFACE

Introduction to linguistic is one the subject for the students of English Program of STAIParepare other Universities in Indonesia.

Meanwhile, textbooks on Introduction to Linguistics are very scarcely available. Due to the fact, the author is motivated to write this book. This books aims at providing the students with basic knoledge of linguistics. By having this knowledge, the students will know what language is, what linguistics is, the division and branches of linguistic and the historical development of Linguistic.

This book is organized into eight Chapters, in Chapter I the historical of linguistic, ancient greek, Ancient Rome,Middle Age. Chapter II, What is Linguistic, describing of Phonology, Syntax, Morphology, Semantic, and Pragmatic. Chapter III. Phonology, what is phonology, phone, phonemic. Chapter IV Morphology, What is Morphology, morphem, Morph, and Alomorph. Chapter V. Syntax,

what is syntax, Phrase, Clause, Sentence.Chapter VI. Semantic, meaning, conotation and denotation. Chapter VII. Pragmatics, Utterance, proposition, Reference,. Chapter VIII. Sociolinguistic, Speech act, Dexis.

Finally, the writer expresses his most propound gratitude to the Almighty God for his mercy and blessing, and to all colleagues who save given invaluable suggestions and correction, so that this book can publish

Parepare, January 7th, 2016

Abdul Haris Sunubi

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The Historical Developments of Linguistic

The historical of Linguistic

1. Ancient Greek

According to Lapalombara (1976: 3), Greek philosophier were interested in the study of linguistic phenomenom since as early as the fourth century B. C. The sstudied language so that they might discover the answer to some great mysteries of the life. Their motives for language study were philosophical rather than practical. They believed that language, in this case the greak language, had been given to humans as a divine gift.

Among the greek philosopher who were concern with the study of language were **Plato, Aristoteles, the Stoics, Dionysious Thrax**. Plato develop his theory of natural logic. In speculating about words and their meaning, he concluded that a given word bears and inherent, natural, and thererefore logical relationship to the thing or concept for which it stands. Believing as he did in the universal " righness" of words, plato concentrated his philosophical attention on the analysis of words and their meaning. He devised what is possibly the first system of classification in the westen wold. His system was based on meaning and had only two word classes : Onoma and rhema. He define that word onoma class as the words indicating the former of an action or that about which something is asserted; words

in the **rhema** class were those words representing the performing of the action or the asserting. These two word classes are equivalent to the noun and verb classes in traditional grammar. Aristoteles, platos most gifted pupil, continoue the investigation of words and their meaning in his own philosophical inquires. Aristoteles' important contribution to language study are among other: (1) he added a third words class called syndesmoll (which is roughly equivalent to the concjuction class in the traditional grammar, Syndesmoi included all words that left into rather of plato's two classes; (2) he made note of certain structural word features, such as the nouns posses case and that verb posses tense, (3) the provided the definition of the term **word** as the smalles meaningful language language unit. This definition is probably the earliest definition and very close to the modern structuralist is definition of **morpheme**

After Aristoteles, the next important work in language study is that of Stoicks inquires **around 300 B.C. the earliest S**toics added one more word clas. That is Articles, to Aristotele's three words classes, so that the words classes became four, namely, articles, noun, verbs, and conjunction. Later Stoics philosopher subdivided words in the noun class into proper and common noun. They also made detailed studies of tense and agreement in verbs and case in noun. They also made detailed studies of tense and agreement in verb and case in nound. According to them, noun posses five cases, Nominative, Accusative, devine, Genetive, and vocative.

2. Ancient Rome

Years later, when the center of Western civilization had shifted from Greece to rome, Greek learning came to imfluence nearly every aspect of cultured romen life, including the study of language. Roman scholars, who wrote their first latin Grammars, follow the earlier Greek

models. This was possible because both Greek and Latin were highly inflected language with many gramatical similarities.

Among the scholars who were interested in the study of language were **Varro, Quintilan, Donatus, and Priscian.** Varro made independent contribution to Gramatical study. Beside the five cases of Greek nouns. Latin noun had an addition case, called the **Abiative,** not found in Gree, Varro was also interested in the old anomalist analogist controversy which had concerned language scholars from the time of Plato' Cratilus. In fact Roman grammarians believed that their sacret study was to depend the purity of Latin from whatever decay the vernacular might impose to correct the corrupt practice which had already taken place, and to standguard againts future language detericcration

3. The Middle Ages

The Medieval period is the longest period in the history of Western Europe. It had lasted for about a thousand years. These years have been characteristerized by historian as one in which scholarship suffered decline and during which few new ideas were generated. The Middle ages scholar called the Medieval period as the dark ages.

To have a better understanding of developments in language study during this period, we should try to get a general impression of the times. The continuing invassion of the Roman armies, which took place over a span of several centuries. Eventually extended the roman enpire over a span of geograpical area reaching from northem Africa to nearly all Western Europe and Endland. The widespred dissemination of Roman culture, custom, laws, religioun, and Latin language was an inevitable result of this expansion. Than the Empire

began slowly to crumble, due to a number of complex reason, among other thing, overestension, decentralization, and traubles at home.

4. The Renaissance

The renaissance period lasted from some time in the late 1400s up to the 17 century. Among the Renaissance Scholars whose work has only recenly received the attention of twentieth century linguist were **Francisco Sanches de las Brocas** or simply **Sanctius,** a 16 century Spanish classical scholar, **Huarte**, a Spanish physician. Minerva (around 1987) was for many years considered the standard work on Latin Grammar. He believed that all language, despited their superfical difference, were simply varied development of single universal set of underlying principle which were common to all human language. Huarte argued that human can be distinguish human from best, the second is generative or creative ability, which make to human been capable of eloquence and which is quite beyond the power best.

What is Linguistic?

Linguistics is the scientific study of language. *Linguists* (people who are specialists in linguistics) do work on specific languages, but their primary goal is to understand the nature of language in general by asking questions such as: …What distinguishes human language from other animal communication systems? …What features are common to all human languages? …How are the modes of linguistic communication (speech, writing, sign language) related to each other? …How is language related to other types of human behavior? …etc.

The main goal of linguistics, like all other intellectual disciplines, is to increase our knowledge and understanding of the world. Since language is universal and fundamental to all human interactions, the knowledge attained in linguistics has many practical applications. Linguists, with some training in other appropriate disciplines, are thus prepared to seek answers to questions such as: …How can a previously unstudied language be analyzed and written? …How can foreign languages best be taught and learned? …How can speech be synthesized on a computer or how can a computer be programmed to understand human speech? …How can the language problems of people with speech abnormalities be analyzed and rectified? …How are linguistic issues in legal matters to be handled? …etc.

1. Definition of Linguistic

Linguistics has also been defined by many linguists. According to Wardhaugh (1972 :213), linguistics is the scientific study of language. Oxford Advance Learner Dictionaries (1980) defines linguistics as the science of language, E.g. of its structure, acquisition, relationship to other forms of communication. Lado (1964:18) state that linguistics is the science the described and classified the language. The linguist identifies and describes the unit and pattern of the sound system, the words and morphemes and the phrases and sentences, that is the structure of language. According to Hartman Dan Stock (1972 :132) linguist is the field of study the subject of which language. Linguist study language as man's ability to communicate, as individual expression, as the cannot heritage of a speech community, as spoken sound, as written test, etc last but not least. Francis (1958: 15) defines linguistics as the scientific study of language.

From the definitions of linguistics given above, we can conclude that linguistic is the scientific study of language, the scientific approach to language means that its investigation through observation that can be proved empirically with reference to general theory of language structure. In linguistic there is no priority of certain speech community, linguistic studies any language. It is structure, uses, and relations to other language. Linguistics also studies how a language develops into dialects, and studies how that language changes from period to period.

2. The Scientific Features of Linguistics

According to Francis (1958:15-17), linguistic as the scientific study of language must comform the following requirements:

First, linguistics must have a subject matter. The subject matter of linguistic is all the system of articulated sound used today by humans in their carrying on of their affairs, that is all living language. It is also include records language that have been used at some time in the past, namely records and magnetic tapes.

Second, Linguistic produce careful objective descriptions. The method of observation used by linguits various, including simple listening, phonetic transcription, and the use of various instruments, such as oscilographs, sound spectograps, and kymograps. Record made in these way constitute various kinds of objective description.

3. The Sub-Fields of Linguistics

Language is a phenomenon with many layers, from the sounds that come out of people's mouths to the meanings that those sounds express. The field of Linguistics is composed of sub-fields, and most professional linguists become specialists in one or more of these sub-fields. The major ones are:

Phonetics: The study of speech sounds themselves. *Phoneticians* study both the production of speech sounds by the human speech organs (*articulatory* phonetics) and the properties of the sounds themselves (*acoustic* phonetics). Phoneticians are concerned with such questions as: …What are the sounds, from among all those that humans could make, that actually exist in the world's languages? …What specially defines different "accents"? …Can speakers be identified by "voiceprints"? ...What are the properties of sounds that would apply in computerized speech synthesis?

Phonology: The study of the organization of language sounds. *Phonologists* are concerned with questions such as: …What

sounds *contrast* in one language but not another (answers to such questions explain why Spanish speakers have trouble with the difference between English *sh* and *ch*, or why English speakers have trouble with the different "u" sounds in French words like rue 'street' and roue 'wheel'.)? …What sounds of a language can or cannot occur one after the other (for example, why can words begin in *st-* in English but not in Spanish)? ...How do poets or writers or song lyrics intuitively know how to match the rhythm of speech to the abstract rhythmic pattern of a poetic or musical meter?

Morphology: The study of word structure. *Morphologists* examine such questions as: …To what extent are ways of forming words "productive" or not (e.g. why do English speakers say *arrival* and *amusement* but not **arrivement* and **amusal*)? …What determines when words change form (for example, why does English have to add *–er* to adjectives when making comparisons, but Hebrew does not add any equivalent)? …How can humans program computers to recognize the "root" of a word separated from its "affixes" (e.g. how could a computer recognize *walk*, *walks*, *walking*, and *walked* as the "same" word)?

Syntax: The study of how linguistic units larger than the word are constructed. *Syntacticians* address such questions as: …How can the number of sentences that speakers can create be infinite in number even though the number of words in any language is finite? …What makes a sentence like *visiting relatives can be boring* ambiguous? …Why would English speakers judge a sentence like *colorless green ideas sleep furiously* to be "grammatical" even though it is nonsensical? …How can languages express the same thoughts even though they construct their sentences in different ways (e.g. Why does English *I saw them there* mean the same thing as French *je*

les y ai vus even though the order of elements in French is *I them there have seen*)? …How can humans program a computer to analyze the structure of sentences?

Semantics: The study of meaning. *Semanticists* answer such questions as: …How do speakers know what words mean (e.g. How does one know where *red* stops and *orange* starts)? ...What is the basis of metaphors (e.g. Why is *my car is a lemon* a "good" metaphor but *my car is a cabbage* is not)? …What makes sentences like *I'm looking for a tall student* or *the student I am looking for must be tall* have more than one meaning? …In a sentence like *I regret that he lied*, how do we know that, in fact, he did lie? …How many meanings can be found in a sentence like *three students read three books* and why do just those meanings exist?

In addition to these basic sub-fields there are a number of "hyphenated" fields of Linguistics, which use the "tools" of the basic fields. Some of these "hyphenated" fields are the following:

Sociolinguistics: This is the study of how Language is used in society, addressing such questions as what makes some dialects more "prestigious" than others, where slang comes from and why it arises, or what happens when two languages come together in "bilingual" communities.

***Psycholinguistics*:** This is the study of how language is processed in the mind, addressing such questions as how we can hear a string of language noises and make sense of them, how children can learn to speak and understand the language of their environment as quickly and effortlessly as they do, or how people with pathological language problems differ from people who have "normal" language.

***Neurolinguistics*:** This is the study of the actual encoding of language in the brain, addressing such questions as what parts of the brain different aspects of language are stored in, how language is actually stored, what goes on physically in the brain when language is processed, or how the brain compensates when certain areas are damaged.

Basic Concepts Phonology

1. Phonology

Phonology is the study of the sound systems in language; studies being what they are, aim to provide us with methods of analysis which in this case means the analysis of spoken utterances which provide us the means to represent them on paper in a way that provides us with a deeper insight into how each language works. The reader who comes to this book with no knowledge of phonology has a double handicap: in the place, the handicap of knowing nothing of phonology (a problem that we hope to do something about quite soon), but at the same time the potential handicap of already knowing rather well an old and not very systematic method of analyzing the sounds of English and representing them on paper: standard, written English, which we call English orthography (I will use that term as a synonym for spelling).It would be pointless for me to ask of you to turn o_ your knowledge of English orthography as you enter into the arena of phonology, for we can no sooner turn o_ that knowledge than we could turn o_ our ability to maintain our balance as we walk down the sidewalk. All we can do is take our knowledge of written English and try to step back from it; we can try to open our ears and really listen to what it is that

The term phonology can be used in the wide sense of the word. When used in this way, phonology covers phonetic and phonemics.

This accord with what Francis (1958:30-31) says that phonology is covers term embracing phonetics and phonemics. This also in accord with what Akmajan, Denners, dan Harmish (1984:99) says that phonology is a sub field of linguistic that studied the structure and systematic patterning of sound in human language. Part of the phonology involves an investigation of how speech sound are produce (articulated), in the vocal tract (an area known as acoustic phonetic) as well as the study of the physical properties of sound, the term phonology is often used to refer to the abstract rules and principles that govern the distribution of sound in a language. In the narrow of word, phonology refers to phonemic, that is, the branch of linguistic which studies the ways in which speech sound form systems and pattern in human language (Fronking & Rodman:71)

2. Phonetics

According To Cristal (1980), Phonetic is the science which studies the characteristic of human sound making, especially those sound in speech, provide method for the description classification and transcription. Three brance of the subject are generally recognized (1) articulatory Phonetic is the study of the way speech sound are made (articulated) by the vocal groups (2) acoustic phonetic studies the physical properties of speech sound, as transmitted between mouth and ear.(3) auditory phonetic study the perceptual response to speech sound, as mediated by ear, auditory nerve and brain. According to O Grady & Dobrovolsky (1989:13) phonetics is the study of the inventory and structure of the sound of language.

Phonetics The study of speech sounds themselves. *Phoneticians* study both the production of speech sounds by the human speech organs (*articulatory* phonetics) and the properties of the sounds themselves (*acoustic* phonetics). Phoneticians are

concerned with such questions as: …What are the sounds, from among all those that humans could make, that actually exist in the world's languages? …What specially defines different "accents"? …Can speakers be identified by "voiceprints"? ...What are the properties of sounds that would apply in computerized speech synthesis?

3. Phonemics

Francis (1958:30) defines phonetics as branch of linguistic whose subject is the organization of phones (sounds) into groups or families called phonemes whose members are the significant sound of speech. According to Pike (1968:246), phonemics is the study of the structural arrangement of sound segment in relation to units of sound in particular language, procedure for the finding of the phonemes of a language, the theoretical problems concern with the setting up of phonetic postulated.

4. Phonem, Phoneme, And Allophone

Concernng the distintion between these three concept, Crystal (1980:265) states that phone

Place of Articulation

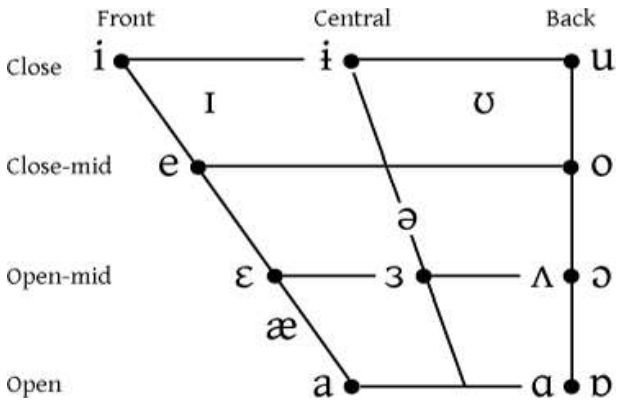
Manner of Articulation	Bilabial		Labio dental		Inter dental		Alveolar		Alveo-palatal		Palatal		Velar		Glottal	
Stop	p	b					t	d					k	g	ʔ	
Fricative			f	v	θ	ð	s	z	ʃ	ʒ					h	
Affricate									tʃ	dʒ						
Nasal		m						n						ŋ		
Lateral Approximant								l								
Retroflex Approximant								ɹ								
Glide	ɯ	w										j				

State of the Glottis

Voiceless	Voiced

English Consonants

		bilabial	labio-dental	inter-dental	alveolar	palatal	velar	glottal
stops	voiceless	p			t		k	ʔ
	voiced	b			d		g	
affricates	voiceless					ʧ		
	voiced					ʤ		
fricatives	voiceless		f	θ	s	ʃ	h	
	voiced		v	ð	z	ʒ		
nasals		m			n		ŋ	
Liquids	lateral				l			
	flap				ɾ			
	retroflex					ɹ		
semivowels		w				y		



a. Most varieties of English have syllabic consonants in some words, principally [l̩, m̩, n̩], for example at the end of *bottle*, *rhythm* and *button*. In such cases, no phonetic vowel is pronounced between the last two consonants. It is common for syllabic consonants to be transcribed with a subscript mark, so that phonetic transcription of *bottle* would be [ˈbɒtl̩] and for *button* [ˈbʌtn̩]. In theory, such consonants could be analysed as individual phonemes. However, this

would add several extra consonant phonemes to the inventory for English,[1] and phonologists prefer to identify syllabic nasals and liquids phonemically as /əC/.[2][3] Thus *button* is phonemically /ˈbʌtən/ and 'bottle' is phonemically /ˈbɒtəl/.

b. The voiceless velar fricative /x/ is mainly used in Scottish and Hiberno-English; words with /x/ in Scottish accents tend to be pronounced with /k/ in other dialects. The velar fricative sometimes appears in recent loanwords such as *chutzpah*. Many speakers of White South African English realize /x/ as uvular [χ].[4]

c. In some conservative accents in Scotland, Ireland, the southern United States, and New England, the digraph ⟨wh⟩ in words like *which* and *whine* represents a voiceless *w* sound [ʍ], a voiceless labiovelar fricative[5][6][7] or approximant,[8] which contrasts with the voiced *w* of *witch* and *wine*. In most dialects, this sound is lost, and is pronounced as a voiced *w* (the *wine–whine* merger). Phonemically this sound is analysed as a consonant cluster /hw/, rather than as a separate phoneme */ʍ/. Thus *which* and *whine* are transcribed phonemically as /hwɪʧ/ and /hwaɪn/. This does not mean that such speakers actually pronounce [h] followed by [w]: the phonemic transcription /hw/ is simply a convenient way of representing a single sound [ʍ] without analysing such dialects as having an extra phoneme.[9]

d. Similarly, the sound at the beginning of *huge* in most accents is a voiceless palatal fricative [ç], but this is analysed phonemically as the consonant cluster /hj/ so that *huge* is transcribed /hjuːdʒ/. As with /hw/, this does not mean that speakers pronounce [h] followed by [j]; the phonemic transcription /hj/ is simply a convenient way of representing the single sound [ç].[9] The *yod*-dropping found in Norfolk dialect means that the traditional Norfolk pronunciation of *huge* is [hʊudʒ] and not [çuːdʒ].

e. This phoneme is conventionally transcribed with ⟨r⟩ (the IPA symbol for the alveolar trill), even though its pronunciation is usually a postalveolar approximant; it is often slightly labialized: [ɹʷ]. For other realizations of /r/, see below. In non-rhotic accents, such as Received Pronunciation and Australian English, /r/ is subject to the phonotactic constraint that it can only appear before a vowel.

Consonant examples

The following table shows typical examples of the occurrence of the above consonant phonemes in words.

/m/	**M**ap		
/n/	Kee**n**		
/ŋ/	Ki**ng**		
/p/	**P**it	/b/	**B**it
/t/	**T**in	/d/	**D**in
/k/	**C**ut	/ɡ/	**G**ut
/tʃ/	**Ch**eap	/dʒ/	**J**eep
/f/	**F**at	/v/	**V**at
/θ/	**Th**igh	/ð/	**Th**y
/s/	**S**ap	/z/	**Z**ap
/ʃ/	Dilu**ti**on	/ʒ/	Delu**si**on
/x/	Lo**ch**		
/h/	**H**am		
/r/	**R**un		
/j/	**Y**es		
/w/	**W**e		
/l/	**L**eft		

Although regional variation is very great across English dialects, certain patterns of allophony can be observed in the vast majority of English accents. (See also Allophones of vowels below.)

Sonorants

Received Pronunciation has two main allophones of /l/: the clear or plain [l], and the dark or velarized [ɬ]. The clear variant is used before vowels when they are in the same syllable, and the dark variant when the /l/ precedes a consonant or is in syllable-final position before silence.

- In Wales, Ireland, and the Caribbean, /l/ is always clear, and in Scotland, Australia, New Zealand and Canada it is always dark.
- In General American, /l/ is generally dark, but to varying degrees: before stressed vowels it is neutral or only slightly velarized.[10] In southern U.S. accents it is noticeably clear between vowels, and in some other positions.[11]
- In Southern England, New Zealand, and some parts of the United States, /l/ can be pronounced as an approximant or semivowel ([w], [o], [ʊ]) at the end of a syllable (/l/-vocalization).

Depending on dialect, /r/ has at least the following allophones in varieties of English around the world:

- alveolar or postalveolar approximant [ɹ]
- retroflex approximant [ɻ]
- labiodental approximant [ʋ]
- alveolar flap [ɾ]
- postalveolar flap [ɽ]
- alveolar trill [r]
- voiced uvular fricative [ʁ] (the Northumbrian burr)

In some rhotic accents, such as General American, /r/ when not followed by a vowel is realized as an r-coloring of the preceding vowel or its coda: *nurse* [ˈnɜ˞s], *butter* [ˈbʌtə˞].

For many speakers, /r/ is somewhat labialized, as in *reed* [ɹʷiːd] and *tree* [tʰɹ̥ʷiː]. In the latter case, the [t] may be slightly labialized as well.[12]

The distinctions between the nasals are neutralized in some environments. For example, before a final /p/, /t/ or /k/ there is nearly always only one nasal sound that can appear in each case: [m], [n] or [ŋ] respectively (as in the words *limp*, *lint*, *link* – note that the *n* of *link* is pronounced [ŋ]). This effect can even occur across syllable or word boundaries, particularly in stressed syllables: *synchrony* is pronounced [ˈsɪŋkɹəni] whereas *synchronic* may be pronounced either as [sɪŋˈkɹɒnɨk] or as [sɪnˈkɹɒnɨk]. For other possible syllable-final combinations, see Coda in the Phonotactics section below.

Phonotics

Phonotactics is the study of the sequences of phonemes that occur in languages and the sound structures that they form. In this study it is usual to represent consonants in general with the letter C and vowels with the letter V, so that a syllable such as 'be' is described as having CV structure. The IPA symbol used to show a division between syllables is the dot [.]. Syllabification is the process of dividing continuous speech into discrete syllables, a process in which the position of a syllable division is not always easy to decide upon.

Most languages of the world syllabify CVCV and CVCCV sequences as /CV.CV/ and /CVC.CV/ or /CV.CCV/, with consonants preferentially acting as the onset of a syllable containing the following

vowel. According to one view, English is unusual in this regard, in that stressed syllables attract following consonants, so that ˈCVCV and ˈCVCCV syllabify as /ˈCVC.V/ and /ˈCVCC.V/, as long as the consonant cluster CC is a possible syllable coda; in addition, /r/ preferentially syllabifies with the preceding vowel even when both syllables are unstressed, so that CVrV occurs as /CVr.V/. This is the analysis used in the *Longman Pronunciation Dictionary*.[46] However, this view is not widely accepted, as explained in the following section.

Syllable structure

The syllable structure in English is $(C)^{3}V(C)^{5}$, with a near maximal example being *strengths* (/strɛŋkθs/, although it can be pronounced /strɛŋθs/).[47] From the phonetic point of view, the analysis of syllable structures is a complex task: because of widespread occurrences of articulatory overlap, English speakers rarely produce an audible release of individual consonants in consonant clusters.[48] This coarticulation can lead to articulatory gestures that seem very much like deletions or complete assimilations. For example, *hundred pounds* may sound like [hʌndɹɪb pʰaʊndz] and 'jumped back' (in slow speech, [dʒʌmptbæk]) may sound like [dʒʌmpbæk], but X-ray and electropalatographic studies demonstrate that inaudible and possibly weakened contacts or lingual gestures may still be made. Thus the second /d/ in *hundred pounds* does not entirely assimilate to a labial place of articulation, rather the labial gesture co-occurs with the alveolar one; the "missing" [t] in 'jumped back' may still be articulated, though not heard.

Division into syllables is a difficult area, and different theories have been proposed. A widely accepted approach is the maximal onsets principle:[53] this states that, subject to certain constraints, any

consonants in between vowels should be assigned to the following syllable. Thus the word 'leaving' should be divided /ˈliː.vɪŋ/ rather than */ˈliːv.ɪŋ/, and 'hasty' is /ˈheɪ.sti/ rather than */ˈheɪs.ti/ or */ˈheɪst.i/. However, when such a division results in an onset cluster which is not allowed in English, the division must respect this. Thus if the word 'extra' were divided */ˈe.kstrə/ the resulting onset of the second syllable would be /kstr/, a cluster which does not occur in English. The division /ˈek.strə/ is therefore preferred. If assigning a consonant or consonants to the following syllable would result in the preceding syllable ending in an unreduced short vowel, this is avoided. Thus the word 'comma' should be divided /ˈkɒm.ə/ and not */ˈkɒ.mə/, even though the latter division gives the maximal onset to the following syllable, because English syllables do not end in /ɒ/.

In some cases, no solution is completely satisfactory: for example, in British English (RP) the word 'hurry' could be divided /ˈhʌ.ri/ or /ˈhʌr.i/, but the former would result in an analysis with a syllable-final /ʌ/ (which is held to be non-occurring) while the latter would result in a syllable final /r/ (which is said not to occur in this accent). Some phonologists have suggested a compromise analysis where the consonant in the middle belongs to both syllables, and is described as ambisyllabic.[54][55] In this way, it is possible to suggest an analysis of 'hurry' which comprises the syllables /hʌr/ and /ri/, the medial /r/ being ambisyllabic. Where the division coincides with a word boundary, or the boundary between elements of a compound word, it is not usual in the case of dictionaries to insist on the maximal onsets principle in a way that divides words in a counter-intuitive way; thus the word 'hardware' would be divided /ˈhɑː.dweə/ by the M.O.P., but dictionaries prefer the division /ˈhɑːd.weə/.

In the approach used by the *Longman Pronunciation Dictionary*, Wells claims that consonants syllabify with the preceding rather than following vowel when the preceding vowel is the nucleus of a more salient syllable, with stressed syllables being the most salient, reduced syllables the least, and full unstressed vowels ("secondary stress") intermediate. But there are lexical differences as well, frequently but not exclusively with compound words. For example, in *dolphin* and *selfish,* Wells argues that the stressed syllable ends in /lf/, but in *shellfish,* the /f/ belongs with the following syllable: /ˈdɒlf.ɪn/, /ˈself.ɪʃ/ → [ˈdɒɬfɨn], [ˈseɬfɨʃ], but /ˈʃel.fɪʃ/ → [ˈʃeɬˑfɪʃ], where the /l/ is a little longer and the /ɪ/ is not reduced. Similarly, in *toe-strap* Wells argues that the second /t/ is a full plosive, as usual in syllable onset, whereas in *toast-rack* the second /t/ is in many dialects reduced to the unreleased allophone it takes in syllable codas, or even elided: /ˈtoʊ.stræp/, /ˈtoʊst.ræk/ → [ˈtʰoˑʊstɹæp], [ˈtʰoʊs(t̄)ɹʷæk]; likewise *nitrate* /ˈnaɪ.treɪt/ → [ˈnʌɪtu̯ʷeɪt] with a voiceless /r/ (and for some people an affricated *tr* as in *tree*), vs *night-rate* /ˈnaɪt.reɪt/ → [ˈnʌɪt̄ʷeɪt] with a voiced /r/. Cues of syllable boundaries include aspiration of syllable onsets and (in the US) flapping of coda /t, d/ *(a tease* /əˈtiːz/ → [əˈtʰiːz] vs. *at ease* /æt.ˈiːz/ → [ærˈiːz]), epenthetic stops like [t] in syllable codas *(fence* /ˈfens/ → [ˈfents] but *inside* /ɪn.ˈsaɪd/ → [ɪnˈsaɪd]), and r-colored vowels when the /r/ is in the coda vs. labialization when it is in the onset *(key-ring* /ˈkiː.rɪŋ/ → [ˈkʰiːɹʷɪŋ] but *fearing* /ˈfiːr.ɪŋ/ → [ˈfɪəɹɪŋ]).

Onset

The following can occur as the onset:

All single consonant phonemes except /ŋ/	
Stop plus approximant other than /j/: /pl/, /bl/, /kl/, /ɡl/, /pr/, /br/, /tr/,[1] /dr/,[1] /kr/, /ɡr/, /tw/, /dw/, /ɡw/, /kw/, /pw/	play, blood, clean, glove, prize, bring, tree,[1] dream,[1] crowd, green, twin, dwarf, language, quick, puissance
Voiceless fricative plus approximant other than /j/:[2] /fl/, /sl/, /θl/,[3] /fr/, /θr/, /ʃr/, /hw/,[4] /sw/, /θw/, /vw/	floor, sleep, thlipsis,[3] friend, three, shrimp, what,[4] swing, thwart, reservoir
Consonant plus /j/ (before /uː/ or /ʊr/): /pj/, /bj/, /tj/,[5] /dj/,[5] /kj/, /ɡj/, /mj/, /nj/,[5] /fj/, /vj/, /θj/,[5] /sj/,[5] /zj/,[5] /hj/, /lj/	pure, beautiful, tube,[5] during,[5] cute, argue, music, new,[5] few, view, thew,[5] suit,[5] Zeus,[5] huge, lurid[5]
/s/ plus voiceless stop:[6] /sp/, /st/, /sk/	speak, stop, skill
/s/ plus nasal other than /ŋ/:[6] /sm/, /sn/	smile, snow
/s/ plus voiceless fricative:[3] /sf/, /sθ/	sphere, sthenic

/s/ plus voiceless stop plus approximant:[6] /spl/, /skl/,[3] /spr/, /str/, /skr/, /skw/, /smj/, /spj/, /stj/,[5] /skj/	split, sclera, spring, street, scream, square, smew, spew, student,[5] skewer
/s/ plus voiceless fricative plus approximant:[3] /sfr/	Sphragistics

Notes:

a. For a number of speakers, /tr/ and /dr/ tend to affricate, so that *tree* resembles "chree", and *dream* resembles "jream".[59][60][61] This is sometimes transcribed as [tʃr] and [dʒr] respectively, but the pronunciation varies and may, for example, be closer to [tʂ] and [dʐ][62] or with a fricative release similar in quality to the rhotic, i.e. [t̪ˌ̪ɹ̝̊], [d̪ˌ̪ɹ̝], or [tʂɻ̝], [dʐɻ̝].

b. In some dialects, especially Shetlandic English, /wr/ (rather than /r/) occurs in words beginning in wr- (*write, wrong, wren,* etc.).[*citation needed*]

c. Words beginning in unusual consonant clusters that originated in Latinized Greek loanwords tend to drop the first phoneme, as in */bd/, */fθ/, */ɡn/, */hr/, */kn/, */ks/, */kt/, */kθ/, */mn/, */pn/, */ps/, */pt/, */tm/, and */θm/, which have become /d/ (*bdellium*), /θ/ (*phthisis*), /n/ (*gnome*), /r/ (*rhythm*), /n/ (*cnidoblast*), /z/ (*xylophone*), /t/ (*ctenophore*), /θ/ (*chthonic*), /n/ (*mnemonic*), /n/ (*pneumonia*), /s/ (*psychology*), /t/ (*pterodactyl*), /m/ (*tmesis*), and /m/ (*asthma*). However, the onsets /sf/, /sfr/, /skl/, /sθ/, and /θl/ have remained intact.

d. The onset /hw/ is simplified to /w/ in many dialects (wine–whine merger).

e. There is an on-going sound change (yod-dropping) by which /j/ as the final consonant in a cluster is being lost. In RP, words with /sj/ and /lj/ can usually be pronounced with or without this sound, e.g. [suːt] or [sjuːt]. For some speakers of English, including some British speakers, the sound change is more advanced and so, for example, **General American** does not contain the onsets /tj/, /dj/, /nj/, /θj/, /sj/, /stj/, /zj/, or /lj/. Words that would otherwise begin in these onsets drop the /j/: e.g. tube (/tuːb/), during (/ˈdʊrɪŋ/), new (/nuː/), Thule (/ˈθuːliː/), suit (/suːt/), student (/ˈstuːdənt/), Zeus (/zuːs/), lurid (/ˈlʊrɪd/). In some dialects, such Welsh English, /j/ may occur in more combinations; for example in /tʃj/ (*chew*), /dʒj/ (*Jew*), /ʃj/ (*sure*), and /slj/ (*slew*).

f. Many clusters beginning with /ʃ/ and paralleling native clusters beginning with /s/ are found initially in German and Yiddish loanwords, such as /ʃl/, /ʃp/, /ʃt/, /ʃm/, /ʃn/, /ʃpr/, /ʃtr/ (in words such as *schlep, spiel, shtick, schmuck, schnapps, Shprintzen's, strudel).* /ʃw/ is found initially in the Hebrew loanword schwa. Before /r/ however, the native cluster is /ʃr/. The opposite cluster /sr/ is found in loanwords such as *Sri Lanka*, but this can be nativized by changing it to /ʃr/.

Other onsets

Certain English onsets appear only in contractions: e.g. /zbl/ (*'sblood*), and /zw/ or /dzw/ (*'swounds* or *'dswounds*). Some, such as /pʃ/ (*pshaw*), /fw/ (*fwoosh*), or /vr/ (*vroom*), can occur in interjections. An archaic voiceless fricative plus nasal exists, /fn/ (*fnese*), as does an archaic /snj/ (*snew*).

A few other onsets occur in further (anglicized) loan words, including /bw/ (*bwana*), /mw/ (*moiré*), /nw/ (*noire*), /zw/ (*zwieback*), /kv/ (*kvetch*), /ʃv/ (*schvartze*), /tv/ (*Tver*), /vl/ (*Vladimir*), and /zl/ (*zloty*).

Some clusters of this type can be converted to regular English phonotactics by simplifying the cluster: e.g. /(d)z/ (*dziggetai*), /(h)r/ (*Hrolf*), /kr(w)/ (*croissant*), /(p)f/ (*pfennig*), /(f)θ/ (*phthalic*), and /(t)s/ (*tsunami*).

Others can be replaced by native clusters differing only in voice: /zb ~ sp/ (*sbirro*), and /zgr ~ skr/ (*sgraffito*).

Nucleus

The following can occur as the nucleus:

- All vowel sounds
- /m/, /n/ and /l/ in certain situations (see below under word-level rules)
- /r/ in rhotic varieties of English (e.g. General American) in certain situations (see below under word-level rules)

Coda

Most (in theory, all) of the following except those that end with /s/, /z/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/, /tʃ/ or /dʒ/ can be extended with /s/ or /z/ representing the morpheme -s/-z. Similarly, most (in theory, all) the following except those that end with /t/ or /d/ can be extended with /t/ or /d/ representing the morpheme -t/-d.

Wells (1990) argues that a variety of syllable codas are possible in English, even /ntr, ndr/ in words like *entry* /ˈɛntr.ɪ/ and *sundry* /ˈsʌndr.ɪ/, with /tr, dr/ being treated as affricates along the lines of /tʃ, dʒ/. He argues that the traditional assumption that pre-

vocalic consonants form a syllable with the following vowel is due to the influence of languages like French and Latin, where syllable structure is CVC.CVC regardless of stress placement. Disregarding such contentious cases, which do not occur at the ends of words, the following sequences can occur as the coda:

The single consonant phonemes except /h/, /w/, /j/ and, in non-rhotic varieties, /r/	
Lateral approximant plus stop or affricate: /lp/, /lb/, /lt/, /ld/, /ltʃ/, /ldʒ/, /lk/	help, bulb, belt, hold, belch, indulge, milk
In rhotic varieties, /r/ plus stop or affricate: /rp/, /rb/, /rt/, /rd/, /rtʃ/, /rdʒ/, /rk/, /rg/	harp, orb, fort, beard, arch, large, mark, morgue
Lateral approximant + fricative: /lf/, /lv/, /lθ/, /ls/, /lʃ/	golf, solve, wealth, else, Welsh
In rhotic varieties, /r/ + fricative: /rf/, /rv/, /rθ/, /rs/, /rz/, /rʃ/	dwarf, carve, north, force, Mars, marsh
Lateral approximant + nasal: /lm/, /ln/	film, kiln
In rhotic varieties, /r/ + nasal or lateral: /rm/, /rn/, /rl/	arm, born, snarl
Nasal + homorganic stop or affricate: /mp/, /nt/, /nd/, /ntʃ/, /ndʒ/, /ŋk/	jump, tent, end, lunch, lounge, pink
Nasal + fricative: /mf/, /mθ/, /nθ/, /ns/, /nz/, /ŋθ/ in some varieties	triumph, warmth, month, prince, bronze, length
Voiceless fricative plus voiceless stop: /ft/, /sp/, /st/, /sk/	left, crisp, lost, ask
Two voiceless fricatives: /fθ/	fifth
Two voiceless stops: /pt/, /kt/	opt, act

Stop plus voiceless fricative: /pθ/, /ps/, /tθ/, /ts/, /dθ/, /ks/	depth, lapse, eighth, klutz, width, box
Lateral approximant + two consonants: /lpt/, /lfθ/, /lts/, /lst/, /lkt/, /lks/	sculpt, twelfth, waltz, whilst, mulct, calx
In rhotic varieties, /r/ + two consonants: /rmθ/, /rpt/, /rps/, /rts/, /rst/, /rkt/	warmth, excerpt, corpse, quartz, horst, infarct
Nasal + homorganic stop + stop or fricative: /mpt/, /mps/, /ndθ/, /ŋkt/, /ŋks/, /ŋkθ/ in some varieties	prompt, glimpse, thousandth, distinct, jinx, length
Three obstruents: /ksθ/, /kst/	sixth, next

Note:

For some speakers, a fricative before /θ/ is elided so that these never appear phonetically: /fɪfθ/ becomes [fɪθ], /sɪksθ/ becomes [sɪkθ],[*who?*] /twɛlfθ/ becomes [twɛɬθ].

Syllable-level rules

- Both the onset and the coda are optional
- /j/ at the end of an onset cluster (/pj/, /bj/, /tj/, /dj/, /kj/, /fj/, /vj/, /θj/, /sj/, /zj/, /hj/, /mj/, /nj/, /lj/, /spj/, /stj/, /skj/) must be followed by /uː/ or /ʊə/
- Long vowels and diphthongs are not found before /ŋ/ except for the mimetic words *boing* and *oink*[63]
- /ʊ/ is rare in syllable-initial position[64] (although, in the northern half of England, [ʊ] is used for /ʌ/ and is common at the start of syllables)
- Stop + /w/ before /uː, ʊ, ʌ, aʊ/ (all presently or historically /u(ː)/) are excluded[65]

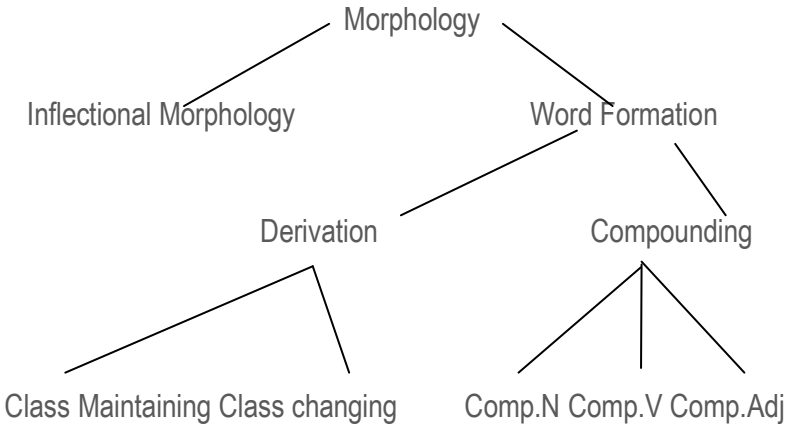
- Sequences of /s/ + C_1 + V˘ + C_1, where C_1 is a consonant other than /t/ and V˘ is a short vowel, are virtually nonexistent[65]
- The distinction between "long" and "short" vowels is conflated before /ŋ/, the only vowels that occur before /ŋ/ in native words being /ɪ æ ʌ ɒ/ (as in *sing sang sung song*), plus /ɛ ʊ/ in assimilated non-native words such as ginseng and Sung (Dynasty), /ɔɪ/ in the mimetic words *boing* and *oink*, and /aʊ/ in a few proper names such as Taung.

Morphology

The term *morphology* is Greek and is a makeup of *morph-* meaning 'shape, form', and *-ology* which means 'the study of something'. The term is used not only in linguistics but also in biology as the scientific study of forms and structure of animals and plants, and in geology as the study of formation and evolution of rocks and land forms. We are going to stick to morphology in linguistics, as the scientific study of forms and structure of words in a language. Morphology as a sub-discipline of linguistics was named for the first time in 1859 by the German linguist August Schleicher who used the term for the study of the form of words.[2] Today morphology forms a core part of linguistics.

According to Cristal (1980:232-233), Morphology is a branch of grammar that studies the structure or the form of words, particularly through the use of morpheme, in generally, morphology is divided into two fields. The study of **inflectional (inflectional morphology), and the study of word formation (lexical or derivational morphology)** if the emphasis is on technique of analyzing words into morpheme, especially as practice by American structural Linguist in the 1940 and 1950. According to Bauer (1983:33), morphology studies the internal structure of word form. In morphology, the analysis divides word form into constituent form natives (most of which are morphs in the form of roots or affixes), and attempts to explain the occurrence of each formative morphology can be divide into two main branches, namely,

inflectional morphology and word formation (also called lexical morphology), inflectional morphology studies various form of lexeme, while word formation new lexemes from certain bases. Word formation can be further divided derivation and compounding (composition) derivation is concerned with the formation of new lexemes through affixation, while com pounding is concerned with the formation of new lexemes from two or more potential stems. Derivation can also sometimes to be divided into class maintaining derivation and class changing derivation. Class maintaining derivation is the derivation of new lexeme whose class is the same as base from which the lexeme is formed, while class changing derivation produce lexemes whose class is different from its base. Compounding is usually divided according to the class or category of words of the compound words that are produce into compound noun, compound verb, compound adjective. To make it clear, the summary of morphology is given below in the form of diagrams.



1. The Internal Structure of Words

If morphology is the study of the internal structure of words, we need to define the word *word* before we can continue. That might sound easy - surely we all know what a word is. In texts they are particularly easy to spot since they are divided by white spaces. But how do we identify words in speech? A reliable definition of *words* is that they are the smallest independent units of language. They are independent in that they do not depend on other words which means that they can be separated from other units and can change position. Consider the sentence: ***The man looked at the horses.***

The plural ending *–s* in *horses* is dependent on the noun *horse* to receive meaning and can therefore not be a word. *Horses* however, is a word, as it can occur in other positions in the sentence or stand on it sown: ***The horses looked at the man. - What is the man looking at? - Horses.*** Words are thus both independent since they can be separated from other words and move around in sentences, and the smallest units of language since they are the only units of language for which this is possible.

Cristal (1980:283-285) state that words is utterance unit which has a universal intuitive recognition by the native speaker, either in spoken language or written language. But there are some difficulties to reach the consistent use of the term in terms of other categories of linguistic description and in the comparison with other language which have a different structural typed. This problems is related to the identification and definition of word.

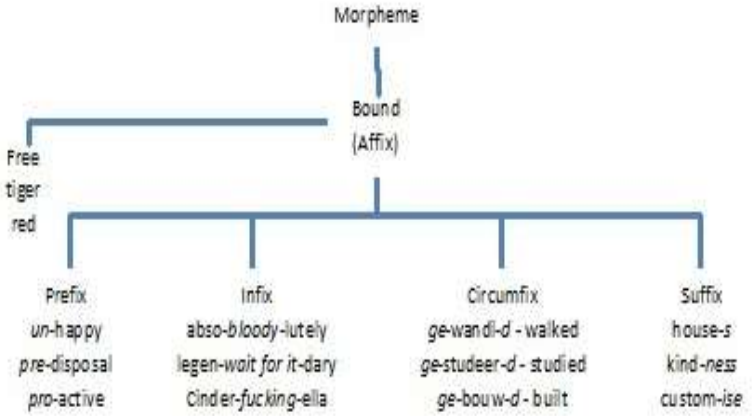
2. Morphemes

Although words are the smallest *independent* units of language, they have an internal structure and are built up by even smaller

pieces. There are **simple** words that don't have an internal structure and only consist of one piece, like *work.* There is no way we can divide work (wo-rk?) into smaller parts that carry meaning or function. **Complex** words however, do have an internal structure and consist of two or more pieces. Consider *worker,* where the ending –*er* is added to the **root** *work* to make it into a noun meaning *someone who works.* These pieces are called **morphemes** and are the smallest *meaning-bearing* units of language.[4]

We said that words are independent forms, and a simple word only consisting of one single morpheme is therefore a **free** morpheme, that is, it is a word itself. Examples are *house, work, high, us and to.* Morphemes that must be attached to another morpheme to receive meaning are **bound** morphemes. If we break the word *unkindness* into its three morphemes *un-, kind* and *-ness*, we get two examples of bound morphemes: un- and -ness, as they require the root *kind* to make up a word. These are also called **affixes** as they are attached to the stem. The affix un- that go to the front of a word is a **prefix** and -ness that goes to the end is a **suffix**.

There are also **infixes** and **circumfixes**, although they are not very common in English. We mostly see infixes as curse words integrated in morphemes like the ones you can see below[5], or like the example from the American sitcom you can see below. A circumfix is a morpheme that attaches to the front *and* the back of a word, as you can see in the examples of Dutch past tense below:

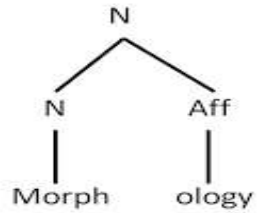


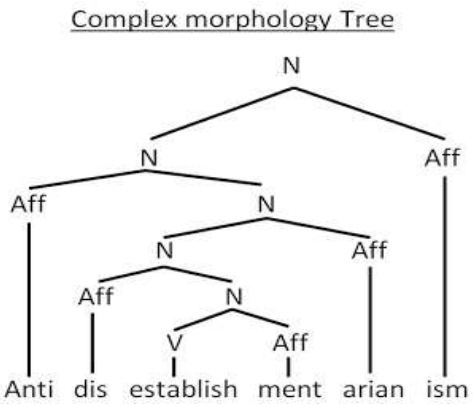
The graphic shows free and bound morphemes according to positions

Drawing Morphology Trees

In order to show the internal structure of a word, we draw morphology trees. The following pictures demonstrate a simple morphology tree and a complex morphology tree:

Simple morphology tree





3. Words and Morphemes

What is word? O' Grady and Dobrovosky (1989:90-91) state that the word is the best defined in term of the way in which it patterns syntactically. In this way, the word can be defined as a minimal free form. A frase form is an element tha can occur in isolation and or whose position with respect to neigboring elements is not fix.

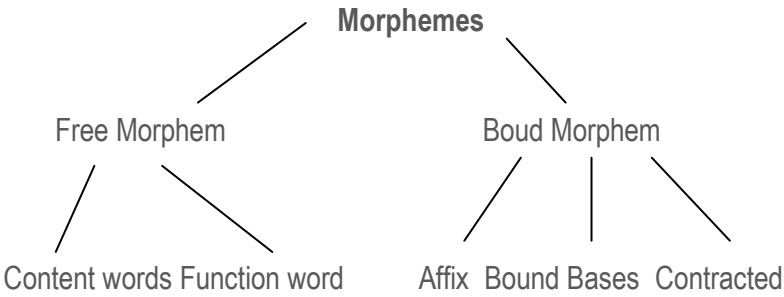
Words though they may be definable as minimal free forms, arre not minimal meaningful units of language we are looking for, since they are often broken down futher. In linguistic, these minimal units are called morphemes. A words may consist of one or more morpheme. The word fried. For example, only consist of two morphemes, and the words friendliness consisit of three morphemes.

4. Kinds of Morpheme : Bound Versus Free

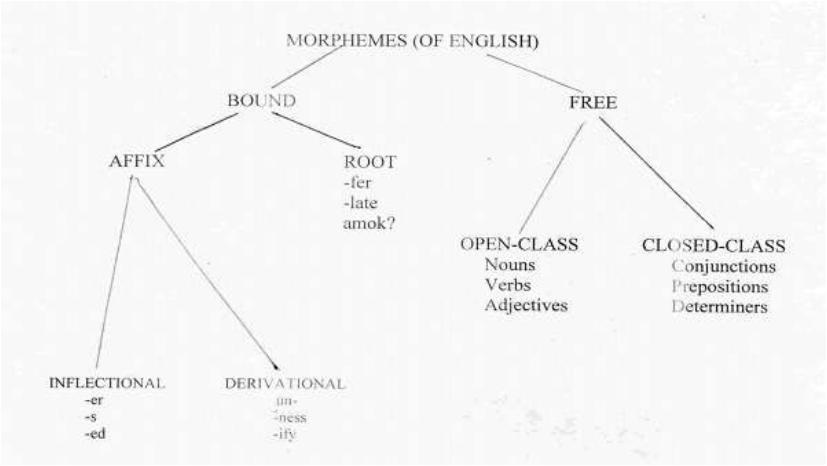
The morphemes in the word helpfulness, just discussed, do not all have the same status. Help, -ful and -ness are not simply strung together like beads on a string. Rather, the core, or starting-point, for the formation of this word is help; the morpheme -ful is then added to form helpful, which in turn is the basis for the formation of helpfulness.

In using the word ‘then’ here, I am not referring to the historical sequence in which the words help, helpful and helpfulness came into use; I am talking rather about the structure of the word in contemporary English

According to Wether they can stand alone or not, morpheme can be devided into free morpheme and bound morpheme. Free morphemes are all morphemes that can stan alone, namely, morpmes which can constitute words by themselves, and bound morpheme are all morphemes which must attach to other elements. Roots or stems usually belong to free morpheme, whereas affixes belond to bound morphemes. Akmajan (1984: 68) classify all morphems as follow:



Nouns	Conjuntion	re	cran	‘ll
Verbs	Articles	un	-	‘d
Adjectives	Demostrative	de	-	“ve
Adverb	Preposition			



a. Morpheme, Morp, And Alomorph

Bauer (1983:13-16) defines that a morpheme as the minimal units of grammatical analysis, a morph as the segment of a word form which represents a particular morphemes, and an allomorph as a phonetically, lexically, or gramatically condition member of aset morphs representing a particular morphemes

Word that is part of the implicit linguistic knowledge of all English speakers, whether or not they know anything about the history of the English language. There are two reasons for calling help the core of this word. One is that help supplies the most precise and concrete element in its meaning, shared by a family of related words like helper, helpless, helplessness and unhelpful that differ from one another in more abstract ways. Another reason is that, of the three morphemes in helpfulness, only help can stand on its own – that is, only help can, in an appropriate context, constitute an utterance by itself.

That is clearly not true of -ness, nor is it true of -ful. (Historically -ful is indeed related to the word full, but their divergence in modern English is evident if one compares words like helpful and cheerful with other words that really do contain full, such as half-full and chock-full.) In self-explanatory fashion, morphemes that can stand on their own are called free, and ones that cannot are bound. A salient characteristic of English – a respect in which English differs from many other languages – is that a high proportion of complex words are like helpfulness and un-Clintonish in that they have a free morpheme (like help and Clinton) at their core. Compare the two column of words listed at (1), all of which consist uncontroversially of two morphemes, separated by a hyphen:

read-able b. leg-ible

hear-ing audi-ence

en-large magn-ify

perform-ance rend-ition

white-ness clar-ity

dark-en obfusc-ate

seek-er applic-ant

The rationale for the division is that the words in column a. all contain a free morpheme, respectively read, hear, large, perform, white and dark. By contrast, in the words in column b., though they are similar in meaning to their counterparts in a., both the morphemes are bound. If you know something about the history of the English language, or if you know some French, Spanish or Latin, you may know already that most of the free morphemes in belong to that part of the vocabulary of English that has been inherited directly through

the Germanic branch of the Indo-European language family to which English belongs, whereas all the morphemes have been introduced, or borrowed, from Latin, either directly or via French. We will return to these historical matters. Even without such historical knowledge, it may strike you that the words are on the whole somewhat less common, or more bookish, This reflects the fact that, among the most widely used words, the Germanic element still predominates. It is thus fair to say that, in English, there is still a strong tendency for complex words to contain a free morpheme at their core. Is it possible for a bound morpheme to be so limited in its distribution that it occurs in just one complex word? The answer is yes. This is almost true, for example, of the morpheme leg- 'read' in legible at least in everyday vocabulary, it is found in only one other word, namely illegible, the negative counterpart of legible. And it is absolutely true of the morphemes cran-, huckle- and gorm- in cranberry, huckleberry and gormless. Cranberry and huckleberry are compounds (a kind of complex word to be discussed in Chapter 6) whose second element is clearly the free morpheme berry, occurring in several other compounds such as strawberry, blackberry and blueberry; however, cran- and huckle- occur nowhere outside these compounds. A name commonly given to such bound

b. Inflection and Derivation

According to O Grady and Doborsky (1989: 108) the differences between inflection and derivation are as follaw:

First Inflection does not change the grammatical category of the word to which it applies, wheraes derivation change the category and or the meaning of the form to which applies.

Example: [[BooK]N S}N

[[Hospital]N lze]V

Second, a derivational affix (DA) must be clser to the root then an inflectional affix (IA).

Example: Neighbor hood s

Root DA IA

This example shows that the inflection takes place after all word formation processes including derivation. Based on their productivity, inflectional affixes typically have very few exceptions. Whereas derivational affix characteristically apply to restricted classes of them. The suffix-S, for example, can combine virtually with any noun that allows a plural form wheraes the suffix- ize can combine with only certain noun and adjective to form a verb.

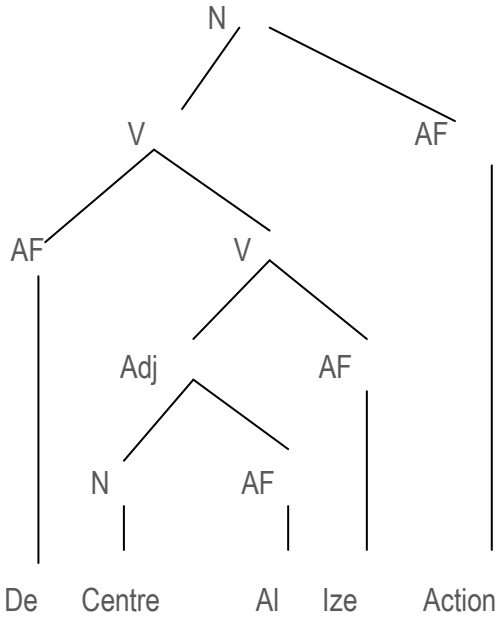
c. Word Structure

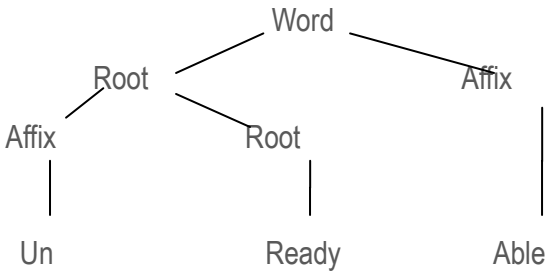
Complex words have an internal structure. The complex word decentralization consist of five morphemes: de centre al ize action. The free morpheme is centre because it can stan alone as a word. While the other words are bound morpheme. To show the internal structure of this word. These parts or morpheme must be put together in a particular way, with particular arrangement and order. There are five morpheme can produce 120 possible combination, but only one could be English word, that is decentralization.

The structure of word decentralization can best be seen as the result of beginning with the simple free form, centre, called the **root** of the word, and adding affixes succesively, one at the time, as follow:

Centre (N)
Central (adj)
Centralize (v)
Decentralize (v)
Decentralization (N)

The structure of the whole word can be represented by using either a set of labelled brackets or a tree diagram as follow:



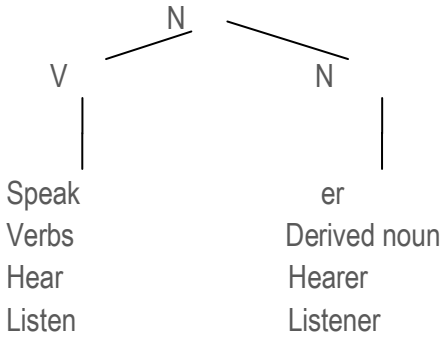


d. Word Formation

According to O,Grady and Doborsky (1989: 100), the two most common types of word formation are derivation and compunding. Both of the which create new words form already exiting morphemes. Derivation is the process by which a new word is built from a base, usually through the addition of the affix. Compunding on the other hand is a process involving the combination of two words (With or without accompanying affixes) to generate a new word.

1) Derivation

Derivation produce a new word by changing the class and/or meaning of the base to which it applies. The derivational affix-er, for example, combines with a verb to produce a noun with a meaning one who does X as shown in the following (X Represent the base)



2) English Derivational Affies

In the following table, O'Grady & Doborsky (1989:97) list some of the English derivational affixes:

AFFIXES				
Suffix	Change		Semantic Effect	Example
Action	Verb	Noun	The result of X+ing	Realization
Er	Verb	Noun	One who X+ing	Workers
Ing	Verb	Noun	The act of X + ing	The shooting
Ion	Verb	Noun	The result or act of X + ing	protection
Ment	Verb	Noun	The act of the result of X+ ing	goverment
Ity	Adj	Noun	The result of being X	Activity
Ness	Adj	Noun	The state of being X	Greatness
Ize	Adj	Verb	Make X	Hospitalize
Ate	Adj	Verb	Make X	Activate
En	Adj	Verb	Make X	Widen
Fy	Noun	Verb	Make X	Beauty
Able	Verb	Adj	Able to be X-ed	Fixable

English Syntax

1. Some Basic Concepts

a. Syntax

The term of syntax has been defined by many linguist. Crystal (1980.345) defines syntax as the study of the rules governing the way words are combined to from senteces in a language. In this use. Syntax is opposed to morphology, the study word structure. In alternative definition is the study of the interrelationship between elements of sentence structure, and of the rules governing the arrangement of sentence sequence. Robert (1964:1) define syntax as the area of grammar which

Linguists define syntax the word *sentence*. For this web page, *sentence* will be taken to mean: '*a sequence of words whose first word starts with a capital letter and whose last word is followed by an end punctuation mark (period/full stop or question mark or exclamation mark)*'. On the basis of this definition, some of the sentences written by ESL students (indeed by all writers) will be correct, and other sentences will be problematic. Good readers (English teachers, for example!) can quickly see the difference between a correct and a problematic sentence.

b. Construction

To make clear what is construction is, in the following some definition of it is a given. According to Gleason (1961: 132), a

construction is any significant group of word (morpheme) Crystal (1980:85) states that in the general of sense in linguistic, construction refers to the overall process of internal organization of grammar unit a sentence, for example being constructed out of morpheme by application of a set of rules. More specially, it is refers to syntagmatic result such as process, a particular type of construction (contractional types or pattern).

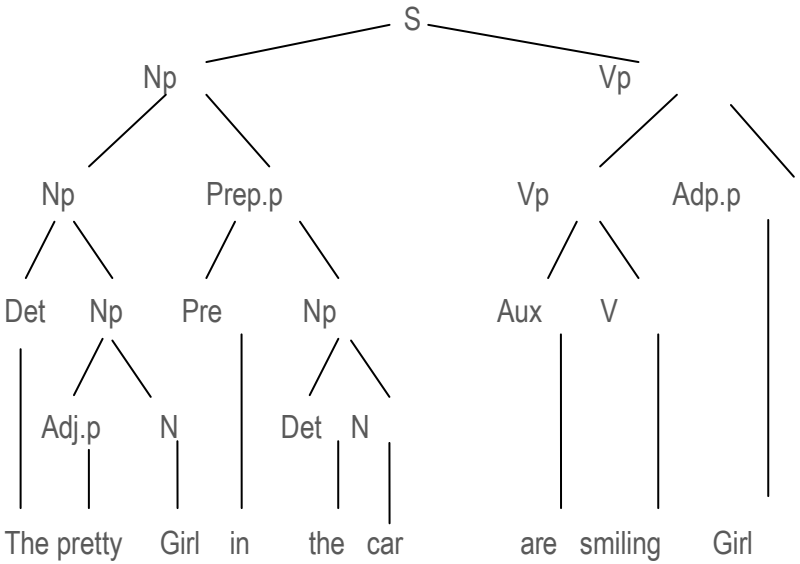
c. Immediate constituent

Gleason (1961:133) defines that immediate constituent as one of the two or view. Constituent of which are given construction is directly formed. For example, **the old man who lives there and has gone to his son's house** are immediate constituent of the utterance. We can therefore define constituent as any syntactically unit to form a construction. A construction can be defined as any syntactically unit contain constituent, for example the construction the girls in the room is itself made up of eight constituent. One of prepositional phrase, two noun phrase, and five words. Only two of these,however, (the girl in the room) are immediate constituent. Each of these constituent, then must be futher out into thier immediate constituent.

d. Immediate constituen analysis

The immediate constituent analysis, first developed by Leonard Bloom field is an important methodological tool by syntactic analysis. According to the immediate constituent. If one or both the immediate constituent consist of construction, then they must be futher cut into their immediate constituent unit single words are reached. The last string of constituent (words) are called the ultimate constituent. To illustrate this procedure, and example is given in the following.

The pretty girl in the car are smiling gaily can be analyzed by using a three diagram as follow:



2. Syntactic Construction

There are three syntactic construction: **(a) Phrase, (b) clause, (c) sentence .** according to Ellison & Picket (1963:73) is unit are composed of two or more words potentially, which does not have the characteristic of clause, namely subject and practically the predicate. A clause according to cook (1969:65) is unit grammar. A construction in which the constituent is a potential base, and which the constituent are subject and predicate, object, adjunt that combine to form the base. And asentence, according to Cook (1969:39), is grammatical intonation contour, and the constituents are the clauses, connecting particies, and intonation pattern.

a. Phrase

According to Cook (1969:9), the phrase level is that level that is below the clause level above the world word level. The phrase is composed of words and typically fills slots at clause level. It is a construction in which the constituted is closed knit morpheme sequence which functions a typical unit at the clause level whose constituent are words. Phrases are words groups that fill the same slots at clause level as are filled by single words. Elson & Pickett (1963:73) defines the phrase as unit composed of two or more word potentially, which does not have the charasteristic of clause, and typically, but not always, fill slots on the clause level.

There are two criteria that can be used to classify phrases: (1) according to the relationship of element in the structure, and (2) and according to number and types of words that become the headss of the structure. Phrase consit of exocentric phrase and endocentric pharse. Exocentric phrase consit of Noun Phrase, verb phrase, adjective phrase, adverb phrase, prepositional pharase.

1) Noun Phrase

Noun phrase is word group with noun as its head. A noun pharse may consist of determiner which function as the modifier and a noun which is the head of the group.

Examples:

- A man
- The students
- His book
- One book
- Etc

Noun phrase may also consist of a determiner, and adjective or a noun as modifier, and a noun as head

Examples:

- A clever students
- The young man
- The good characters
- This new car

2) Verb Phrase

A verb phrase is a word group with verb as its head. A verb phrase may consist of an auxalary as modifier and a verb as head.

Examples:

- Can speak
- May go
- Must study
- Will come

3) Adjective Phrase

An adjective phrase is a word group with adjective as the head. This head is commonly preceded by an intensifer. Intensifers are function words which modify adjectives and adverbs. In the following, a rather complete list intensifier in English is given:

Examples:

- very beatiful
- quite calm
- rather easy
- so sweet

4) Adverb Phrase

an adverb phrase is word group with adverb as its head which can be preceded by intensifier.

Example**s:**

- Very quickly
- Rather slowly
- So late
- Quite well

b. Clause

According to Cook (1969:65), the clause is gramatical unit in which the constitute is a potential sentence based, and in which the constituent are the subject, predicate, object, and adjunt that combine to form the base. clause consit of independent clause and dependent clause. Independent clauses is clause that can stand alone as a major sentence. Dependent clause is clause that can not stand alone as a major sentence. independent clause consit of transitive clause,intransive clause, equative clause.while dependent clause consist of nominal clause, adjectival clause, adverbial clauses.

Independent Clause

1) Transitive clause

Transive clause are clause whose predicates are filled by transitive verbs, namely verbs that must take objects, like visit, write, read,play, speak, love.

Examples:

- Mia visited his uncle last week
- He speaks English very well
- They play football every afternoon

2) Intransitive Clause

Intransitive clause are clause whose predicates are filled by intransitive verb, namely verbs taking no direct object, like work, go, sit stand, rest, look, talk,laugh, come, etc.

Examples:

- He is looking around the office righ now
- Budi is sitting at his desk
- They stood in front of the class

3) Equative Clause

Equative Clauses are clause whose predicates are filled by equative verbs, like be, become, grow, seem appear, look, remain, feel, smell, taste,etc.

Examples:

- Wahyu is my brother
- She become nurse
- He looks very handsome

Dependent Clause

1) Nominal clause

Nominal clause are clauses that function or act like noun. They can function as the subject, object, or complement. Nominal clause are commonly introduced by the relaters, like, what, where, who, how, why.

Examples:

- What have said
- I do not know where he lives
- I do not understand what he has said

2) Adjective Clauses

Adjective clause are clauses that function like adjectives. They can function as modifiers of noun in sentence, and they are commonly introduced by the relaters, like that, who, whom,ect.

Examples:

- The man, who come yesterday, is my uncle
- The book, that you bought last week, is very interesting
- The person, who lives next door, has gone to his son' house

3) Adverbial Clause

Adverbial clauses are dependent clauses that function as adverb, they can express place or location, time or temporal manner, reason, purpose, and condition**.**

Example:

- I left the book where I bound it
- He was watching a tv program when I came
- He be haves as if he were drunked

c. Sentence

According to Cook (1969:39), the sentence is a grammatical unit or construction in which the constitute in any utterance with final

intonation. And the constituents are clause, connecting particles, and intonation pattern. And consist of subject, predicate, and objects.

Subject/predicate: All sentences are about something or someone. The something or someone that the sentence is about is called the *subject* of the sentence. In the following sentences the subjects are shown in red. Note how the subject is often, but not always, the first thing in the sentence.

- John often comes late toclass. My friend and I both have a dog named Spot.
- Many parts of the Asian coastline were destroyed by a tsunami in 2004.
- The old hotel at the end of the street is going to be knocked down to make way for a new supermarket.
- Sitting in a tree at the bottom of the garden was a huge black bird with long blue tail feathers.
- The grade 7 Korean boy who has just started at FIS speaks excellent English.
- On Saturdays I never get up before 9 o'clock.
- Before giving a test the teacher should make sure that the students are well-prepared.
- Lying on the sofa watching old films is my favourite hobby.

The predicate contains information about the someone or something that is the subject. The example sentences above are shown again, this time with the predicate marked in green.

- John often comes late to class. My friend and I both have a dog named Spot.

- Many parts of the Asian coastline were destroyed by a tsunami in 2004.
- The old hotel at the end of the street is going to be knocked down to make way for a new supermarket.
- Sitting in a tree at the bottom of the garden was a huge black bird with long blue tail feathers.
- The grade 7 Korean boy who has just started at FIS speaks excellent English.
- On Saturdays I never get up before 9 o'clock.
- Before giving a test the teacher should make sure that the students are well-prepared.
- Lying on the sofa watching old films is my favourite hobby.

Simple subject/predicate: As you can see from the example sentences above both the subject and the predicate can consist of many words. The *simple subject* is the *main* word in the subject, and the *simple predicate* is the *main* word in the predicate. The simple subject is always a *noun/pronoun* and the simple predicate is always a *verb*.

In the following sentences the simple subject is shown in red and the simple predicate is shown in green.

- My ESL teacher speaks a little Russian.
- The young girl with the long black hair fell from her bike yesterday in heavy rain.
- At the back of the line in the cafeteria yesterday was a large brown dog with a yellow collar around its neck!

- My friend and I are going on holiday together this year.
- Your mother or your father must come to the meeting.
- Sitting in a tree at the bottom of the garden was a huge black bird with long blue tail feathers.

From the last three examples sentences above you will notice that the simple subjects and simple predicates can be more than one word.

Advice: To write strong, clear sentences you must know who or what you are writing about (subject) and what you want to say about them or it (predicate). Your writing will be more interesting if the subject is not the first thing in every sentence you write.

a.Sentence types:

One way to categorize sentences is by the clauses they contain. (A clause is a part of a sentence containing a subject and a predicate.) Here are the 4 sentence types:

- **Simple:** Contains a single, independent clause.
  - I don't like dogs.
  - Our school basketball team lost their last game of the season 75-68.

The old hotel opposite the bus station in the center of the town is probably going to be knocked down at the end of next year.

- **Compound:** Contains two independent clauses that are joined by a coordinating conjunction. (The most common coordinating conjunctions are: ***b****ut,* ***o****r,* ***a****nd,* ***s****o*. Remember: **boas**.)
  - I don't like dogs, and my sister doesn't like cats.

- You can write on paper, or you can use a computer.

A tree fell onto the school roof in a storm, but none of the students was injured.

- **Complex:** Contains an independent clause plus one or more dependent clauses. (A dependent clause starts with a subordinating conjunction. Examples: *that, because, while, although, where, if*.)
  - I don't like dogs that bark at me when I go past.
  - She did my homework, while her father cooked dinner.
  - You can write on paper, although a computer is better if you want to correct mistakes easily.

Note: A dependent clause standing alone without an independent clause is called a fragment sentence - see below.

- **Compound-complex:** Contains 3 or more clauses (of which at least two are independent and one is dependent).
  - I don't like dogs, and my sister doesn't like cats because they make her sneeze.
  - You can write on paper, but using a computer is better as you can easily correct your mistakes.

A tree fell onto the school roof in a storm, but none of the students was injured, although many of them were in classrooms at the top of the building.

Advice: Writing that contains mostly short, simple sentences can be uninteresting or even irritating to read. Writing that consists of mostly long, complex sentences is usually difficult to read. Good writers, therefore, use a variety of sentence types. They also

occasionally start complex (or compound-complex) sentences with the dependent clause and not the independent clause. In the following examples the dependent clause is shown in red:

- Although it was raining, we decided to go fishing.
- If it doesn't rain soon, the river will dry out.
- Because the road was icy and the driver was going too fast, he was unable to brake in time when a fox ran into the road in front of him.

Note: Sentences can also be categorized according to their function.

Note: Independent clauses are also called *main* clauses. Dependent clauses are also called *subordinate* clauses.

b. Problematic 'sentences'

To write a correct sentence, you need to have a good understanding of what a sentence is. Students who don't have this understanding, or don't take care, often include problem sentences in their writing. Native English speakers are just as likely to write problem sentences as ESL students. There are three main types of problem sentence:

Run-on sentences: These are two sentences that the writer has not separated with an end punctuation mark, or has not joined with a conjunction. (Click the following run-ons to see where they should be separated into two sentences.)

- I went to Paris in the vacation it is the most beautiful place I have ever visited.

- It's never too late to learn to swim you never know when you may fall from a boat.
- If you're going to the shops can you buy me some eggs and flour I want to make a cake.
- I like our new math teacher, she always explains the work very clearly.
- He was late to school again, his bus got caught in heavy traffic.

Advice: It is helpful to read your written work aloud. When you speak, you will make natural pauses to mark the end of your sentences or clauses. If there is no corresponding end punctuation mark in your writing, you can be almost certain that you have written a run-on sentence.

Sentence fragments: Fragment sentences are unfinished sentences, i.e. they don't contain a complete idea. A common fragment sentence in student writing is a dependent clause standing alone without an independent clause. In the each of the following examples the fragment is the second 'sentence', shown in red:

- I don't think I'm going to get a good grade. Because I didn't study.
- She got angry and shouted at the teacher. Which wasn't a very good idea.
- He watched TV for an hour and then went to bed. After falling asleep on the sofa.
- She got up and ran out of the library. Slamming the door behind her.

- I have to write a report on Albert Einstein. The famous scientist who left Europe to live in the USA.
- After riding my bike without problems for over a year, the chain broke. 40 kilometers from my house!

Advice: If your 'sentence' is a dependent clause, or it doesn't contain both a subject *and* a predicate, then it is not a proper sentence. You can often detect fragments if you read your writing backwards sentence by sentence, i.e. from the last sentence to the first one. You can usually correct a fragment by connecting. Good writers, who have a full understanding of the sentence, occasionally choose to write a sentence fragment. So you may see sentence fragments in the fiction or even some of the non-fiction you read. As an ESL student, however, you should avoid fragments (except when writing your own creative stories).

- **Rambling sentences:** A rambling sentence is a sentence made up of many clauses, often connected by a coordinating conjunction such as *and, or, so*.
  - John usually gets up before 7 o'clock, but yesterday his alarm clock did not ring, so he was still asleep when his boss called him at 10.30 to ask where he was and tell him that he would lose his job if he was late again.
  - Although the blue whale has been protected for over 30 years and its numbers are increasing, especially in the North Pacific, where whale hunting has been banned, it is still at risk of extinction as its habitat is being polluted by waste from oil tankers and its main food, the plankton, is being killed off by harmful rays from the sun, which can penetrate the earth's

atmosphere because there is a huge hole in the ozone layer over Antarctica.

Advice: A rambling sentence is quite easy to spot. You have almost certainly written one if your sentence contains more than 3 or 4 conjunctions. If you read the sentence aloud and run out of breath before reaching the end of it, you have written a rambling sentence. If your sentence stretches over many lines of writing, you have certainly written a rambling sentence and most probably a run-on sentence too.

Unlike *run-ons* or *fragments*, rambling sentences are not wrong, but they are tiresome for the reader and one of the signs of a poor writer. You should avoid them.

General advice: If you are not sure whether you have written a good, correct sentence, ask your teacher! And remember: The more you read in English, the better a writer you will become. This is because reading good writing provides you with models of English sentence structure that will have a positive influence on your own written work.

Note: Good writing consists not only of a string of varied, correctly-structured sentences. The sentences must also lead from one to the next so that the text is cohesive and the writer's ideas are coherent. For information on these two important concepts, go to the Language words for non-language teachers page and click on *Cohesion*.

c. Heads and modifiers

Our discussion of syntax begins with two central ideas. The first is that certain elationships hold between words whereby one word, the **head**, controls the other words, the **modifiers**. A given head may

have more than one modifier, and may have no modifier. The second idea is that words are grouped into **phrases** and that groupings typically bring together heads and their modifiers. In *the large dog*, the word *dog* is the head, and *the* and *large* are its modifiers. In *barked loudly*, the word *barked* is the head and *loudly* the modifier. (Criteria for recognising heads and modifiers will be given below.) A phrase, then, is a group of interrelated words. groups of interrelated words can be moved around inside **clauses** as a single unit; here, we concentrate on the fact that in such groups we recognise various links among the words, between heads and their modifiers. This relationship of **modification** is fundamental in syntax. It will play an important role in the account of different types of clause. and is crucial to discussions of word order in different languages. How are we to understand the statement 'one word, the head, controls the other words, the modifiers'? Consider in the sentences which also introduce the use of the asterisk – '*' – to mark unacceptable examples.

(1) a. Ethel was sitting at her desk.

b. *The Ethel was sitting at her desk.

(2) a. *Accountant was sitting at her desk.

b. The accountant was sitting at her desk.

c. Accountants audit our finances every year.

Example (1a) is a grammatical sentence of English, but (1b) is not grammatical (at least as an example of standard English). *Ethel* is a type of noun that typically excludes words such as *the* and *a*. (Nouns are 1 described in on word classes. Here, we will use nouns that accord with their traditional definition as words that denote people, places and things.) *Accountant* is a different type of noun; if it is

singular, as in), it requires a word such as *the* or *a*. In , *accountants* consists of *accountant* plus the plural suffix *-s* and denotes more than one accountant. It does not require *the*. Plural nouns, of course, exclude *a* or *an* but allow words such as *some* or *more*, as shown in . *I would like an accountants to sort out my tax return.

Example

It can only mean that different types of salt were spread.

a. The gritter spread salt.

b. The gritter spread the salt.

c. The gritter spread salts.

Note: too that a plural noun such as *gritters* allows either *less* or *fewer*, as in and, whereas *salt* requires *less* and excludes *fewer*, as in and

a. This gritter spread less salt than that one.

b. *This gritter spread fewer salt than that one.

c. There are fewer gritters on the motorway this winter.

d. There are less gritters on the motorway this winter.

The central property of the above examples is that *Ethel*, *accountant*, *salt* and *gritter* permit or exclude the plural suffix and permit or exclude words such as *the*, *a*, *some*, *less* and *fewer* – note that *Ethel* excludes *the*, *a*, *some*, *less* and *fewer*; *salt* in excludes *a* and *fewer*; *gritters* excludes *a*; *accountant* allows both *the* and *a*, and so on. We have looked at phrases with nouns as the controlling word, but other types of word exercise similar control. Many adjectives such as *sad* or *big* allow words such as *very* to modify them – *very sad*, *very big* – but exclude words such as *more* – *sadder* is fine but *more*

sad is at the very least unusual. Other adjectives, such as *wooden*, exclude *very* and *more* – **very wooden*, **more wooden*. That is, *wooden* excludes *very* and *more* in its literal meaning, but note that *very* is acceptable when *wooden* has a metaphorical meaning, as in *The policeman had a very wooden expression*. Even a preposition can be the controlling word in a group. Prepositions link nouns to nouns (*books about antiques*),

Adjectives to nouns and verbs to nouns (*aimed at the target*). Most prepositions must be followed by a group of words containing a noun, or by a noun on its own, as in *(They sat) round the table*, *(Claude painted) with this paintbrush*, *(I've bought a present) for the children*. A small number of prepositions allow another preposition between them and the noun: *In behind the woodpile (was a hedgehog)*, *(An owl swooped on the rabbit) from up in the beech tree*. *In* allows *behind* and *from* allows *up.* That is, the preposition controls whatever word or phrase follows it. Another aspect of this control can be seen from the fact that in standard English prepositions can be followed by pronouns, but they exclude *I*, *he*, *she*, *we* and *they* and require *me*, *him*, *her*, *us* and *them*: **I've bought a present for she*, *I've bought a present for her*.

d. Heads, modifiers and meaning

The distinction between heads and modifiers has been put in terms of one word, the head, that controls the other words in a phrase, the modifiers. If we think of language as a way of conveying information – which is what every speaker does with language some of the time – we can consider the head as conveying a central piece of information and the modifiers as conveying extra information. Thus in the phrase *expensive books* the head word *books* indicates the very large set of things that count as books, while *expensive* indicates

that the speaker is drawing attention not to the whole set but to the subset of books that are expensive.

In the longer phrase *the expensive books*, the word *the* signals that the speaker is referring to a set of books which have already been mentioned or are otherwise obvious in a particular context. The same narrowing-down of meaning applies to phrases containing verbs. Note first that different verbs have different powers of control. Some verbs, as in , exclude a direct object (to use the traditional terminology and anticipating, other verbs require a direct object, as in, and a third set of verbs allows a direct object but does not require one:

*The White Rabbit vanished his watch / The White Rabbit vanished.

b. Dogs chase cats / *Dogs chase.

c. Flora cooks / Flora cooks gourmet meals.

Consider the examples *drove* and *drove a Volvo*. *Drove* indicates driving in general; *drove a Volvo* narrows down the activity to driving a particular make of car.

Consider further the phrase *on the plate*. The first word, *on*, signals a relationship between some entity, say a piece of toast or a knife, and the surface of something; *the plate* tells us what that something is, that HEADS AND MODIFIERS is, it narrows down the meaning 'being on' to 'being on a particular plate'. Finally in this brief set of examples, we return to the point made earlier in passing that heads may have several modifiers.

This is most easily illustrated with verbs; the phrase *bought a present for Jeanie in Jenners last Tuesday* contains four modifiers of *bought – a present*, *for Jeanie*, *in Jenners* and *last Tuesday*. *A*

present signals what was bought and narrows down the activity from just buying to buying a present as opposed, say, to buying the weekly groceries. *For Jeanie* narrows the meaning down further – not just 'buy a present' but 'buy a present for Jeanie', and similarly for the phrases *in Jenners* and *last Tuesday*. Complements and adjuncts The last example, *bought a present for Jeanie in Jenners last Tuesday*, brings us to the second major distinction in this chapter. Modifiers fall into two classes – obligatory modifiers, known as complements, and optional modifiers, known as adjuncts.

The distinction was first developed for the phrases that modify verbs, and indeed applies most easily to the modifiers of verbs; we will focus on verbs, but the distinction is also applied to the modifiers of nouns. Before discussing the division of modifiers into complements and adjuncts, we must take the example at the beginning of this paragraph and convert it to a complete clause, say *My mother bought a present for Jeanie in Jenners last Tuesday*. We saw from that the verb controls whether a direct object is excluded, required or merely allowed. (The term 'direct object' is discussed.

From these examples, we might conclude that the verb controls only the phrases that follow it; but the verb can be seen as controlling every other phrase in the clause. *(My) mother* in the revised example above is the subject of the verb. the subject of a clause plays an important role; nonetheless, in a given clause the verb controls the subject noun too. *Bought* requires a human subject noun; that is, it does in everyday language but behaves differently in the language of fairy stories, which narrate events that are unconstrained by the biological and physical laws of this world. A verb such as requires a subject noun denoting a liquid; if in a given clause it has a subject noun denoting some other kind of entity, imposes an interpretation of

that entity as a liquid. (Of course, some entities can be either liquids or solids; molten steel flows, solid steel does not.)

Thus people talk of a crowd flowing along a road, of traffic flowing smoothly or of ideas flowing freely. Such talk offers a view of the crowd moving along a road held in by the buildings on either side and propelled by a mysterious motive force, just as a river moves along in a mysterious fashion held in by its banks. What we are considering is the distinction between literal language and figurative or metaphorical language.

The distinction will not be explored here, but it is important to be aware that many of the constraints which linguists discuss apply to literal language but dissolve in figurative language. Returning to the clause *My mother bought a present for Jeanie in Jenners last Tuesday*, we will say that the verb *bought* controls all the other phrases in the clause and is the head of the clause. It requires a human noun to its left, here *mother* ; it requires a noun to its right that denotes something concrete (although we talk figuratively of buying ideas in the sense of agreeing with them). It allows, but does not require, time expressions such as *last Tuesday* and place expressions such as *in Jenners*. Such expressions convey information about the time when some event happened and about the place where it happened. With verbs, such time and place expressions are always optional and are held to be adjuncts.

The major exception is which has its own syntactic patterns. Phrases that are obligatory are called complements. (The term ‘complement’ derives from a Latin verb ‘to fill’; the idea conveyed by ‘complement’ is that a complement expression fills out the verb (or noun and so on), filling it out or completing it with respect to syntax but also with respect to meaning. The term ‘adjunct’ derives from the

Latin verb ‘join’ or ‘add’ and simply means ‘something adjoined’, tacked on and not part of the essential structure of clauses.) All verbs in English declarative clauses require a noun to their left; even where the buyers are known, they must be mentioned by means of a noun. Verbs such as also require a noun to their right. Without one, the clause in which they occur is incomplete and the message conveyed by the clause is incomplete for speakers of English.

Clauses The technical term ‘clause’ has slipped into the discussion without being explained. Suppose we want to describe different paperweights. To distinguish them, we talk of their shape, height, weight and colour and the material from which they are made. Shape, height and so on are the basic units we use to describe the paperweights, but we might need other units that enable us to talk about height (inches, centimetres), weight (ounces and grammes) and colour (blue, green). In order to talk about syntax coherently, we need units for our analysis.

One unit is the phrase, which enables us to describe the relationship between other units, namely heads and modifiers, as in *the accountant*, *very unhappy* and *in behind the sofa*. Another unit is the clause, which enables us to talk coherently about the relationships between verbs and different types of phrase. An ideal clause contains a phrase referring to an action or state, a phrase or phrases referring to the people and things involved in the action or state, and possibly phrases referring to place and time. *My mother bought a present* is a clause.

The phrase *my mother* refers to the buyer, *bought* refers to the action and *a present* refers to what was bought. We can add the phrase *for Jeanie*, which refers to the person benefiting from the action. Finally, we can tack on, or leave out, the place phrase *in*

Jenners and the time phrase *last Tuesday*. The clause is a unit which as a minimum consists of a verb and its complements but which may consist of a verb, its complements and its adjuncts. The clause is a useful unit because it gives us a framework for discussing the relationship between, for example, *bought* and the other phrases. We will see later that it also gives a framework for talking coherently about constituent structure and statements, questions and commands

Note that in the last paragraph but one, one of the phrases that turned out to be adjuncts contains a preposition, *in*, while the other one consists of an adjective, *last*, and a noun, *Tuesday*. (Nouns and prepositions and the general concept of word classes will be discussed. The example of the excursion to Jenners conveniently illustrates the lack of a reliable correlation between the type of a given phrase (does it have a preposition, noun or adjective as its head?) and the phrase's function as complement or adjunct. Consider. The cat shot into the kitchen on Sunday morning carrying a dead mouse. As in the Jenners example, the time expression *on Sunday morning* signals the time when the event happened. Like the phrase *carrying a dead mouse*, it is optional. Consider now the phrase *into the kitchen* and its relationship to *shot*.

This phrase is obligatory with this particular verb. **The cat shot* is not acceptable, whereas *The cat shot off* or *The cat shot into the kitchen* are correct. That is, the phrase *into the kitchen* is obligatory and therefore a complement of *shot*. It expresses direction, where the cat moved to, and directional phrases in general are complements. We must note, however, that directional phrases are not always obligatory. Consider The cat pranced into the kitchen carrying a dead mouse. If the phrases *into the kitchen* and *carrying a dead mouse* are excised, what is left is still an acceptable sentence, *The cat pranced*.

Nonetheless, the directional phrase *into the kitchen* is treated as a complement.

The reason is that the occurrence of directional phrases is closely bound up with the meaning of verbs; verbs expressing movement allow or require them. Verbs that do not express movement exclude them, as in **The cat lies onto the rug in front of the fire* vs *The cat lies on the rug in front of the fire*. In contrast, phrases expressing the place where something happened occur with all sorts of verbs, whether or not they express movement. At this point, we anticipate Chapter 5, 'The lexicon', and describe the state of affairs in terms of what goes into the dictionary entries of verbs; if it has to be stated in the dictionary whether a given verb or subset of verbs excludes (or requires) a particular type of phrase, that phrase is a complement. The dictionary entry for *lie* must state that it excludes directional phrases, whereas the entry for *shoot* (at least in the meaning it has in must state that *shoot* requires a directional phrase. The dictionary entry for *prance* will state that the verb allows a directional phrase but does not require one.

Dictionary entries and collocations An important point implicit in the preceding paragraph is that the status of phrases as complement or adjunct varies from verb to verb. This point is worth emphasising here because it is part of the larger question of the relationship between grammar and dictionary that will be discussed in Chapter 5. It also introduces a third property of complements. English possesses (as do other languages) combinations of verb and object in which the actual lexical items that can occur are severely limited.

In English (at least in the UK) you can *toast bread*, *toast marshmallows* or even *toast your toes*. You do not *grill bread*, in spite of the fact that the processes of toasting and grilling are similar (if you

choose not to use the toaster). Similarly, we talk of braising meat (but not usually other items of food).

Other areas than cooking offer examples of particular verbs typically combining with particular nouns; people lay tables, chop or split logs and kindling (even in these days of almost ubiquitous central heating), make beds and vire money or funds (if you are a civil servant or university administrator). These regular fixed combinations of verbs and nouns are called collocations, and they involve heads and complements. Fixed combinations of verb and adjective are also found – *prove useless*, *prove necessary* – and a good number of verbs require particular prepositions. *Blame someone for something* and *blame something on someone* are set expressions in which only the prepositions *for* or *on* can occur; this is information that must be stated in the dictionary entry for *blame*.

It must be made clear that these collocations are not proposed as a criterion for recognising complements. The central criteria are whether or not a particular phrase is HEADS AND MODIFIERS 7 obligatory with a particular verb, as with *shot* and *into the kitchen* in (7), or whether a particular type of phrase has to be mentioned in the dictionary entry for a particular verb. The collocational facts constitute interesting extra information but, and this is the difficulty, are not confined to verbs and their complement nouns; they apply to adjectives and nouns – *heavy smoker*, *heavy drinker*, *staple diet*, *staple crop*, *staple industry* – and to combinations of adjective and another word, for example, *brand new*, *wide awake*, *rock solid*, *frozen hard*.

On the main criterion for complements, being obligatory, *brand*, *wide*, *rock* and *hard* are not complements of *new*, *awake*, *solid* and *frozen*, which is why collocations are not a test for complement status

but merely an additional set of interesting facts. Verbs, complements and the order of phrases This chapter finishes with one more technical term and one last fact about heads and complements. The relationships between heads and modifiers are called dependencies or dependency relations. heads have been described as controlling modifiers; modifiers are said to depend on, or to be dependent on, their heads. Heads and their modifiers typically cluster together to form a phrase, certainly in formal written language. In accordance with a long tradition in Europe, verbs are treated here as the head, not just of phrases, but of whole clauses. In clauses, the verb and its complements tend to occur close together, with the adjuncts pushed towards the outside of the clause, as shown by the examples :

a. Maisie drove her car from Morningside to Leith on Wednesday.
b. On Wednesday Maisie drove her car from Morningside to Leith.
c. Maisie drove her car on Wednesday from Morningside to Leith.

In the object *her car* is next to the verb, followed by the directional phrases *from Morningside* and *to Leith*. As discussed above, objects and directional phrases are complements. The time-when phrase *on Wednesday* is at the end of the clause in (9a) and at the beginning of the clause in (9b). In (9b), it is closer to *drove*, but this is not important. What is important is the fact that the adjunct does not come between the head and any of the complements. This does happen in where *on Wednesday* separates the complement *her car* from the other complement *to Leith*. Example is at the least awkward – although there might be contexts in which that order of phrases would be appropriate. Every phrase contains a head and possibly, but not necessarily, one or more modifiers. Each clause has a head, the verb.

There are two types of modifiers, namely complements and adjuncts. Adjuncts are optional; complements are typically obligatory and are always mentioned in the lexical entries for verbs (or nouns or prepositions). Many collocation restrictions apply to heads and complements (but also to phrases other than complements). Heads and complements are typically adjacent; where a head has two or more complements, adjuncts typically come before or after the sequence of head and complements. Exercises Consider the modifiers of the verbs in the following sentences. (For the purposes of this exercise, exclude the grammatical subjects.) Which of the modifiers are obligatory and which are optional? Which of the modifiers are complements and which are adjuncts?

1. Sir Thomas agreed with Edmund.

2. Mr Elton delivered a charade to Emma for a friend.

3. She thrust the documents into her briefcase.

4. Raskolnikov killed the old woman with an axe.

5. Mr D'Arcy met the Gardiners at Pemberley in the summer.

6. Frank sent a piano to Jane Fairfax.

7. The porter placed the letter on the secretary's desk.

8. Harriet imagined that Mr Elton would propose to her.

9. The picnic was held at Box Hill in the summer.

[Treat *was held* as a single verb.]

10. He executed great vengeance upon them with furious rebukes.

11. We were expecting the worst that day in 1968.

Pick out four examples of heads and modifiers in each of the following sentences (which are from William Dalrymple's book *From the Holy Mountain* (Flamingo, 1998).

You will notice that modifiers may themselves contain heads. Thus in the phrase *sitting at her desk* the head *sitting* is modified by *at her desk*. The phrase *at her desk* has as its head the word *at*, which has as its modifier the phrase *her desk*. The head of the latter phrase is *desk*, which has *her* as its modifier. I ate breakfast in a vast Viennese ballroom with a sprung wooden floor and dadoes dripping with recently reapplied gilt. HEADS AND MODIFIERS.

Semantic

1. Definition of semantic

Semantics, the study of word meaning and sentence meaning, abstracted away from contexts of use, is a descriptive subject. It is an attempt to describe and understand the nature of the knowledge about meaning in their language that people have from knowing the language. It is not a prescriptive enterprise with an interest in advising or pressuring speakers or writers into abandoning some meanings and adopting others (though pedants can certainly benefit from studying the semantics of a language they want to lay down rules about, to become clear on what aspects of conventional meaning they dislike and which they favour). A related point is that one can know a language perfectly well without knowing its history. While it is fascinating to find out about the historical currents and changes that explain why there are similarities in the pronunciations or spellings of words that share similarities in meaning – for example: *arms*body parts, *arms*weapons, *army*, *armada* and *armadillo* – this kind of knowledge is not essential for using present-day English, so it is not covered in this book. Historical linguists investigating language change over time sometimes concern themselves with semantic (and pragmatic) matters. They are then doing historical (linguistic) semantics (and/or pragmatics).

According to Crystal (1980:315) semantic is a major branch of linguistics devoted to study of meaning in language. He futher states that this term is also used in philosophy and logic. But not with the same range of meaning or emphasis as in linguistics.

Semantics is a sub discipline of linguistics which focuses on the study of meaning. Semantics tries to understand what meaning is as an element of language and how it is constructed by language as well as interpreted, obscured and negotiated by speakers and listeners of language. Semantics is closely linked with another sub discipline of linguistics, pragmatics, which is also, broadly speaking, the study of meaning. However, unlike pragmatics, semantics is a highly theoretical research perspective, and looks at meaning in language in isolation, in the language itself, whereas pragmatics is a more practical subject and is interested in meaning in language in use. Semantics is the study of meaning, but what do we mean by 'meaning'?

Meaning has been given different definitions in the past.

2. Meaning = Connotation?

Is meaning simply the set of associations that a word evokes, is the meaning of a word defined by the images that its users connect to it? So 'winter' might mean 'snow', 'sledging' and 'mulled wine'. But what about someone living in the amazon? Their 'winter' is still wet and hot, so its original meaning is lost. Because the associations of a word don't always apply, it was decided that this couldn't be the whole story.

3. Meaning = Denotation?

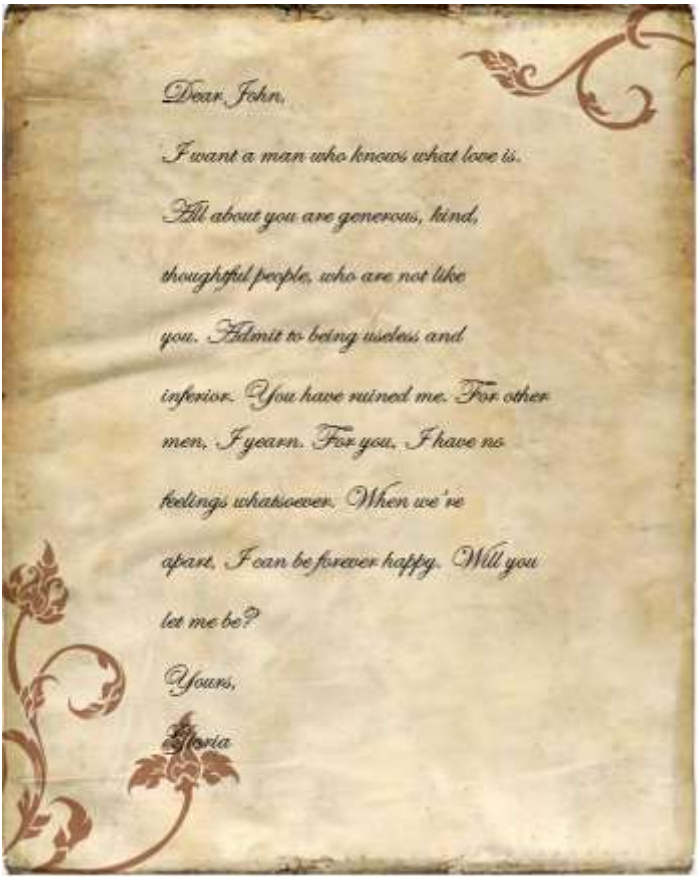
It has also been suggested that the meaning of a word is simply the entity in the World which that word refers to. This makes perfect sense for proper nouns like 'New York' and 'the Eiffel Tower', but there are lots of words like 'sing' and 'altruism' that don't have a solid thing in the world that they are connected to. So meaning cannot be entirely denotation either.

4. Meaning = Extension and Intention

So meaning, in semantics, is defined as being **Extension:** The thing in the world that the word/phrase refers to, plus **Intention:** The concepts/mental images that the word/phrase evokes.[2]

5. How meaning works in language:

The study of semantics looks at how meaning works in language, and because of this it often uses native speaker intuitions about the meaning of words and phrases to base research on. We all understand semantics already on a subconscious level, it's how we all understand each other when we speak. One of the things that semantics looks at, and is based on, is how the meaning of speech is not just derived from the meanings of the individual words all put together, as you can see from the example below



Semantics also looks at the ways in which the meanings of words can be related to each other. Here are a few of the ways in which words can be semantically related.

Semantic relationship	Definition	Example
Synonymy	Words are synonymous/ synonyms when they can be used to mean the same thing (at least in some contexts - words are rarely fully identical in all contexts).	Begin and start, Big and large, Youth and adolescent.
Antonyms	Words are antonyms of one another when they have opposite meanings (again, at least in some contexts).	Big and small, Come and go, Boy and girl.
Polysemy	A word is polysemous when it has two or more related meanings. In this case the word takes one form but can be used to mean two different things. In the case of polysemy, these two meanings must be related in some way, and not be two completely unrelated meanings of the word.	Bright- shining and bright- intelligent. Mouse- animal and mouse- on a computer.
Homophony	Homophony is similar to polysemy in that it refers to a single form of word with two meanings, however a word is a homophone when the two meanings are entirely unrelated.	Bat- flying mammal and bat- equipment used in cricket. Pen- writing instrument and pen- small cage.

Sentences can also be semantically related to one-another in a few different ways.

Semantic relationship	Definition	Example
Paraphrase	One relationship that two sentences can have with each other is being paraphrases of each other. This is a good example of how we all understand semantics already on some level because people can easily tell when a sentence is a paraphrase, because when two sentences are paraphrases of each other, even though the form is different you will understand the same meaning from them. Paraphrases have the same **truth conditions**; if one is true, the other must also be true.	'The boys like the girls' and 'the girls are liked by the boys', 'John gave the book to Chris' and 'John gave Chris the book'.
Entailment	Entailment is a little more tricky than paraphrase in that the two sentences don't mean exactly the same thing, instead, when one sentence entails another, for the second sentence to be true, the first one must be true. There are two different types of entailment.	

Mutual enatilment	When each sentence entails the other, i.e. each sentence must be true for the other to be true.	'John is married to Rachel' and 'Rachel is John's wife', 'Chris is a man' and 'Chris is human'.
Asymmetrical entailment	With asymmetrical entailment, only one of the sentences must be true for the other to be true, but that sentence may be true without the other sentence nescessarily having to be true.	'Rachel is John's wife' entails 'John is married' (but John is married does not entail Rachel being his wife), 'Rachel has two brothers' entails 'Rachel is not an only child' (but Rachel not being an only child does not entail Rachel having two brothers).
Contradiction	Sentences can also be semantically related when they contradict each other. Sentences contradict each other when for one to be true the other must not be.	'Rachel is an only child' and 'Rachel's brother is called Phil', 'Alex is alive' and 'Alex died last week'.

6. Ambiguity:

One of the aspects of how meaning works in language which is studied most in semantics is ambiguity. A sentence is ambiguous when it has two or more possible meanings, but how does ambiguity arise in language? A sentence can be ambiguous for either (or both!) of the following reasons: **Lexical Ambiguity:** A sentence is lexically ambiguous when it can have two or more possible meanings due to polysemous (words that have two or more related meanings) or homophonous (a single word which has two or more different meanings) words. Example of lexically ambiguous sentence: **'Prostitutes appeal to the Pope'**. This sentence is ambiguous because the word 'appeal' is polysemous and can mean 'ask for help' or 'are attractive to'. **Structural Ambiguity:** A sentence is structurally ambiguous if it can have two or more possible meanings due to the words it contains being able to be combined in different ways which create different meanings. Example of structurally ambiguous sentence: **'Enraged cow injures farmer with axe'**. In this sentence the ambiguity arises from the fact that the 'with axe' can either refer to the farmer, or to the act of injuring being carried out (by the cow) 'with axe'.

English Proverb

- **A fruitless life is useless life**
  Meaning : Hidup tidak berarti tanpa berbuat sesuatu yang bermanfaat.
- **A good book as a great friend**
  Meaning : Buku yang bermanfaat adalah teman yang hebat.
- **A little better than none**
  Meaning : Sedikit lebih baik daripada tidak sama sekali

- **A man without ambition is like a bird without wing**
  Meaning : Seseorang yang tidak punya cita-cita, seperti burung tak bersayap
- **A tree is known by its fruit**
  Meaning : Seseorang dinilai dari karyanya
- **Be what you want to be**
  Meaning : Jadilah apa yang kamu inginkan
- **Bending without breaking**
  Meaning : Mengalah bukan berarti kalah
- **Better forgiven than resentment**
  Meaning : Lebih baik memaafkan daripada berlaku dendam
- **Better lose the saddle than the horse**
  Meaning : Lebih baik baik berhenti dan kehilangan hal kecil, daripada dilanjutkan dan beresiko kehilangan semua.
- **A friend in need is a friend indeed.**
  Meaning : Teman sejati adalah teman yang bukan ada hanya dikala senang, melainkan yang selalu ada dikala susah.
- **A pig in poke.**
  Meaning : Tertipu karena tidak tahu, membeli sesuatu tanpa tahu kualitas barang yang dibeli.
- **Action sspeak louder than words.**
  Meaning : Perbuatan lebih berarti daripada kata-kata yang hanya diucapkan saja.
- **Better late than never.**
  Meaning : Lebih baik telat daripada tidak sama sekali.
- **Blood is thicker than water.**
  Meaning : Darah lebih kental daripada air. Saudara mempunyai ikatan lebih kuat daripada hanya sekedar teman.
- **Die in the last ditch.**
  Meaning : Berjuang sampai titik darah penghabisan, berjuang

untuk mendapatkan/mempertahankan sesuatu tanpa ada satu pun yang menghalangi.

- **Don't judge abook by it scover.**
  Meaning : Jangan menilai buku dari sampulnya, penampilan luar yang buruk tidak menjamin jika didalamnya buruk pula.
- **Easy come, easy go.**
  Meaning : Sesuatu yang didapatkan dengan gampang, biasanya akan hilang dengan gampang juga.
- **Handsome is a shand some does.**
  Meaning : Budi pekerti yang tinggi dan sopan lebih penting daripada penampilan luarnya saja.
- **Home sweet home.**
  Meaning : Tidak ada tempat yang paling nyaman selain rumah kita sendiri.
- **Kill two birds with one stone.**
  Meaning : Menyelesaikan beberapa tugas hanya dengan mengerjakannya satu kali.
- **Laughter is the best medicine.**
  Meaning : Tertawa adalah obat yang terbaik, dengan tertawa biasanya penyakit menjadi lebih ringan diderita.
- **Man proposes but God disposes.**
  Meaning : Manusia hanya berusaha tetapi Tuhan yang menentukan berhasil atau tidaknya.
- **No gain without pain.**
  Meaning : Tidak ada kesuksesan tanpa perjuangan dan usaha.
- **Sell some one down the river,**
  Meaning : Mengkhianati teman sendiri dikala mendapat musibah.

- **To build castle in the air.**
  Meaning : Mengharapkan sesuatu yang tidak mungkin dimiliki.
- **Two head sare bigger than one.**
  Meaning : Pemikiran dua orang untuk menyelesaikan suatu masalah lebih baik daripada hanya dipikirkan oleh satu orang.
- **Well begun is hal fdone.**
  Meaning : Memulai pekerjaan dengan cara yang baik akan memudahkan pekerjaan selanjutnyadanbisa dianggap telah menyelesaikan setengah dari pekerjaan.
- **When the cat is away the mice will play.**
  Meaning : Jika kucing pergi tikus akan bermain, longgarnya pengawasan akan memudahkan orang untuk melakukan penyelewengan.
- **Where there is smoke there is fire.**
  Meaning : Ada asap ada api, Semua kejadian pasti ada sebabnya.

IDIOM

Idioms	Arti
Cut off	Memotong, berhenti
Damn it!	Sialan!
Depend on	Bergantung pada
Desire to	Ingin
Die away	Menghilang pelan pelan
Die down	Menurun, melemah
Die off	Mati
Die out	Hilang pelan-pelan
Do without	Hidup tanpa
Down to earth	Realistis, praktis

Dress up	Mengenakan pakaian
Drop by	Singgah
Drop in	Mampir
Drop off	Meninggalkan
Drop out	Keluar
Fall behind	Ketinggalan
Fall off	Jatuh
Fed up with	Dijejali dengan
Find out	Menemukan
For nothing	Cuma-Cuma
For sale	Untuk dijual
For the sake of something	Demi kepentingan
From now on	Mulai dari sekarang
Get along with	Tinggal, hidup
Get along	Maju
Get back	Kembali
Get home	Pulang
Get lost	Menghilang
Get over	Mengatasi
Get over it	Menyadari
Get rid of	Melepas
Give away	Menyerahkan
Give in	Menyerah
Give out	Membagi
Give way	Mengalah
Go ahead	Terus maju
Go by	Berlalu
Go on	Teruskanlah
Go over	Memeriksa

Go through	Mengalami
Go wrong	Tak beres
Good-will	Kemauan
Good heavens1	Astaga, bukan main
Good-looking	Bagus, tampan
Had better	Sebaiknya
Hand over	Menyerah
Hang on	Tunggu
Have on	Memakai
Hold on	Menahan
I see	O,,begitu
In fact	Sebenarnya
In the end	Pada akhirnya
In time	Pada waktunya
In vain	Sia sia
In view of	Mengingat
Keep an eye on	Mengawasi
Keep off	Jauhi
Knock down	Memukul jatuh
Let alone	Apalagi
Look after	Merawat
Look around	Mencari
Look in	Mampir
Look into	Menyelidiki
Look on	Menonton
Look out	Awas
Look over	Memeriksa
Look up	Mencari kata kata
Make a living	Mencari nafkah

Make believe	Berpura-pura
Make friends	Berteman
Make good	Berhasil
Make it	Berhasil mencapinya
Make good time	Berpergian dengan cepat
Make out	Berhasil
Make over	Merubah
Make sense	Jelas
Make sure	Memastikan
Make up	Berdamai, merias
Make up for	Mengisi, mengejar
Never ever	Tak pernah lagi
No longer	Tidak lagi sekarang
No way	Ngga mau
Not at all	Tidak sama sekali
Now and then	Kadang-kadang
On the other hand	Sebaliknya
On the way	Dalam perjalanan menuju
On time	Tepat waktu
Pass away	Meninggal dunia
Pass by	Melewati
Pass out	Tak sadarkan diri
Pay a call	Berkunjung
Pick out	Memilih
Pick up	Mengambil
Point out	Menunjukkan
Put an end	Mengakhiri
Put down	Meletakkan
Put off	Menunda

Put on	Mengenakan
Put out	Mematikan
Put together	Merakit
Put up	Mendirikan
Put up with	Memberikan toleransi
Read over	Membaca sekilas
Red-handed	Tertangkap basah
Right away	Sekarang
Run away	Lari
Run into	Menubruk
Run out	Habis (stok)
Run over	Menabrak (kendaraan)
Set about	Mulai
Set fire to	Membakar
Set free	Membebaskan
Shake hands	Berjabat tangan
Show up	Muncul
Show off	Beraksi
Stand for	Melambangkan

Pragmatics

1. Definition of Pragmatic

Pragmatics is a subfield of linguistics and semiotics that studies the ways in which context contributes to meaning. Pragmatics encompasses speech act theory, conversational implicature, talk in interaction and other approaches to language behavior in philosophy, sociology, linguistics and anthropology. Unlike semantics, which examines meaning that is conventional or "coded" in a given language, pragmatics studies how the transmission of meaning depends not only on structural and linguistic knowledge (e.g., grammar, lexicon, etc.) of the speaker and listener, but also on the context of the utterance, any pre-existing knowledge about those involved, the inferred intent of the speaker, and other factors.[2] In this respect, pragmatics explains how language users are able to overcome apparent ambiguity, since meaning relies on the manner, place, time etc. of an utterance.

The study of pragmatics explores the ability of language users to match utterances with contexts in which they are appropriate; in Stalnaker's words, pragmatics is "the study of linguistic acts and the contexts in which they are performed"(1972:383). The teaching of pragmatics aims to facilitate the learners'ability to find socially appropriate language for the situations they encounter.Within second and foreign language studies and teaching, pragmatics encompasses

speech acts, conversational structure, conversational implicature, conversational management, discourse organization, and sociolinguistic aspects of language use, such as choice of address forms.

These areas of language and language use have not traditionally been addressed in language teaching curricula,leading one of our students to ask if we could teach him “the secret rules of English. Pragmatic rules for language use are often subconscious, and even native speakers are often unaware of pragmatic rules until they are broken (and feelings are hurt or offense is taken). Pragmatics does not receive the attention in language teacher education programs that other areas of language do. Nevertheless, rules of language use do not have to be “secret rules” for learners or teachers. A growing number of studies exist that describe language use in a variety of English-speaking communities, and these studies have yielded important information for teaching pragmatics. From the teacher’s perspective, the observation of how speakers do things with words has demystified the pragmatic process at least to the point where we can provide responsible, concrete lessons and activities to language learners. We are in the position to give assurance that they can learn pragmatics in their second or

2. Speech act

A **speech act** in linguistics and the philosophy of language is an utterance that has performative function in language and communication. According to Kent Bach, "almost any speech act is really the performance of several acts at once, distinguished by different aspects of the speaker's intention: there is the act of saying something, what one does in saying it, such as requesting or promising, and how one is trying to affect one's audience." The

contemporary use of the term goes back to J. L. Austin's development of performative utterances and his theory of locutionary, illocutionary, and perlocutionary acts. Speech acts are commonly taken to include such acts as promising, ordering, greeting, warning, inviting and congratulating.

- **assertives** = speech acts that commit a speaker to the truth of the expressed proposition, e.g. reciting a creed
- **directives** = speech acts that are to cause the hearer to take a particular action, e.g. requests, commands and advice
- **commissives** = speech acts that commit a speaker to some future action, e.g. promises and oaths
- **expressives** = speech acts that express the speaker's attitudes and emotions towards the proposition, e.g. congratulations, excuses and thanks
- **declaratives** = speech acts that change the reality in accord with the proposition of the declaration, e.g. baptisms, pronouncing someone guilty or pronouncing someone husband and wife

3. Implicatur

Implicature is a technical term in the pragmatics subfield of linguistics, coined by H. P. Grice, which refers to what is *suggested* in an utterance, even though neither expressed nor *strictly implied* (that is, entailed) by the utterance.[1] For example, the sentence "*Mary had a baby and got married*" strongly suggests that Mary had the baby before the wedding, but the sentence would still be *strictly true* if Mary had her baby after she got married. Further, if we add the qualification "*— not necessarily in that order*" to the original sentence, then the implicature is *cancelled* even though the meaning of the original sentence is not altered.

Sosiolinguistic

1. Implicature: Some Basic Oppositions

Implicature is a component of speaker meaning that constitutes an aspect of what is **meant** in a speaker's utterance without being part of what is **said**.What a speaker intends to communicate is characteristically far richer than what she directly expresses; linguistic meaning radically underdetermines the message conveyed and understood. Speaker S tacitly exploits pragmatic principles to bridge this gap and counts on hearer H to invoke the same principles for the purposes of utterance interpretation. The contrast between the said and the meant, and derivatively between the said and the implicated (the meant-but-unsaid), dates back to the fourth-century rhetoricians Servius and Donatus, who characterized litotes – pragmatic understatement – as a figure in which we say less but mean more ("minus dicimuset plus significamus.Hoffmann 1987 and Horn 1991a).

In the Gricean model, the bridge from what is said (the literal content of the uttered sentence, determined by its grammatical structure with the reference of indexicals resolved) to what is communicated is built through implicature. As an aspect of speaker meaning, implicatures are distinct from the non-logical inferences the hearer draws; it is a category mistake to attribute implicatures either to hearers or to sentences (e.g. *P and Q*) and subsentential expressions (e.g. *some*). But we can systematically (at least for generalized

implicatures; see below) correlate the speaker's intention to implicate q (in uttering p in context C), the expression p that carries the implicature in C, and the inference of q induced by the speaker's utterance of p in C. Subtypes of implicature are illustrated by (1a–c) (after Grice 1961: §3); the primed member of each pair is (in certain contexts) deducible from its unprimed counterpart:

(1) a. Even KEN knows it's unethical.

a'. Ken is the least likely [of a contextually invoked set] to know it's unethical.

b. [in a recommendation letter for a philosophy position]

Jones dresses well and writes grammatical English.

b'. Jones is no good at philosophy.

c. The cat is in the hamper or under the bed.

c'. I don't know for a fact that the cat is under the bed.

Unlike an entailment or logical presupposition, the inference induced by *even* in (1a, a') is irrelevant to the truth conditions of the proposition: (1a) is true if and only if Ken knows it's unethical. The inference is not cancelable without contradiction *(#Even Ken knows it's unethical, but that's not surprising*), but it is detachable, in the sense that the same truth-conditional content is expressible in a way that removes (detaches) the inference: *KEN knows it's unethical (too).* Such detachable but non-cancelable aspects of meaning that are neither part of, nor calculable from, what is said are conventional implicatures, akin to pragmatic presuppositions (Stalnaker 1974).

Indeed, along with connectives like *but,* the now classic instances of conventional implicature involve precisely those particles traditionally analyzed as instances of pragmatic presupposition: the additive component of adverbial particles like *even* and *too,* the "effortful" component of truth-conditionally transparent "implicatives" like *manage* and *bother,* and the existential component of focus constructions like clefts. But in contrast with these non-truth-conditional components of an expression's conventional lexical meaning,1 the inferences induced by (1b, c) are NON-conventional, i.e. calculable from the utterance of such sentences in a particular context, given the nature of conversation as a shared goal-oriented enterprise.

In both cases, the speaker's implicature of the corresponding primed proposition is cancelable (either explicitly by appending material inconsistent with it – "*but I don't mean to suggest that* . . ." – or by altering the context of utterance) but non-detachable (given that any other way of expressing the literal content of (1b, c) in the same context would license the same inference).2 What distinguishes (1b) from (1c) is the generality of the circumstances in which the inference is ordinarily licensed. Only when the speaker of (1b) is evaluating the competence of the referent for a philosophy position will the addressee normally be expected to infer that the speaker had intended to convey the content of (1b'); this is an instance of particularized conversational implicature.3 In (1c), on the other hand, the inference – that the speaker does not know in which of the two locations the cat can be found – is induced in the absence of a special or marked context. The default nature of the triggering in (1c) represents the linguistically significant concept of generalized conversational implicature. But in both cases, as with conventional

implicature, it is crucially not the proposition or sentence, but the speaker or utterance, that

induces the relevant implicatum.

The significance of the generalized/particularized dichotomy has been much debated; cf. Hirschberg (1991) and Carston (1995) for skepticism and Levinson

(2000a) for a spirited defense.4 Whatever the theoretical status of the distinction, *Implicature* 5 it is apparent that some implicatures are induced **only** in a special context (if Mr. Jones had been applying for a job as a personal secretary, Grice's remark in (1b) would have helped, rather than torpedoed, his candidacy), while others go through **unless** a special context is present (as in the utterance of (1c) as a clue in a treasure hunt). The contrast between particularized and generalized implicature emerges clearly in this scene from *When Harry Met Sally* (1989 screenplay by Nora Ephron). Harry (Billy Crystal) is setting up a blind date between his buddy Jess (Bruno Kirby) and his woman friend – but not (yet) girlfriend – Sally (Meg Ryan):

(2) *Jess*: *If she's so great why aren't YOU taking her out?*

Harry: How many times do I have to tell you, we're just friends.

Jess: *So you're saying she's not that attractive.*

Harry: No, I told you she IS attractive.

Jess: *But you also said she has a good personality.*

Harry: She HAS a good personality.

Jess: *[Stops walking, turns around, throws up hands, as if to say "Aha!"]*

Harry: What?

→ *Jess*: *When someone's not that attractive they're ALWAYS described as*

having a good personality.

Harry: Look, if you were to ask me what does she look like and I said she has a good personality, that means she's not attractive.

But just because I happen to mention that she has a good personality, she could be either. She could be attractive with a good personality or not attractive with a good personality.

Jess: *So which one is she?*

Harry: Attractive.

⇒ *Jess*: *But not beautiful, right?*

Jess's first arrowed observation incorrectly reanalyzes a particularized

2. Speech Act

When we speak we can do all sorts of things, from aspirating a consonant, to constructing a relative clause, to insulting a guest, to starting a war. These are all, pre-theoretically, speech acts – acts done in the process of speaking. The theory of speech acts, however, is especially concerned with those acts that are not completely covered under one or more of the major divisions of grammar – phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics – or under some general theory of actions. Even in cases in which a particular speech act is not completely described in grammar, formal features of the utterance used in carrying out the act might be quite directly tied to its accomplishment, as when we request something by uttering an

imperative sentence or greet someone by saying “Hi!” Thus, there is clearly a conventional aspect to the study of speech acts. Sometimes, however, the achievement cannot be so directly tied to convention, as when we thank a guest by saying, “Oh, I love chocolates.” There is no convention of English to the effect that stating that one loves chocolates counts as an act of thanking.

In this case, the speaker’s intention in making the utterance and a recognition by the addressee of that intention under the conditions of utterance clearly plays an important role. Note that whether convention or intention seems paramount, success is not guaranteed. The person to whom the conventionalized greeting “Hi!” is addressed might not speak English, but some other language in which the uttered syllable means “Go away!,” or the guest may not have brought chocolates at all, but candied fruit, in which cases these attempts to extend a greeting and give a compliment are likely to fail. On the other hand, failure, even in the face of contextual adversity, is also not guaranteed. Thus, one may succeed in greeting a foreigner who understands nothing of what is being said by making it clear through gesture and tone of voice that that is the intent. Much of speech act theory is therefore devoted to striking the proper balance between convention and intention. Real-life acts of speech usually involve interpersonal relations of some kind: A speaker does something with respect to an audience by saying certain words

3. Reference

Hockett and Altmann (1968: 63–4) presented a list of what they found to be the distinctive characteristics which, collectively, define what it is to be a human language. Among the characteristics is the phenomenon of “aboutness,” that is, in using a human language we talk **about** things that are external to ourselves. This not only includes

things that we find in our immediate environment, but also things that are **displaced** in time and space. For example, at this moment I can just as easily talk about Tahiti or the planet Pluto, neither of which are in my immediate environment nor ever have been, as I can about this telephone before me or the computer I am using at this moment. Temporal displacement is similar: it would seem I can as easily talk about Abraham Lincoln or Julius Caesar, neither a contemporary of mine, as I can of former president Bill Clinton, or my good friend John, who are contemporaries of mine.

This notion of aboutness is, intuitively, lacking in some contrasting instances. For example, it is easy to think that animal communication systems lack this characteristic – that the mating call of the male cardinal may be caused by a certain biological urge, and may serve as a signal that attracts mates, but the call itself is (putatively) not **about** either of those things. Or, consider an example from human behavior. I hit my thumb with a hammer while attempting to drive in a nail. I say,

"Ouch!" In so doing I am saying this because of the pain, and I am communicating to anyone within earshot that I am in pain, but the word *ouch* itself is not about the pain I feel. If, on the other hand, I say, with unnatural calmness, "Pain is present in my thumb," then I am in this instance talking **about** pain. Such intuitions have, for the most part, been extremely compelling,In fact so compelling that the correspondence theory of meaning has, since classical times, in one form or another, been by far the most persistently pursued notion of how meaning in language is best characterized. Not to put too fine an edge on it, this is quite simply the idea that the significance or import of *Reference* 75 natural language utterances is found in the ways in which they correspond to facts and things in the world around us. In

present times, this finds its clearest articulation in the framework of model-theoretic semantics. Yet not everyone finds these basic intuitions of aboutness quite so compelling as to base a theory of natural language meaning upon them. Most notably in the twentieth century, Wittgenstein is generally interpreted as articulating quite a different view of natural language meaning which, at best, treats "aboutness" as derivative or epiphenomenal (Wittgenstein 1953).

Chomsky (1981, 1992, 1995a), Hornstein (1984), Ludlow (2003) and others have articulated a similarly skeptical view about its centrality. Since this chapter is about (the notion of) reference, I set aside consideration of such alternatives and focus exclusively on work which does find this initial intuition most compelling. The word *about(ness)* itself, however, is a folk notion that is too general and vague to really get at something fundamental about natural language. We may ask, quite sensibly, what is Beethoven's Third Symphony about, what is the relationship of a couple really about, what is a painting by Mondrian about, or what was the First World War all about, anyway? Even if we confine ourselves to linguistic utterances, we find ourselves with a slippery notion that is subject to all sorts of doubt and uncertainty. In saying to a person on the street "My garden is poor this year," I could very sensibly be talking about the cool weather, the lack of rain, the presence of pests, or a decision I made some time ago to plant a certain variety of tomatoes. I could be talking about any of these things, and more. However, the one thing that **is** clear that I am talking about in this instance that seems inescapable is quite simply that I am, in fact, talking about my garden. This is, obviously, because in uttering the sentence, I use the phrase *my garden*, whereas in this instance there is no particular mention of rain, weather, pests, or poor plant selection.

To distinguish these two types of *aboutness*, the term reference is going to be used for those things overtly mentioned in the utterance of a sentence. Thus, I may be talking about the dry weather, but I am **referring to** my garden (and the current year as well). This is helpful, in that it localizes and objectifies a certain type of aboutness in a reasonably clear and intuitive way. Yet, even here there is all manner of cause for question and uncertainty. For example, in the utterance above, might I also be referring to myself (by using *my*),

4. Deixis

Deixis is a big black fly in the ointment. Deixis introduces subjective, attentional, intentional and, of course, context-dependent properties into natural languages. Further, it is a much more pervasive feature of languages than normally recognized. This complicates a tidy treatment within formal theories of semantics and pragmatics. Deixis is also critical for our ability to learn a language, which philosophers for centuries have linked to the possibility of ostensive definition. Despite this theoretical importance, deixis is one of the most empirically understudied core areas of pragmatics; we are far from understanding its boundaries and have no adequate cross-linguistic typology of deictic expression.

This article does not attempt to review either all the relevant theory (see,e.g., the collections in Davis 1991, section III, or Kasher 1998, vol. III) or all of what is known about deictic systems in the world's languages (see, e.g., Anderson and Keenan 1985, Diessel 1999). Rather, I attempt to pinpoint some of the most tantalizing theoretical and descriptive problems, to sketch the way in which the subject interacts with other aspects of pragmatics, and to illustrate the kind of advances that could be made with further empirical work. A word on terminology: I will use the terms deixis and indexicality largely

co-extensively – they reflect different traditions (see Bühler 1934 and Peirce in Buchler 1940) and have become associated with linguistic and philosophical approaches respectively. But I will make this distinction: indexicality will be used to label the broader phenomena of contextual dependency and deixis the narrower linguistically relevant aspects of indexicality.

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