



COURSE BOOK FOR:

INTRODUCTION TO LINGUISTICS FOR ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

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**PLUS
LANGUAGE
BRANCHES MAP**



PREFACE

We envisaged this book as a main reference for English language teachers. Like many may have thought that this book laid out in both theory and practical terms why English language teachers should study linguistics for their future professional teaching career. This book lays out in theoretical terms why many of our most common views about the study on linguistics are fundamentally important. This book equips the theoretical importance with practical assignments and authentic tasks. These are the times that try language teacher's souls on linguistics, and, for that reason, this book advocates its own petite contribution in knowledge-development.

This book has been developed from the Introduction to Linguistics subject and its syllabus design which we have been teaching to our students at the English Language Education, Faculty of Education and Teacher Training, UIN Ar-Raniry Banda Aceh, Indonesia for a couple of years. Providing the students with most fundamental topics and the latest up to date exercises of modern linguistics is the goal of this book. It also includes a glossary of the most central terminologies which students, as a linguistic teacher wannabe, have to know. They can use it not only during the course but also in other linguistics-related subjects. We have written this book in a way that does all concepts will be explained systematically assisted with actual exercises. By doing so, we try to make a rather sophisticated linguistics topics as simple

to understand as possible. This book is aimed at giving students a broad outline how introduction to linguistics for English Language Teaching in classroom situation looks like. It will outline students to important topics in the field, and bring into the light the key issues in each chapter. The book is written for university level student, but explained in accessible language of presentation. After having introduced the pre-content and basic generic concepts on the study of human language in the outset of the book, students will be able to move on to wider indispensable topics in linguistics.

As linguistics is known as a big field of study, and of course, no size fits all, we believe that no one is the expert of every linguistics topic. To ensure that chapters contain authoritative elements on its field, most chapters are interchangeably revised by the three of us as team teaching, as well as team authors in linguistics. That is why the style of writing will be somewhat unique because it is written by three different persons. It is hoped that this will be quite exciting to read. This book has been a team effort contributing their specific academic expertise. Writing complex and fundamental topics with simple and understandable language is not as easy as it looks. I owe the team authors of this book my highest appreciation and wish to thank them for working tirelessly to ensure that they can meet the given deadline to publish this manuscript on time. This book is expected to be a useful teaching material and I expect you to feel the same way after reading it

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

We cannot overlook the driving force that linguistics can have on the overall competence and performance of human's communication. The forms and patterns of linguistics can be researched through a thorough investigation of human action and interaction. Its effects on human's life, will help us to understand a variety of linguistic aspects can have in our life, and also to analyse the general impact of language and linguistics from its smallest internal unit up to its broadest sense of use in social contexts.

Mastering linguistics plays a major role in the discourse of the study of language and linguistics in general. Unlike in most early linguistics books where writers focused mostly on the theoretical concepts and generic aspects of linguistics, this book attempts to enrich the philosophical body of knowledge on the study of language and linguistics by also introducing the practical part of it. This advantage is accompanied by adding one more benefits to the book, namely, providing teaching material to English language teacher's candidate. English language teacher's candidates, because of their high level of exposure to students, need to be particularly skilful on this subject. In other words, this book highlight the necessity of providing teaching materials for English language teacher, where in most

cases have been long forgotten in the contemporary background of English language teaching in Indonesia.

A. Objectives

Linguistics is one of the compulsory subjects. It acts as the standard for linguistic competency in English Language Education Study Program. This fact requires further elaboration from the course provider to provide not only the conceptual framework of the study on language and linguistics, but also the practicality of the book for English language teachers as a second language learners and teachers. That is why this book main objective is attempting to meet the space between the existing knowledge productions in linguistics.

So far, no single teaching materials or handbooks for students, especially those wannabe language teachers, related to the course, including teaching materials that tailored the current needs of the students. Most books and teaching materials were adopted and taken from linguistics books focusing only on the general introduction to the study language conceptually; something which is primarily true, but does not mirror the definite demand of the market. Hence, it is expected that this book became one of the main reference in the design of linguistic course syllabus or any works associated with it.

This book is an input not only for students who study English language and future English language teachers, but also for course providers and policy makers at the university level particularly at the Faculty of Education, Teacher Training and Pedagogy in several ways. First, the book can be considered as the preliminary effort of curriculum strategies used by English language teacher candidates. This area has been inadequately written within the context of current teaching environment in Indonesia, particularly in Aceh, where studies of the linguistics as a seemingly difficult subject to learn and to teach have been dominant.

On societal level, this book is aimed at providing a modest contribution to the development of studies of language and linguistics in both conceptual and practical framework that allows the integration of teaching methods and approaches for English language teachers. The significance of this book lies in its potential to help explain philosophical concept to actual social interactions and social construction processes which have implications

on every aspect of human communication. Moreover, the specific but contextual understanding of the study on language and linguistics in these situations can be a milestone for designing and employing more adaptable linguistics references.

On a personal level, the objective is to incorporate the fulfilment of the authors academic background as a university lecturer; the interest in the study on language and linguistics, and the desire to contribute to the knowledge gap in this subject as one of the most needed skill of language in teaching and academic work. Finally, it offers opportunities for us to enhance the ability to conduct study on language and linguistics and it could be a basis for carrying out further research in this area.

B. Scope of This Book

These materials are current guideline for students who will take the course Introduction to Linguistics. This book aims to introduce the study of linguistics in general to students, including a theoretical introduction, classification and categorization of linguistic as well as the possibility of its application in everyday life to date, including the urgency and its contribution in the field of language education in the form of exercises.

At the time of writing, the existence of predominantly separate theoretical and empirical basic reference on the study of language and linguistics in the context of English language teaching was on its peak. On one hand, such approach extends the inattention for the wannabe language teachers' actual needs. On the other hand, based on the current trend, a shift in the study of language and linguistics has occurred toward a complete understanding the development rather than focusing too much on the philosophical construct of a study as was previously the case. Such shift is consistent with the scope of this book.

With regard to the scope of content, our current work focuses on outlining typically established topics in linguistics with practical exercise succinctly. We systematically assemble the understanding of linguistics with gradual formation of language in human communication system – from the history of language and linguistics, the study of human speech sounds and sentence, to the study of meaning and the use of language in wider social environments. In order to deal with problems occurring in studying different languages, language acquisition will also be included in this book.

Chapter 2

LANGUAGE AND LINGUISTICS

“Language is the most massive and inclusive art we know, a mountainous and anonymous work of unconscious generations” (Edward Sapir).

This chapter is designed to give a selective account of previous works and theories on the study of language and linguistics. It includes the linkage between the basic definition of language and linguistics. The chapter will outline only a small portion of the aspect and it will not attempt to provide a comprehensive explanation. It will focus on literature that this book found useful in developing an analytical framework. This chapter discusses the following facets: definitions and origins, distinctive features, branches, perspectives of language and linguistics as well as prominent linguists.

A. What is Language?

To understand language, we must clarify two definitions of language, namely theoretical and operational definition. This is important because like Fromkin et.al (2013:1) argue that “we live in a world of language”.

A theoretical definition of language must relate as remote as possible to the generally agreed characteristics rather than a rigid and static one. Language, according to Sapir “is purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of a system voluntarily produced symbols” (2014:79). In this case, it is central to acknowledge from the beginning that there are significant emphasis on the impact of linked and systematic presentation of ideas, emotions and desires.

On the other hand, an operational definition of language as the counterpart for its theoretical explanation must also be made. More importantly, the construction of practical account of language should rely on the comprehensive use of the so-called “multi-scale coordination” of systematic expression of distributed feeling and thinking within its collective, individual and constitutive human’s characteristics (Cowley 2011). Therefore, an exact account of technical definition of language in its operational scope is often understood as merely philosophical or a part of conceptual attribute. In its very basic practical definition language can also include gestures, symbols, signs or motions to be able to communicate with others.

B. Origins of Language

Whatever language we speak, listen, write and read, it actually helps to represent our identity. Since the origin of a language in human communication has been a subject of debate over centuries. The oldest theories of human language history came from early theologians. Within Muslim-Judaic-Christian religions, language was divinely given to human. For example, in the early part of Muslim’s Holy Book – The Qur’an –, Adam and Eve were original pairs of human creature attributed with the ability and knowledge to list name of things in front of the angels. This argument, according to Crithley (2014: 1-16), promoted the idea of “lingua adamica” – the language of human being repleted in Adam when he was created by God.

However, neither linguists nor theologists failed to provide a detailed record on the history of language conception on human beings. Rather, as Origi (2016) perceives that language in its historical concern is still partially unexplained, an unresolved mystery. But we think, that either linguists or theologist, or everybody in this world, would say that language

serves as a central communicative means in all human activities. Language skills were thought to be naturally exercised and perhaps become inherent in human nature.

The origin of English as a language, like we found in English speaking countries such as Britain, United States, Australia or elsewhere around the globe nowadays can be traced back to the moment of Anglo-Saxon invasion in the fifth century to British Isles (Algeo and Butcher 2013: 53). It is difficult to determine the precise historical report on this matter, but most linguists hypothesized that English is classified into one of Indo-European language during this time. Including in this group are Scandinavian languages, such as Swedish and Icelandic, West Europeans such as German and France, Southern Europeans such as Spanish and Portuguese, Balkan and Eastern Europeans like Russian, Polish, and even scattered to Persian and Sanskrit languages in India and Iran (Algeo and Butcher 2013: 53).

According to Algeo and Butcher 2013 (84-195), the history of English can be divided into three periods: the old (449-1100), the middle (1100-1500), the early modern (1500-1800), the late modern English period (1800-present). In their eventful account on the history of English language, they highlight that old English period was inspired by the migration of Angles, Saxons, Jutes and Frisians of Great Britain. The following period was the middle period, when The Normans defeated The British Isles and replaced the native English with Anglo-Normans and Norman French as the official royal language in England. In the early modern period, English has made way to become the global language. As for the late modern English period, it is nurtured in the light of industrial revolution and the rise of British colonial empire. British colonialism which ruled the world from Canada to Australia, from America to India, from Caribbean to Egypt, and from Southeast Asia to South Africa has paved the way for the widespread use of English in its colony and commonwealth countries. This universality, does contribute to the advent of “new Englishes” such as Australian English, American English, Singaporean or Malay English, or Indian English. During this period, English has transformed from obscure Germanic language to an international official language of the world citizens. In other word, Knight and Lewis (2014:4) assert that English in the late modern period has fulfilled its social origins, namely, creating new form of Englishes assembled by multiple interacting social factors.

C. Distinctive Features of Human Language

The principle features of human language are somewhat distinctive to other languages, especially that of animals. Some of these features are specifically attached to human beings. As an inseparable part of human community, language has developed science and technology in an impressive way. The following explanation will provide some basic distinctive features of human languages.

Social

In this sense, language is a set of communication signals by humans in a community. It acts as a representation of a social group, consisting consensus which allows its members to interact and to cooperate with each other. Language constructs social identity and social institution. It aims at developing culture and establishing human relations. Yule (2014: 13) puts forwards that language in here is described as the “cultural transmission”, and Agha (2007) argues that it is the “effective means of social relations”.

Tool of communication

Language is the best means of all self-expression. It is the purpose of language to practice communication (Hanks 1996). With language we are able to communicate ideas, feelings and desires to other people in our community or with other modern or ancient cultures. It is also through language that human can differentiate present, past and future in their life.

Productivity

Language is the process of production. We speak and write to express thoughts that enable neither speaker nor hearers may both understand without any difficulties. The language changes accordingly, meeting the demands and needs of speech community. It is highly elaborated effort to produce linguistic units to serve a specific purpose of communication. This means that the ability of human to produce new and novel expressions to describe new objects is infinite and unlimited (Yule, 2014:13).

Creativity

By creativity means that humans can talk about topics and places that can be seen (tangible) or cannot be seen (intangible/abstract). Human creates messages because they can practice the already established linguistic grammatical units into a new semantic and communicative aims. Language also triggers creativity and serve as “the art of common talk” (Carter 2015).

Arbitrary

This feature is likely one of the most intriguing one because it entails the fact that both spoken and written communications of human language are unique. There is no linear, inherent or logical relation or uniformity. Different languages of the world create no direct connection or in other word no natural link between the linguistic form and the comprehension or the meaning (Yule, 2014, p. 12).

Symbolic

A symbol stands for something, a substitution. Language is therefore a symbol for concepts, things, ideas, objects and anything that it can represent. It consists of various sound symbols that are used to denote the objects, events or meanings. Language holds symbolic power (Bourdieu and Thompson 1991) and acts as a symbol for human action (Burke 1996).

Systematic

The following feature of human language is systematic. Language is designed systematically. It arranged in particular system and rules. Every language in this world has its own consensus to be pronounced or specific regulation in writing. The emergence of grammar is evidence that language is naturally systematic and structured (Goodman 1999).

Displacement

Displacement is the ability of human being to carry out meaning that exceeds the immediate sphere of space and time. It is exercised to describe to objects which are virtually absent. This distinctive feature ensures that words are still compatible without visualization. This feature is described as “a world of words” (Williams 1998) or

“representation” (Thiesmeyer 2003).

Vocal or verbal

A systematic language requires a complicated speech organ to produce a set of various sounds. Only humans are innately given the speech organ to do such things. Human language is primarily equipped with vocal sounds as the initial skill produced by physiological articulatory mechanism.

D. What is Linguistics?

Linguistics is the scientific and systematic study of human language. It analyses as a system for relating form, meaning and context at the same time. Whatever we do in our every day's life, we will realize that linguistics involved in almost every part of human communication. To study linguistics is to expand our insight into one of the most central parts of being a human: to be able to communicate through language. By studying linguistics one will able to know how language operates, how language is employed and how language is changed and preserved. Linguistics uses the scientific method of language study that embraces more than form, meaning and context. When we study linguistics, we are at the intersection of every discipline. Hence, as has been outlined by Robin (2014:1), at the outset it is perhaps helpful to take into account that the scientific study of language must be carefully discerned with the study of particular language.

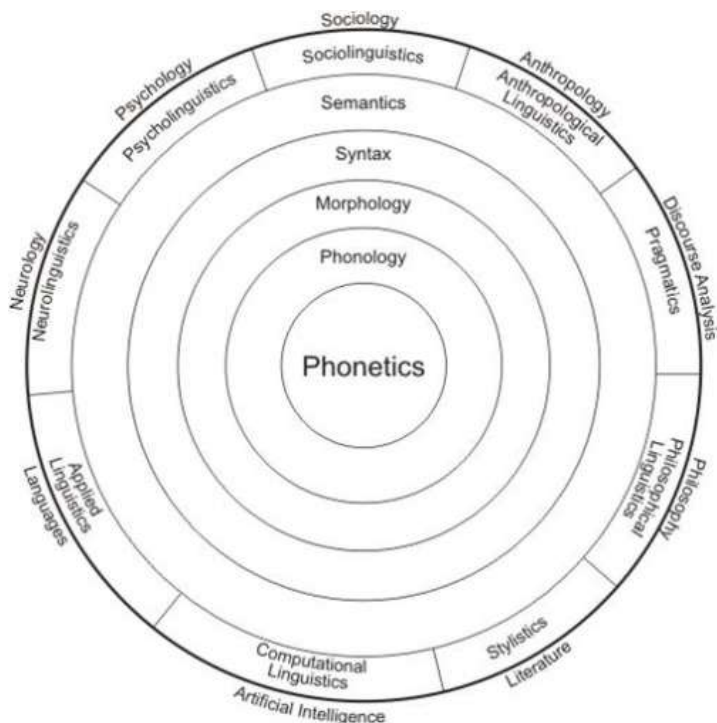


Figure 1.1 Scope of Linguistics

E. Language Branches

The interest in language branches and families appears to have slowed down recently. Why? Because there is seemingly no culture that have complete records concerning the different and various language branches across the world. Most linguists studied the Indo-European family branches, because these are the official languages in many countries and it has developed into the language of instructions in many disciplines. Different language branches with its own sub-branches reveal different cultures and ways of regulated communication. What comes next is the categorization of language groups based on its common ancestor and genetic origin or it may also called proto-language. These groupings may not reflect the complete picture of the category that includes extinct and endangered language for instance, but it merely unveil the most prominent language branches due to space limitation.

Indo-European. The English is considered both as lingua franca for commercial use and as international standard language in many governments and countries. As a sub-family of Germanic language, English is believed as an alphabet language rather than an ideogram language. Some examples of this language family branch is Germanic (Scandinavian, Flemish, Dutch, Franconian, Afrikaans, etc.), Baltic (Old Prussian, Lithuanian, Latvian, etc.), Slavic (Polish, Czech, Slovak, Russian, Ukrainian, Slovenian, Serbo-Croatian, Bulgarian, etc.), Armenian, Albanian, Thracian, Indo-Iranian (Kurdish, Farsi, Pashto, Indic which includes Hindi, Urdu, and Sanskrit, etc.), Celtic (Irish, Gaelic, Britanic, Welsh, Scots, etc.), Hellenic (Greek, Cyprian, etc.), Anatolian, Tocharian (Turkistan), Italic (Latin, French, Romance, Spanish, Italian, Portuguese, Catalan, Romanian, etc.)

Sino-Tibetan. Mandarin is the most spoken language in the world. This family is as the most important language in Asia. Most languages in this group are monosyllabic tonal language. The syllables have tones, meaning that the voice can be high, low, rising, and falling. Includes in this group are Sinitic Branch (Mandarin, Cantonese, etc.), and Tibeto-Burman Branch (Burmese, Thai, Laos, Nepal, Bhutan, etc.).

Arabic-Afro Asiatic. Arabic is the dominant language in this group. It is also the religious language of Islam and its holy book, Al-Qur'an. This Arabic-Afro Asiatic consists of several branches. The first one is Semitic Branch which includes Arabic, Maltese, Hebrew (Judaic and Torah language), Amharic (Ethiopia), Akkadian (Assyrian), and Ivrit (the new form of Israelian language). The second one is Berber Branch is spoken in the North Africa (Tuareg, Guanch and Kabyle). Next is the Cushitic Branch comprises of Somali, Gala, Beja and Afar. Chadic Branch entails of 600 languages spoken in Nigeria, Chad, and Cameroon. The Egypt Branch is the ancient Egypt and Coptics.

Austronesian Also known as Malayo-Polynesian. It consists of 1000 languages dispersed across the Indian and Pacific Oceans and East Asian countries. The most common languages here are Malay and Indonesian. Some other includes Cham in Vietnam, Malagasy in Madagascar, Tagalog in the Philippines and the Pacific languages (Maori in New Zealand, Fijian, Tahiti, and Hawaiian).

Austro-Asiatic. These languages are distinguished into four branches. First is Viet-Muong branch which consists of Vietnamese and Muong. Second is the Mon-Khmer branch that includes Khmer, Mon, Palaung, Nicobarese, So, and Nancowry. Then Aslian languages which are found Sengoi and Temiar followed Munda Branch with Mundari, Santali and Khasi.

Caucasian. The name denotes the Caucasus Mountains between the Black Sea and the Caspian Sea. Languages attach to this group are Georgian, Chechen, and Ingush in Southern Russia, Avar (Dagestan), Ubykh, Karbadian, and Urartian.

Dravidian. If Northern India is mostly dominated by Indo-European family, Southern India people speak Dravidian. Examples of these languages are Tamil, Sri Lanka, Malayalam, Kannada and Telegu.

Altaic. This language family is named after Alti Mountains in Central Asia. Some examples of this language family is Turkish, Korean, Kazakh, Azeri, Uighur, Mongolian and Japanese.

Uralic. Not all European languages are categorized into Indo-European. The name is given after the Ural Mountains from the Siberian side of the Urals before migrated to Europe. Finnish and Estonian are somewhat similar and closely related in the Finnic Branch. Ugric Branch like Hungarian is originated from central Siberia.

F. Perspectives in Linguistics

Theoretical and Functional Linguistics

Theoretical linguistics is often called generative linguistics. It stems from Chomsky's competence and performance ideas on language. This perspective attempts to explain the nature of human linguistics knowledge (Hayes et.al 2013: 3).

Functional Linguistics is thesis theoretical linguistics; it believes that language is a fundamental tool. It is consequently reasonable to best evaluate language with regard to the functions they perform at all levels of language (phonology, semantic, syntactic, and pragmatic).

Macro and Micro Linguistics

Macro Linguistics is the study of language by using major changes as the parameter of assessment. It deals with comparative studies among languages, areal linguistics, language branches or language development. They interested in the external aspect of language.

Micro Linguistics focuses on the study of minor changes in linguistics may influence larger social contexts. Micro linguistics puts greater interests in phonetics, grammar and the internal level of language analysis.

Modern and Classical Linguistics

Modern Linguistics relates to the development beginning at the 18th century. At this time, the study of linguistics was marked by the rise of structuralist school of language studies, that of Ferdinand de Saussure, Edward Sapir and Leonard Bloomfield both in European Continent and the United States of America.

Classical Linguistics confirms the antiquity of old manuscripts of the early printed editions and translations of human language and communication. The main object was the classical philology (written historical sources, such as literary texts and records).

G. Prominent Linguists

Ferdinand de Saussure (1857-1913). He was born in Geneva, Swiss and has laid a fundamental aspect in modern language in the wake of internal - structuralism view of studying a language. He discovered some instrumental aspect of linguistics-related study. Below are the highlights of his most influential ideas on linguistics.

- **Langue and parole.** In his first and foremost basic ideas of structuralism in linguistics, Saussure differentiate between langue and parole. **Langue**, in his opinion, stands for an inconcrete object that hypothetically describe the principles and systems that rule of language, whereas **parole** is the precise and actual utterance of speech.
- **Diachronic and synchronic linguistics.** This scientific study of language with reference to the history of specific language changes

and characteristics. It is also called **diachronic** linguistics as it tries to study of how one particular language has changed, or developed over time. On the other hand, **synchronic** linguistics is the scientific study of comparative languages at a certain period of time with regard to some other previous periods. It also scrutinizes how languages in general display variation at a specific time periods.

Edward Sapir (1884-1939). Alike Hymes, Sapir is both linguist and anthropologist. As the founder of ethnolinguistics, Sapir is famous for his work in North American Language Studies and prominent for his idea of connecting culture to language into the school of structural linguistics. He specialized also in linguistic relativity just like his younger colleague Whorf, where he founded the Sapir-Whorf principle of linguistic relativity.

Leonard Bloomfield (1887-1949). He is an American linguist who led the rise of structural linguistics in the United States. He contributed to the making of numerous references on historical linguistics, especially in Indo-European, and Austronesian languages. Bloomfield was the admirer of behaviourism for the analysis of linguistics. Famous to his work was the study of Germanic language history and Sanskrit language where he emphasized the theoretical reference for similar future studies.

Benjamin Whorf (1897-1941). He is an American linguist and chemical engineer. Whorf is the supporter of linguistic relativity that sees language in grammar and usage as something different. He introduces the term of overt (phenotypical) and covert (cryptotypical) grammatical group, allophone in phonetics and metalinguistic theory in linguistics.

Michael Halliday (1925-present). Halliday is an influential British born Australian linguist and teacher. He is famous on some basic linguistics ideas theorizing language as a fundamental social experience. Several of his intriguing ideas are listed below:

- **Scale and category of linguistics.** He listed four categories: unit, structure, class and system and three scales that are rank, exponence, and delicacy
- **Systemic functional linguistics.** This is the model of language, as a generalist, admitted Halliday, he sees language and its grammar to serve the ideational, interpersonal and textual functions in social occurrences.

Dell Hymes (1927-2009). Hymes is a sociolinguist and anthropologist. He had a reputation as a strong linguist since his young age. Hymes was the former president of the Linguistic Society of America and American Anthropological Association, respectively in 1982 and 1983. Hymes was one of the forefathers for Linguistics Anthropology. He focused his research on the S-P-E-A-K-I-N-G model (Setting and Scene, Participants, Ends, Act Sequence, Key, Instrumentalities, Norms and Genres) and was interested in the relation between human language patterns that characterized human systematic thought.

Noam Chomsky (1928-present). He was born to a middle class Jewish family in the U.S. He is one of the most active and inspiring linguist the modern world. As an outstanding and also an outspoken scientist, activist, philosopher and historian of his time, Chomsky spent more than half of his life at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. His thesis on transformative grammar analysis was one of the most significant works on linguistics. Chomsky was the one who ignited the cognitive revolution in linguistics. He argued that language's ability in human beings is innately, genetically and biologically determined. This rationalism can be seen in his work of universal grammar and transformative generative grammar.

- **Competence**, according to Chomsky is the individual – ideal model knowledge of a language. Linguistics competence is the system of human language that allow speaker to distinguish grammatical and non-grammatical sentences. Some linguistics competence includes the “knowing” on phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics.
- **Performance** is the specific method in which it is used in daily communication. The real output of a language is called performance. It might be incorrect, errors or flawed. It is a part of “doing” the language communicatively.

Exercises

Exercise 1. Discuss in a group of five person, what distinguish language and linguistics?

Exercise 2. Which type of language perspective that interests you? Why?

Exercise 3. Can you decide which of the above mentioned linguists' theories you like?

Chapter 3

THE STUDY OF HUMAN SPEECH SOUNDS

Phonetics and Phonology are two inseparable concepts when we are dealing with human speech sounds. Both terms focus on roughly different aspect of sounds. The former refers to the study of the production, physical properties and perception of the actual sounds realizing the phonemes and of the supra-segmental elements of speech. Meanwhile, the latter is the study of the phonemes and their combinations in words and morphemes, and also of the discrete supra-segmental elements in words and sentences. Further elaboration on each concept is intended to help you with better understanding on what each of the terms deals with and how they may differ in practice (Yule 2010, Ashby 2011, Roach 2010, Varga 2010, Fromkin, Rodman, and Hyams 2011).

A. Phonetics

Yule (2010) stated that **phonetics** is “the general study of the characteristics of speech sounds”. It primarily deals with physical aspects of human speech sounds and encompasses three subfields. **Articulatory**, the oldest branch and the one which is the most relevant in foreign language teaching, examines the articulatory (vocal) organs and their role in the production of

speech sounds. The second branch is **acoustic** phonetics. This deals with the physical properties of speech sounds as they travel through the air in the form of sound waves. The last subfield is called **auditory** phonetics, which examines the way in which human beings perceive speech sounds through the medium of the ear. In brief, Phonetics is a descriptive tool necessary to the study of the phonological aspects of a language (Varga, 2010, Yule, 2010, and Ashby 2011).

In phonetics, it is important to note that we are not interested in letters, but sounds. The symbols that are used in transcribing the sounds are the special ones called International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA). The IPA was created to represent sounds by symbols in an accurate and uniform way. Throughout this section, the orthographic spelling of a word will be given in italics, e.g. *raise*, and the phonetic transcription will be between oblique slashes /rɛɪz/. The individual sounds or phonemes constitute the word is written in square bracket e.g. [r], [ɛɪ], [z].

As most linguists have agreed, the articulatory phonetics is the branch that mostly accommodates the EFL learners' need. Therefore, the following discussion is mainly dealing with all sub-aspects of articulatory phonetics ranging from The Organs of Speech, Consonant Sounds, to Vowel Sounds.

B. The Organs of Speech

The production of speech sounds involves some organs namely larynx, pharynx, vocal cords, nasal cavity, oral cavity, lips, and tongue. The contracting muscles of the involved organs produce the speech sounds. Most speech sounds are produced by pushing lung air through the vocal cords—a pair of thin membranes—up the throat, and into the mouth or nose, and finally out of the body. The following figure shows the set of organs involved in speech production (Varga, 2010)

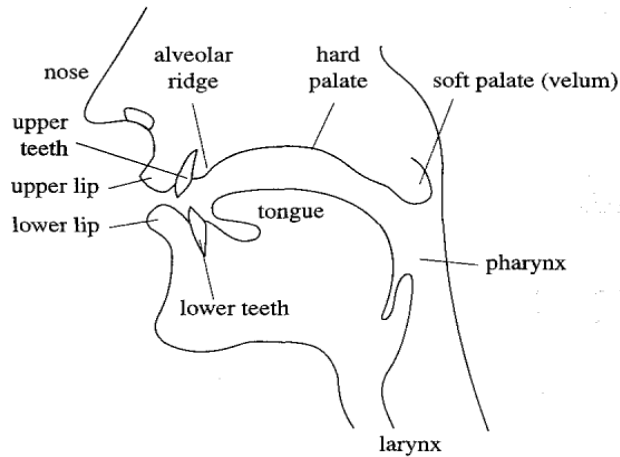


Figure 2.1 The Organs of Speech

Consonant Sounds

There are two classes of sounds in all languages namely consonants and vowels. In producing a consonant, we can clearly feel that there is some obstruction to the flow of air as it passes from the larynx to the lips. Meanwhile, what happens in the production of vowels is that there is no obstruction for the air to pass through the mouth. Take the way we pronounce the first sound of the word *paper* and *after* as the examples. We close our mouth completely and that is the utmost obstruction, whereas if we pronounce the first sound of the word *after* the mouth is more open than normal, and the air flows as freely as it possibly can. Moreover, in phonetics, the two classes of speech sounds refer to the types of sounds instead of the letters. It is important to note that in the scope of both phonetics and phonology, we are not interested in letters, but sounds. There are 24 consonant sounds in English as follow.

No.	Phonetic symbol	Words in which they appear
1	p	<u>p</u> ay / peɪ/
2	b	bug / bʌg/
3	m	mak / meɪk/
4	f	fan / fæn/
5	v	van / væn/
6	n	nice / naɪs/
7	t	tell / tel/
8	d	day / deɪ/
9	r	ray / reɪ/
10	ð	this / ðɪs/
11	l	link / lɪŋk/
12	z	zip / zɪp/
13	s	say / seɪ/
14	ŋ	sing / sɪŋ/
15	k	king / kɪŋ/
16	g	gas / gæs/
17	h	high / haɪ/
18	dʒ	Judge / dʒʌdʒ/
19	ʒ	measure / meʒ.ə(r)/
20	tʃ	teacher / tiː.tʃə(r) /
21	j	you / juː/
22	θ	think / θɪŋk/
23	w	win / wɪn/
24	ʃ	shoe / ʃuː/

Table 2.1 Consonant Phonemes

Furthermore, the listed consonant sounds are commonly classified in terms of voicing and place and manner of articulation (Yule, 2010, Varga 2010, and Roach 2011). We will look into each of the classifications in turn.

Voicing

The concept of voicing is determined by the position of vocal folds (or vocal cords), which are located in the larynx, when the air is pushed out by the lungs up through the trachea (or windpipe) to the larynx. When the vocal folds are spread apart, the air from the lungs passes between them unimpeded. Sounds produced in this way are called **voiceless**. Meanwhile, when the vocal folds are drawn together, the air from the lungs repeatedly pushes them apart as it passes through, creating a vibration effect. The sounds that are produced in that position are described as **voiced**. In English, the voiced consonants are b, d, g, v, ð, z, ʒ, l, r, j, w, dʒ, m, n, ŋ while the phonemes such as p, t, k, f, θ, tʃ, s, ʃ, h are voiceless. This voicing can be physically detected. When we pronounce the word *van* which is started by the voiced phoneme [v], we can put our finger on our throat, and then we can feel the vibration that is caused by the production of the voiced sound, while there is no vibration produced in pronouncing the word *fan* which is started by voiceless phoneme [f].

Place and Manner of Articulation

The next classifications of consonant are based on both of the place and manner of articulation. According to **place of articulation**, we can distinguish eight classes of the consonants. *Bilabials* ([p, b, m, w]) are produced between the two lips, *labiodentals* ([f, v]) between the upper front teeth and the lower lip, *dentals* ([θ, ð]) between the upper front teeth and the tip of the tongue, *alveolars* ([t, d, s, z, n, l, r]) between the alveolar ridge and the front of the tongue, *post-alveolars* ([ʃ, dʒ, ʒ, tʃ]) in the post alveolar region, *palatals* in the area of the hard palate ([j]), *velars* ([k, g, ŋ]) in the area of the soft palate or velum, and finally *glottals* ([ʔ], called the ‘glottal stop’, and [h]) are produced in the glottis.

Meanwhile, the **manner of articulation** has to do with the kind of obstruction the air meets on its way out, after it has passed the vocal folds. It may meet a complete closure (plosives), an almost complete closure (fricatives), or a smaller degree of closure (approximants), or the air might escape in more exceptional ways, around the sides of the tongue (laterals), or through the nasal cavity (nasals).

Plosives are sounds produced when there is a complete closure in the

mouth, so that the air is blocked for a fraction of a second and then released with a small burst of sound, called a plosion which sounds like a very small explosion. Plosives may be bilabial [p,b] *pin, bin*, alveolar [t,d] *tin, die* or velar [k,g] *cat, guard*. There is a fourth kind of plosive, the glottal stop. The word *football* can be pronounced without interruption in the middle as in /'fʊt.bɔ:l/ or with a complete closure of the glottis instead of [t]: /'fʊʔ.bɔ:l/. In English a voiceless plosive that occurs at the beginning of a word and is followed by a vowel, is rather special in the sense that at the release of a plosion one can hear a slight puff of air (called aspiration) before the vowel is articulated. Hence in “pen” we hear [p^hen]. These aspirated voiceless plosives are not considered to be different sounds from unaspirated voiceless plosives from the point of view of how they function in the sound system. This difference, which can be clearly heard, is said to be phonetic.

Fricatives have a closure which is not quite complete. This means that the air is not blocked at any point which causes no plosion. On the other hand, the friction causes the obstruction which is big enough for the air to make a noise when it passes through it. This shows the similar effect to the wind whistling around the corner of a house. Fricatives may be labiodental [f,v] *wife, wives*, dental [θ, ð] *breath, breathe*, alveolar [s,z] *sink, zinc*, palato-alveolar [ʃ, ʒ] *nation, evasion*, or glottal [h] *help*. [h] is a glottal fricative. As it has no closure anywhere else, and as all air passes between the vocal folds, this means that [h] is like aspiration unaccompanied by any obstruction.

However, a distinction may be made between **sibilant** and **non-sibilant** fricatives. Sibilant sounds are the fricatives with a clear “hissing” noise, [s, z, ʃ, ʒ] and the two affricates [dʒ, tʃ] *choke, joke*.

When a plosive is combined with a fricative, it is called **Affricates** (sometimes they are called “affricated plosives”). They begin like a plosive, with a complete closure, but instead of a plosion, they have a very slow release, moving backwards to a place where a friction can be heard (post-alveolar). The two English affricates are both post-alveolar, [tʃ] which is voiceless, *chain, rich*, and [dʒ] which is voiced, *gin, bridge*. The way an affricate resembles a plosive followed by a fricative is mirrored in the symbols. Both consist of a plosive symbol followed by a fricative one: [tʃ], [dʒ].

Nasals resemble plosives, except that there is a complete closure in the mouth, but as the velum is lowered the air can escape through the nasal cavity. Though most sounds are produced with the velum raised, the normal position for the velum is lowered, as this is the position for breathing. The three English nasals are all voiced; [m] is bilabial, *ram*, [n] is alveolar, *ran*, and [ŋ] velar, *rang*.

Laterals are sounds where the air escapes around the sides of the tongue. There is only one lateral in English, [l], a voiced alveolar lateral. It occurs in two versions, the so-called “clear l” before vowels, *light*, *long*, and the “dark l” in other cases, *milk*, *ball*. Words like *little*, *lateral* have one of each type. “Dark l” may be written with the symbol [ɫ]. “Clear l” is pronounced with the top of the tongue raised, whereas for “dark l” it is the back of the tongue which is raised. Here again, as with aspirated and unaspirated voiceless plosives, even though “clear l” and “dark l” are phonetically different, they cannot be said to be different sounds from the point of view of how they function in the sound system. If you produce a “dark l” where usually you have a “clear l”, for example at the beginning of the word *long*, your pronunciation will sound odd but nobody will understand a different word.

Finally, **Approximants** are sounds where the tongue only approaches the roof of the mouth, so that there is not enough obstruction to create any friction. English has three approximants, which are all voiced. [r] is alveolar as in *right*, *brown*, sometimes called post-alveolar, because it is slightly further back than the other alveolar sounds [t, d, s, l]. [j] is a palatal approximant as in *use*, *youth*, and [w] is a velar approximant as in *why*, *twin*, *square* and [w] always has lip-rounding as well, and thus it is sometimes called labio-velar. Yet, in some approaches the approximants can be broken down into the **liquids** [l], [r] and **glides** [w], [j].

The following figure is IPA Consonant Chart illustrating the classifications of the consonant sounds according to both place of articulation and manner of articulation.

	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Dental	Alveolar	Post-alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Nasal	m			n			ŋ	
Stop	p b			t d			k g	ʔ
Affricate					tʃ dʒ			
Fricative		f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ			h
Approximant				ɹ		j	w	
Lateral				l				

Figure 2.2. IPA Consonant Chart

Vowels

Vowel sounds are produced with a relatively free flow of air. They are almost always found at the centre of a syllable, and it is rare to find any sound other than a vowel which is able to stand alone as a whole syllable. In phonetic terms, each vowel has a number of properties that distinguish it from other vowels. These include the shape of the lips, which may be rounded (as for an u: vowel), neutral (as for ə) or spread (as in a smile, or an i: vowel – as in “cheese”. Secondly, the front, the middle or the back of the tongue may be raised, giving different vowel qualities: the æ vowel (as in ‘cat’) is a front vowel, while the ɑ: of ‘cart’ is a back vowel. The tongue (and the lower jaw) may be raised close to the roof of the mouth, or the tongue may be left low in the mouth with the jaw comparatively open. In British phonetics we talk about ‘close’ and ‘open’ vowels, whereas American phoneticians more often talk about ‘high’ and ‘low’ vowels. The meaning is clear in either case (Roach, 2011). In addition, Yule (2011) summarized the properties of vowel sounds as follow.

Front vowels	Central vowels	Back vowels
[i] bead, beef, key, me	[ə] above, oven, support	[u] boo, move, two, you
[ɪ] bid, myth, women	[ʌ] blood, dove, tough	[ʊ] book, could, put
[ɛ] bed, dead, said		[ɔ] born, caught, fall, raw
[æ] bad, laugh, wrap		[ɑ] Bob, cot, swan

If the vowel sounds are illustrated in the form of a chart, like the one below.

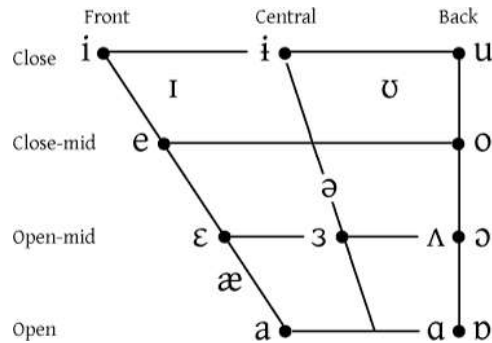


Figure 2.3 Vowel Chart

The vowels that we have just discussed are all single vowels or so-called **Monophthongs**. The single vowels can be then further categorized in two sub-types namely short and long vowels as we can see below.

Short Vowels	Long Vowels
[I] as in /sIt/ sit	[i:] as in /si:t/ seat
[u] as in /buk/ book	[u:] as in /fu:d/ food
[ʌ] as in /'mʌð.ər/ mother	[ɑ:] as in /fɑ:m/ farm
[ɒ] as in /hɒt/ hot	[ɔ:] as in /lɔ:/ law
[e] as in /red/ red	[ɜ:] as in /wɜ:k/ work
[æ] as in /hæt/ hat	
[ə] as in /ə'baʊt/ about	

In addition to this, there are also double vowels or so-called **Diphthongs** in English. In producing Diphthongs, our vocal organs move from one vocalic position [a] to another [ɪ] as we produce the sound [aɪ] in *cry* or *bye*. The following is the complete set of double vowels in English.

Diphthongs

[aɪ] buy, eye, I, my, pie

[əʊ] boat, home, throw, toe

[aʊ] house, doubt, cow

[ɔɪ] boy, noise, toy

[eɪ] bait, eight, great, late, say

[ɪə] near, gear, fear

[ea] bear, care, fare

[ʊə] pure, tour

Although we have elaborated all variants of vowel sounds in English, the variations between one variety of English and another are highly possible. This is what we recognize as a different accent. Sometimes we do not even show the subtle distinction between vowels in our daily spoken language. We may not differentiate the vowel in the word *food* and *foot* and use either [ʊ] or [ʊ:] in both. Another example is that we may not make a significant distinction between the central vowels [ə], called “schwa,” and [ʌ], called “wedge.” like in these words (underlined) *afford*, *collapse*, *photograph*, and *wanted*. In fact, in casual speech, we all use *schwa* more than any other single sound. It is the unstressed vowel or the weakest vowel form in the everyday use of words. Despite these two examples of subtle individual variations, there are still more worth discussing. The further discussion on this matter falls into the scope of the more general sound system of a language called Phonology.

C. Phonology

Unlike phonetics, phonology deals with the abstract system of sound in a language that allows us to distinguish meaning in the actual physical sounds we say and hear (Roach, 2011; Ashby, 2010; and Yule, 2010). In this sub-section, we will discuss some core elements dealt in the area of phonology such as the relationship between phonemes and phones and allophones, Minimal Pairs, syllables, Co-articulation Patterns.

Phonemes, Phones, and Allophones

The terms phoneme, phone, and allophone are considered as the basic units in the study of Sound Patterns or Phonology. **Phonemes** refer to an abstract minimal sound unit of a particular language, which, when realised, is capable of distinguishing different words in that language. Then, **phones** are defined as the myriads of actual speech sounds, while the different ways in which each phone can be pronounced are called its **allophones**. For example, the English phoneme /p/ has two allophones: an aspirated [p^h] at the beginning of a stressed syllable and an unaspirated [p] elsewhere, as in *pin* [p^hIn] and *spin* [sp^hIn].

Furthermore, if we review the essential property of a phoneme, we can conclude that it functions contrastively. One way that can be used to identify how a slight change in a string of sounds (a phoneme) may change the meaning of a word is through Minimal Pair technique which will be discussed in the following section.

Minimal Pairs

Generally, when we wish to decide whether two segments belong to the same phoneme or, on the contrary, are realizations of two different phonemes, we put them in an identical context, that is the same string of sounds. When there is a difference between two otherwise identical strings of sound and this difference results in a change of meaning, these two strings are said to constitute a **minimal pair** (Fromkin, Rodman, and Hyams, 2011, Yule 2010, and Roach 2011). The example of minimal pairs is as follows:

h æ t

k æ t

In the example above, we can see that the only phoneme that distinguishes the two identical strings of sounds is either [h] or [k]. The contrastive effect that is achieved by substituting one segment over another surely results in the different meaning. The following list of words is other examples of minimal pairs in English.

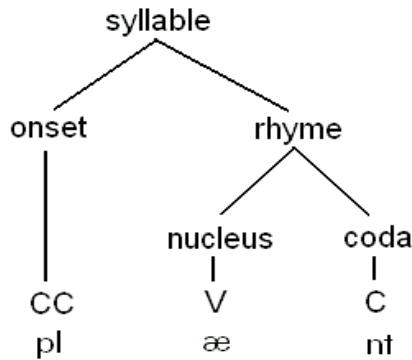
cat [kæt] : cap [kæp]	pet [pet] : vet [vet]
flight [flaɪt] : fright [f laɪt]	Pit [pIt] : knit [nIt]
flight [flaɪt] : plight [plaɪt]	cry [kraɪ] : dry [draɪ]

Syllable

We have discussed the smallest unit of sound called phoneme as well its contrastive property, now we are dealing with a larger unit which is a fundamentally important unit both in phonetics and in phonology called Syllable. Phonologists' interest in the structure of the syllables is due to the possibility that there would be interesting observations to be made about which phonemes may occur at the beginning, in the middle and at the end of syllables. The study of sequences of phonemes is called phonotactics, and it seems that the phonotactic possibilities of a language are determined by syllabic structure; this means that any sequence of sounds that a native speaker produces can be broken down into syllables without any segments being left over (Roach, 2011).

In English, a syllable consists of a phoneme or a sequence of phonemes. If the syllable receives word stress it can be associated with meaning and form what is usually called a word. No word in English can consist of anything less than a syllable and no syllable can consist of anything less than a vowel. There are not many examples of monosyllabic words consisting of only a vowel in English. Among them, we have /a:/ are and /aɪ/ eye, etc. It would be nice to show that given the appropriate intonation, these words could form a sentence. Each vowel has the possibility of constituting a syllable (hence a monosyllabic word) by itself whereas this is never possible for a consonant. This is the great phonological distinction between vowels and consonants.

Moreover, a syllable must contain a vowel or vowel-like sound, including diphthongs. The most common type of syllable in language also has a consonant (C) before the vowel (V) and is typically represented as CV. Technically, the basic elements of the syllable are the onset (one or more consonants) followed by the rhyme as we can see in the following diagram.



Co-articulation Patterns

Spoken language is very natural since it is spontaneous and operates at its fastest rate and pace to achieve communicative purpose. This property of spoken language triggers some possibilities in the sound articulation process because it requires our articulators to move from one sound to the neighboring one without stopping. The process of articulating one sound almost at the same time as the next sound is called co-articulation. There are two most common co-articulation effects namely assimilation and elision (Yule, 2011). In line with this, Roach (2011) used a rather different approach to this concept. He does not consider co-articulation as an independent term comprising assimilation and elision. He places co-articulation next to assimilation, elision, and linking as the aspects of an umbrella term called Connected Speech. Connected speech refers to the effect realized due to naturally produced continuous speech. This suggests that both co-articulation and connected speech deal with the effect of natural speech production. Now we will discuss further on assimilation, elision, and linking.

Assimilation

We have agreed that speech is thought of as a string of sounds linked together; therefore, assimilation is required when two sound segments occur in sequence and some aspect of one segment is taken or “copied” by the other. For example, the word ‘this’ has the sound ‘s’ at the end if it is pronounced on its own, but when followed by [ʃ] in a word such as ‘shop’ it often assimilates in rapid speech (through assimilation) to [ʃ], producing the pronunciation /dɪʃʃɒp/.

There are two types of Assimilation described as progressive and regressive. It is said to be *progressive* when a sound influences a following sound or *regressive* when a sound influences one which precedes it. The most familiar case of regressive assimilation in English is that of alveolar consonants, such as t, d, s, z, n, which are followed by non-alveolar consonants: assimilation results in a change of place of articulation from alveolar to a different place. Look at the example of ‘this shop’ is of this type. Look at the following examples for more examples of regressive assimilation:

- ‘football’ → ‘foot’ /fu:t/ and ‘ball’ /bɔ:l/ are combined to produce /fu:pbɔ:l/
- ‘fruit-cake’ → fru:t + keɪk → /fru:kkeɪk/.

Progressive assimilation is exemplified by the behavior of the ‘s’ plural ending in English, which is pronounced with a voiced [z] after a voiced consonant (e.g. ‘dogs’ /dɒgz/) but with a voiceless [s] after a voiceless consonant (e.g. ‘cats’ /kats/).

Elision

Elision is the process of not pronouncing a sound segment that might be present in the deliberately careful pronunciation of a word in isolation (Yule, 2011). The sound which is not pronounced is believed to have been elided. It is easy to find examples of elision, but very difficult to state rules that govern which sounds may be elided and which may not. Elision of vowels in English usually happens when a short, unstressed vowel occurs between voiceless consonants, e.g. in the first syllable of ‘perhaps’, ‘potato’, the second syllable of ‘bicycle’, or the third syllable of ‘philosophy’.

Elision of consonants in English happens most commonly when a speaker “simplifies” a complex consonant cluster: ‘acts’ becomes /æks/ rather than /ækts/, ‘twelfth night’ becomes /twelθnaɪt/ or /twelfnaɪt/ rather than /twelfθnaɪt/. It seems much less likely that any of the other consonants could be left out: the [l] and the [n] seem to be unelidable (Roach, 2010).

Linking

Another way to link the sounds in the connected speech is by linking them. There are three most common linking cases in English, linking [r], linking [j], and linking [w]. Some native English speakers who do not pronounce the final 'r' will add it when the next word begins with a vowel to maintain the flow of the speech, and this is why the case of linking [r] come up. Linking [j] is required when one word ends with a vowel sound and the next word begins with a vowel. The last one, linking [w], is usually added when one word ends with a vowel sound and the next word begins with a vowel. The following are the examples of each case:

linking [r]	linking [j]	linking [w]
'four eggs' / fɔ:(r) egz/ 'media event' / 'mi:. di.ərɪ'vent/	try again /traɪjə'gen/ tea or coffee /ti:jər'kɒf.i/	'blue eye' /blu:waɪ/ 'go under' /gəʊw 'ʌn. də(r)/

Exercises.

Exercise 1. Can you give some examples of vocal and consonant sounds?

Exercise 2. List and pronounce some examples of co-articulation patterns?

Chapter 4

THE STUDY OF SMALLEST UNIT OF MEANING

This chapter discusses the structure of words or what is so-called Morphology. The word “Morphology” itself consists of two morphemes, morph + ology. The suffix *-ology* means “science of” or “branch of knowledge concerning”, thus, the meaning of morphology is “the science of (word) forms.” Similarly, Yule (2010) suggested that Morphology is investigating “basic forms in language” since it puts morpheme as the emphasis of the investigation. To be more precise, morphology studies the internal structure of words, and the rules by which words are formed (Fromkin, Rodman, and Hyams, 2011). To give a thorough overview of the study of word forms, the sub-topics such as word vs morpheme, kinds of morpheme, word categories, and word formation will be elaborated in turn throughout this section.

A. Word vs. Morpheme

Generally, most people are already familiar with the term “word” as proposed by Radford (2009) that “all languages have words, and words are probably the most accessible linguistic units to the layman”. Meanwhile,

the term “morpheme” is something as important as the term “word” in the study of language, particularly morphology. We will first look at the operational definition of each term carefully.

To get a useful description of the term “word”, we should see it in various points of view. The vocabulary entries as you can see in the dictionary (e.g. walk, book) are called words, yet the different inflected forms of the words like *walks*, *walked*, *walking* and *books*, *booked*, *booking* are also called words. In Linguistics studies, the two explanations of the word “word” would rather be helpful to be classified in other working terms called *lexeme* and *syntactic word*. A lexeme is a vocabulary item or a unit of the lexicon that we normally find as an entry in the dictionary. It is an uninflected form that underlies all its inflected items. A lexeme should be written in capital letters (e.g. WALK) to distinguish it from its inflected variants (e.g. walks, walked, walking). Meanwhile, a syntactic word is an inflected variant of a lexeme (including the zero-inflection), so *walk*, *walks*, *walked*, and *walking* are categorized as syntactic words.

Moreover, we will now look at how words are related to morphemes. Morphemes are the smallest parts that have meaning and cannot be divided into smaller meaningful units, while words may consist of one or several morphemes. For instance, the word or lexeme **teacher** can be unpacked into two morphemes {**speak**} and {-**er**}. Morphemes have two categories, *free* and *bound*. Some morphemes like *book*, *computer*, *happy*, and *girl* may constitute words by themselves. These are called **free** morphemes. Other morphemes like *-er*, *-ness*, *-ly*, *pre-*, *trans-*, and *un-* are never words by themselves but are always parts of words. These affixes are **bound** morphemes. In English, these are either suffixes (following stems) or prefixes (preceding stems). Suffixes in English are either inflectional or derivational (the two terms that will be discussed separately in the following sub-topic). If you add an inflectional suffix to a stem, you do not create a new lexeme; you only produce another inflected variant (i.e. another syntactic word) of the same lexeme. For example, {-s} is an inflectional suffix, because by adding it to the stem {boy}, we get boys, which is just another syntactic word belonging to the paradigm of BOY. However, if you add a derivational suffix to a stem, you create another lexeme. For example, {-hood} is a derivational suffix, because by adding it to the stem {boy}. The following examples will show that a single word may be composed of one or more morphemes.

one morpheme	boy
two morphemes	read boy+ish
three morphemes	read+able boy+ish+ness
four morphemes	read+able+ity un + desire + able + ity

B. Word Categories

In this section we will deal with the categorization of word or free morphemes. Languages make an important distinction between two kinds of words—content words and function words. However, those two categories are also known as Lexical Morphemes and Functional Morphemes. Nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs are the **content words**. These words denote concepts such as objects, actions, attributes, and ideas that we can think about like children, anarchism, soar, and purple. Content words are sometimes called the **open class words** because we can and regularly do add new words to these classes, such as Bollywood, blog, dis, and 24/7, pronounced “twenty-four seven.”

Other classes of words do not have clear lexical meanings or obvious concepts associated with them, including conjunctions such as *and*, *or*, and *but*; prepositions such as *in* and *of*; the articles *the* and *a/an*, and pronouns such as *it*. These kinds of words are called **function words** because they specify grammatical relations and have little or no semantic content. For example, the articles indicate whether a noun is definite or indefinite—*the boy* or *a boy*. The preposition *of* indicates possession, as in “the book of yours,” but this word indicates many other kinds of relations too. The *it* in *it’s raining* and *the archbishop found it advisable* are further examples of words whose function is purely grammatical— they are required by the rules of syntax. Function words are sometimes called closed class words. It is difficult to think of any conjunctions, prepositions, or pronouns that have recently entered the language. The small set of personal pronouns such as *I*, *me*, *mine*, *he*, *she*, and so on are part of this category (Varga, 2010, Yule, 2010, and Fromkin, Rodman, and Hyams, 2011).

Word Formation

Words can be formed through either of these two main processes namely affixation and word formation processes. Each of the processes has its own ways or rules in forming new words (Yule, 2010, Radford, Atkinson, Britain, et al, 2009, and Varga, 2010).

Affixation

As its name, this process of word formation clearly involves affixes. Affixes are all particles attached to the base word either preceding or following it. Furthermore, the phenomenon that the attachment will and will not alter the meaning or the word class of the origin word indicates two basic affixation processes. In the first process, by adding particle un- and -able to the beginning and ending of the word “break” (e.g un-break-able), the affixation changes the lexical category as well as the meaning of the word, from a verb (break) to an adjective (unbreakable). In the other way of forming words, the syntactic category and meaning of the base word will not be altered. For instance, the addition of particle -s to the word “computer+s” to show its plurality will let the word “computers” remain as a noun. The former process is called **Derivational** affixation, while the latter is **Inflectional** one. We will look into each of the concepts as well as its complete scope to get a full picture of forming words through affixation.

Derivation

As explained above, Derivation is the process of forming new words by adding affixes. The most important point to note is that the lexical classification and meaning of the newly formed word is changed. There are several prevailing patterns of word transformation as follow.

Inflection

The inflectional affix does not make a completely new word out of the word it attaches to. Rather, it adds some grammatical information about that word, such as the person and number of a finite verb, or whether a noun is plural or not. Such affixes consequently never change the lexical category of the word they are added to. Some examples of English inflectional affixes are the -s, -ed and -s suffixes

as in the following examples:

work+s (a verb) → expresses that the verb has a third person singular subject

work+ed (a verb → indicates that the event expressed by the verb took place in the past

apple+s (a noun) → expresses that we are dealing with more than one apple

cheap+er (an adjective) → shows that the adjective is used in the comparative state

Other Word Formation Processes

Besides affixation, there are other prominent word formation processes worth discussing. In this case, the processes refer to the ways in which we can produce new lexemes or words, making use of old ones. We will now discuss about the most prevalent word formation processes in brief.

To begin with, when a new word is derived from another lexeme with different syntactic category without altering its form, this transformation is called Conversion. For instance, the word “water” which is originally categorized as a noun can be converted into the verb “to water”. The next process is Compounding. This happens when two free morphemes are conjoined to form a new word. Some of the most common compound words are *blackboard*, *bathroom*, *housekeeper*, etc. Furthermore, when a new word is derived from shortening the already-existing lexeme is called Clipping. For example, the word “gas” is clipped from the word “gasoline”. Another derivational process is Blending in which two words are blended to form a new word. To be precise, the beginning of the first word is conjoined with the ending of the second lexeme such as the word “motel”. The word is formed from blending the word *motor* and *hotel*. Back-formation is a process in which a kind of reverse affixation takes place, and this is also regarded as one of the word-forming processes. For example, the word *donate* has been back-formed from the word *donation* and so has the word *create* which has been back-formed from the word *creation*. In addition, there is also another word formation process

called Onomatopoeia which is rather special since the newly formed word depicts the sound it makes. In other words, Onomatopoeia phonetically mimics or resembles the sound of the thing it describes. For example, the words we use to describe the noises that animals make are all onomatopoetic, such as a dog's "bark," a cat's "meow," or a cow's "moo." Interestingly, the onomatopoetic words for animal sounds change quite a bit from one language to another, as the words must fit into the larger linguistic system. The following are the common examples of English Onomatopoetic words.

- **Machine noises**—honk, beep, vroom, clang, zap, boing
- **Animal names**—cuckoo, whip-poor-will, whooping crane, chickadee
- **Impact sounds**—boom, crash, whack, thump, bang
- **Sounds of the voice**—shush, giggle, growl, whine, murmur, blurt, whisper
- **Nature sounds**—splash, drip, spray, whoosh, buzz, rustle

The last listed word formation process in this chapter is Acronyms. Acronym refers to a lexeme that is formed from the initial letters or larger parts of words, e.g 'SCUBA' for Self-contained underwater breathing apparatus, 'SARS' for severe acute respiratory syndrome. These two acronyms are pronounced as words. However, some other acronyms are pronounced as sequences of letters e.g FYI, CNN, BBC.

Exercises.

Exercise 1. List at least five examples of acronyms and what it stands for?

Exercise 2. How many morpheme do the word *read+able* and *read* has?

Chapter 5

THE STUDY OF SENTENCE PATTERNS

We have previously learned that language is systematical. We have already looked into the system of the morphemes, the smallest unit of meaning, and we have learned that in word formation, there are rules that govern the process, such as the rules in attaching affixes, or the rules of sound that result allomorphs, etc. Although language is arbitrary in terms of sound and meaning development, language requires consistent pattern. Imagine if people use words in random order, would that make any sense if you are trying to communicate an idea or thought to different people? Of course, no.

Consider this string of words:

*The soft pillow
*Pillow the soft
*soft pillow the
*soft the pillow
The soft pillow

The asterisk (*) is marked to expressions that were perceived as problematic. From the examples, we would definitely reject all with the asterisk and accept the last one in the series. Would you suggest why?

Your response will be mostly refusing to accept those expressions with asterisk as problematic due to the unacceptable order of the word in the string. From previous chapter we have learned the lexical category of those words. *The* is an Article (Art), *Pillow* is a Noun (N), and *soft* is an Adjective (Adj). When we combine them in a string, there is a rule that governs the acceptable order when we put them together. An article (*the*) must be placed before the Noun. However in this string there is an adjective (*soft*) that tells the state of the Noun (*Pillow*). The ordering of adj that tells the state of a specific noun must be Adj+N, resulting *soft pillow*. The article *The* determines the *soft pillow*, thus become *the soft pillow* (Art+Adj+N). In addition, you might also refuse the string *the soft* because it lacks the noun to be described by the adjective *soft*.

A. Why studying Syntax

The term syntax was originated from Greek and literally means “a putting together” or “arrangement. Syntax focuses on how words are put together to create phrases and how phrases are put together to build clauses or bigger phrases, and how clauses are put together to build sentences (Miller, 2008). When words are combined, the result will be a **phrase**. Phrase is used to denote an expression larger than a word. In traditional grammar, this term refers strictly to non-clausal expressions. However, in a more recent syntax concept, a clause can be part of a phrase, as in *that I requested last night*, which is a complementiser phrase (Radford, 2004). We shall talk more about clause soon.

The rules of syntax determine the correct word order for a language. For example, English is a Subject-Verb-Object (SVO) language. Therefore, the following sentence is considered grammatical in terms of English word order rules:

Amir hit the dog with a stick.

Hindi language is not using SVO word order. Instead, it uses the SOV word order therefore we may find the sentence in Hindi as follows:

Amir cari-se kutte-ko mara

(Amir stick-with dog hit)

English translation would be: Amir hit the dog with a stick

This knowledge will help us understand the structure and the ordering of components within a sentence, thus we are studying syntax of a language.

The term syntax was originated from Greek and literally means “a putting together” or “arrangement.” Long before the modern syntax was developed, the structural rules in composition (grammar) have been studied in the ancient India by **Pāṇini** in the 4th century. He is known for his 3.959 Sanskrit Grammar that he formulated (Hunter, 1909). His work is often cited as pre-modern grammar formulation that approaches to the complexity of the modern syntactic theory. The aim of studying syntax for most of the syntacticians is to discover and render the governing syntactic rules common to all languages. However, as this will give significant awareness on language production, both English teacher and learners are required to have knowledge in this field.

During the 17th and 18th century, syntax was conceived of as a direct reflection of thought and logic. Indeed, the reflection on language was pursued by philosophers, rather than linguist, and language was not observed in its practical usage in communication, nor through empirical descriptions based on actual data, but rather as an abstract system that mirrored reason. Toward the end of 18th century, scholars with different backgrounds, some are philologists and others are philosophers, centered their attention to diversity of languages. Most are focusing on dialectology that specifically looks on phonology and those that focused on typology only paid attention toward morphology.

In the 19th century, numerous descriptive and historical grammars have focused on the sounds in language and morphology. Syntax was also studied but only as the appendix of morphology, treating the syntax as ‘use of cases’. But here again, at that time, no one tried to see the syntactic framework, which consequently, most definitions of sentence were based on communication: sentence was defined as a unit of communication, that is, an utterance, and there was little interest in sentence structure. However, Jaspersen (1860-1943) has placed a milestone in the history of linguistic thought. Concepts of dependency and government were shown in his

concept of ‘nexus,’ which become the fundamental of syntactic description in the works of the European structuralist in the early 20th century.

Many important development of linguistics studies in the school of the structuralism in Europe in 20th century, for example the Prague school that has brought to the surface the modern research on discourse and pragmatics. Another to mention was the Glossematics, developed by Danish linguist Louis Hjelmslev (1899-1965) that described the relations between the phonemic and the grammatical system in algebraic terms. Approximately, the American structuralism was moving in some interesting directions whereas they had started to claim that sentences are not free sequences of words, but they combine forming a structure, the constituent structure, as Leonard Bloomfield (1933) and his followers like Zellig Harris (1946) and Rulon Wells (1947) called it.

The popularity of the framework brought by these scholars has made it as a trademark of American Structuralism. Immediate Constituent (IC) Analysis is the name of the structure analysis developed at the time and is considered to be observable due to constituents are assumed to be binary and they are often diagrammed as such. However, explanations on this framework are majorly analyzed only by principles of mathematics and logic. Thus, many argued that the syntactic explanations are separated from mentalistic and cognitive explanations of language, which is why meaning was eliminated from the framework.

However, during the second half of the twentieth century, Noam Chomsky harshly argued against structural linguistics procedures and the relevance that structural linguists gave to the corpus or data collection. Chomsky suggested, instead, that linguistics should be a deductive science that must advance hypotheses, and evaluate them by testing them against evidence provided by native speakers’ intuition concerning sentences in their own language. Chomsky claimed that since any speaker could produce and understand an infinite number of sentences that he or she had never heard or produced before, the proper study of linguistics must be the speakers’ underlying knowledge of their language. Chomsky showed that no behaviorist account based on a stimulus-response model of language acquisition could possibly explain the rapidity and ease with which children acquire language. Starting from the 1980s, Chomsky began to combine the innate principles of UG (Universal Grammar) to parameters, the components of languages whose values are not genetically fixed. At

this point, language acquisition and language variation became processes of parameter setting in Chomsky's view.

Another major trend in European theoretical linguistics had been set by British linguist John Rupert Firth (1890–1960), who created the concept of 'polysystematism'. Following this approach, linguistic patterns cannot be accounted for in terms of one system alone; rather, different systems must be set up to account for different patterns. Firth further highlighted the context-dependent nature of meaning, thus opening the way for his student's M. A. K. Halliday Systemic Grammar, an influential theory which views social interaction as basic for the study of language. Halliday's theory is one of various functional approaches to syntax and discourse conceiving language primarily as a means of communication.

Many other theories developed and abandoned, claimed and counter-claimed, and being rejected by one another. The most notable theories that lay ground to syntactic analysis today are Chomsky's Generative Grammar and Halliday's Systemic Functional Linguistics. Between the two, Halliday's integrates context and meaning in the account, while Generative Grammar does not.

B. Sentence Structure

In morphology, we try to distinguish the different lexical features and general categories of a basic grammar. The focused concern was to study the structure and word formation process. To develop a more meaningful text, a mere word is not enough. We need to combine words to form a phrase. Thus we begin to form phrases into a clause. Clause is defined in traditional grammar as an expression which contains (at least) a subject and a predicate, and which may contain other types of expression as well. In modern syntax, clause is to refer to sentences which are constituents of other sentences or of phrases. In simple sentences the boundaries of sentence and clause coincide: a simple sentence is a one-clause sentence, whereas compound and complex sentences always contain at least two clauses (Wekker & Haegeman, 1989).

Chomsky: "Anyone who knows a language must have the internalized set of rules that specify the sequences permitted in their language."

A linguist task is to discover these rules, which constitute the grammar of

the language.

In Generative Grammar: The GRAMMAR or the EXPLICIT Rules specify which sequences of language are possible and which are not possible (Word order).

Compare these two sentences:

The large spider frightened Aunt Matilda.

Aunt Matilda frightened the large spider.

The structure of the two sentences is similar. Like English, Language that rely heavily on the word order is called **Configurational Languages**.

If we construct a sentence in Latin, we will have as the following example:

Magna araneaperterritMatildamamitam

(Large spider frightened Matilda Aunt)

Translated: The large spider frightened Aunt Matilda

Unlike English, Latin language does not rely on word order:

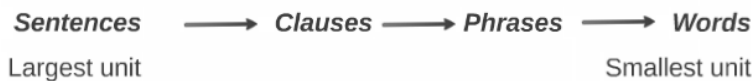
Magna Matildamperterritamitamarana

(Large Matilda frightened Aunt Spider)

Translated: The large spider frightened Aunt Matilda

In Latin, the word ending inflection shows the relationship between the words in the sentence. Even we sequence the word in different order, the meaning is still exactly the same. Thus Latin is a **non-configurational language**.

There are strong relationship between morphology and syntax, whereas lots of discussions in syntax require explanation from morphology.



Word classes: noun, verb, adjective, adverb, preposition, etc

Phrases: noun phrase, verb phrase, adjective phrase, adverb phrase, prepositional phrase

Clause: main, dependent

Sentences: declarative, interrogative, imperative, exclamatory

Look at the following sentences:

1. Charlie broke the window.
2. The window was broken by Charlie.

In traditional grammar, (1) is called active sentence. Focusing on what the subject did. (2) is a passive sentence, focusing on the window and what happen to it. The difference between the two sentences is only on the **surface structure**.

The less surface level of these sentences are actually similar. This underlying level, where the basic components (Noun Phrase+verb+verb phrase) shared by the two sentences can be represented is called the **deep structure**.

That same deep structure can be the source of other surface structures, such as:

It was Charlie who broke the window

And

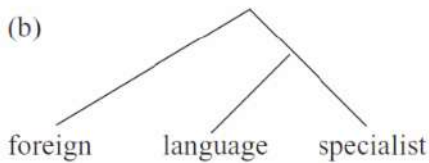
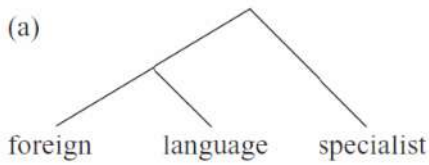
Was the window broken by Charlie?

Grammar must be able to show any abstract underlying representation of different surface structures. As in the case of the following **Structural Ambiguity**:

Zahid saw the captain with a telescope.

The question: Who has the telescope? Zahid or the Captain?

We have been able to explain such compound noun in the previous discussion in Morphology. We use **constituent analysis** to see the hierarchy of each constituent of the phrase.



In syntax, in order to see how a sentence is constructed, we need to see how phrase structure rules first. We will use constituent analysis to see how phrases are grouped in a sentence. The method that we will use is called **syntax parsing**. In the following table, you will see the codes used in syntax parsing.

S	Sentence	Tns	Tense
N	Noun	Aux	Auxiliary
V	Verb	Pro	Pronoun
Adj	Adjective	PN	Proper Noun
Adv	Adverb	Conj	Conjunction
Art	Article	Coord	Coordinator
Det	Determiner	Comp	Complementizer
Prep	Preposition		

Table 5.1 Lexical Codes in Syntax Parsing

To easily distinguish the code, the phrase codes is provided in separate table:

NP	Noun Phrase
VP	Verb Phrase
PP	Prepositional Phrase
AP	Adjective Phrase
AdvP	Adverbial Phrase

Table 5.2 Phrasal Codes in Syntax Parsing

*	'ungrammatical sentence'
→	'consists of' or 'rewrites as'
()	'optional constituent'
{ }	'one and only one of these constituents must be selected'

$$\begin{array}{l}
 \text{NP} \rightarrow \text{Art N} \\
 \text{NP} \rightarrow \text{Pro} \\
 \text{NP} \rightarrow \text{PN}
 \end{array}
 \quad
 \text{NP} \rightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Art N} \\ \text{Pro} \\ \text{PN} \end{array} \right\}
 \quad
 \text{NP} \rightarrow \{ \text{Art N, Pro, PN} \}$$

Sentence Structure generic rules are shown as follows:

$$\mathbf{S \rightarrow NP VP}$$

The formula represents that NP and VP are the constituents of S.

$$\mathbf{S \rightarrow S1 Coord S2}$$

That means a Sentence can have S1 + Coord + S2 as its constituent

The Noun Phrase (NP)

$$\mathbf{NP \rightarrow Det N}$$

$$\mathbf{NP \rightarrow N, Pro, PN}$$

This means that an NP constituted of N or Pro or PN

$$\mathbf{NP \rightarrow Det (AP) N}$$

(AP) in round bracket means that AP is optional

$$\mathbf{AP \rightarrow adj}$$

$$\mathbf{AP \rightarrow adj adj \dots}$$

... means that you can have more of the same type.

The Verb Phrase (VP)

VP → V NP

VP → V NP NP *for ditransitive*

VP → V NP AdvP

V → (tns) (aux) V

The Prepositional Phrase (PP)

PP → P NP

The Complement Phrase (CP)

CP → Comp S

C. Constituent Analysis

To determine the structure of a sentence, we may use various ways. One of the ways is by marking off each constituent from sentence level to word level. This process is called constituent analysis. The following method is called labeled bracketing. Let's analyze the following sentence.

The cat chased the mouse.

How many constituent are there in the above sentence?

The cat chased the mouse

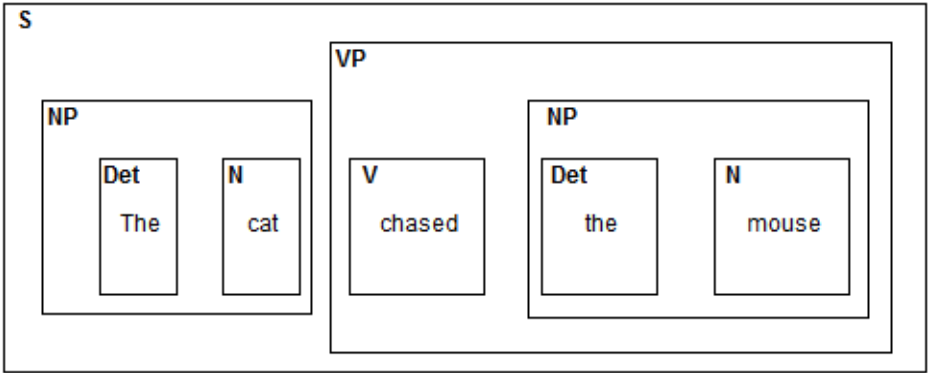
1 2 3 4 5

There are 5 constituents in that sentence. By analyzing the lexical category we have the following **Syntactic Structure Representation**:

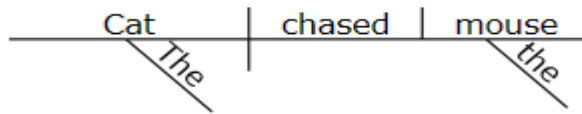
The	cat	chased	the	mouse
<i>Det/Art</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>V</i>	<i>Det/Art</i>	<i>N</i>
<i>NP</i>		<i>V</i>	<i>NP</i>	
<i>NP</i>		<i>VP</i>		
<i>S</i>				

Chart method

To see how each constituent forms different phrases, you may also render them in **various diagrams**:



Box diagram



Reed-Kellogg Diagram

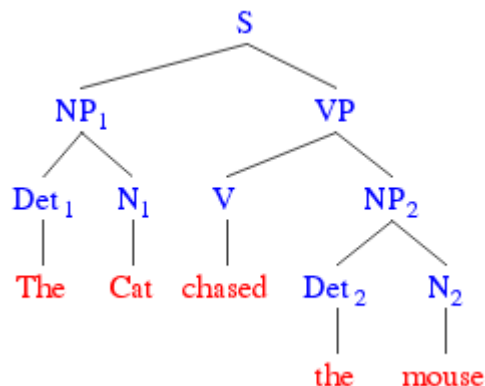
You will find the Reed-Kellogg diagrammer interesting to try. Simply go to this page and type a full sentence and the diagrammer will fix a nice diagram for you. http://1aiway.com/nlp4net/docs/help_reed_kellogg.aspx

Note: You need an updated Silverlight plugin for your browser to make the diagrammer works.

[S [NP The Cat][VP [V chased][NP the mouse]]]

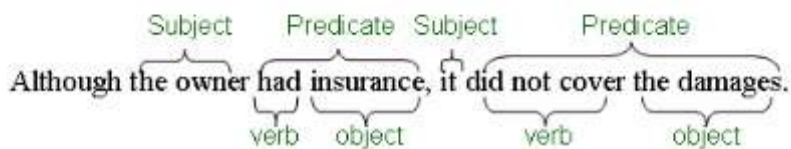
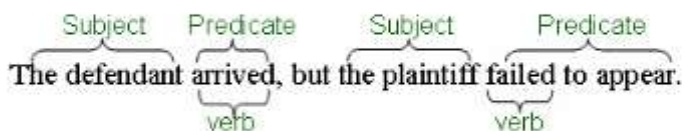
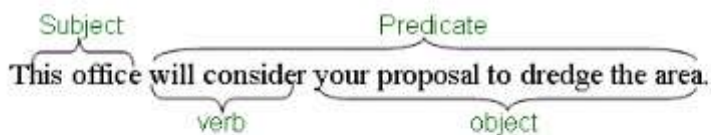
[S [NP [Det The] [N Cat]][VP [V chased][NP [Det the] [N mouse]]]]

Labelled Bracketing



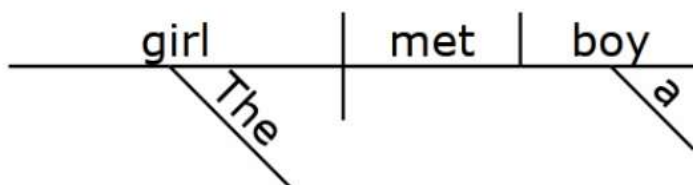
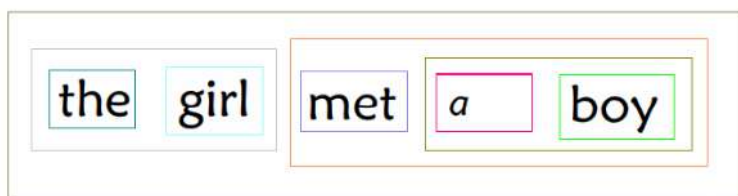
Tree Diagram

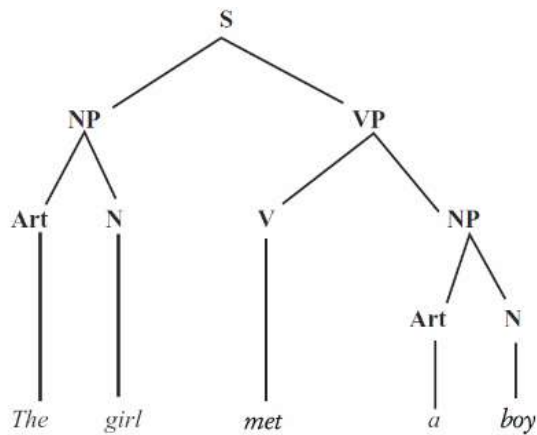
In syntax parsing, we have to first identify the section of the sentence.



D. Parsing Syntax

The girl met a boy.





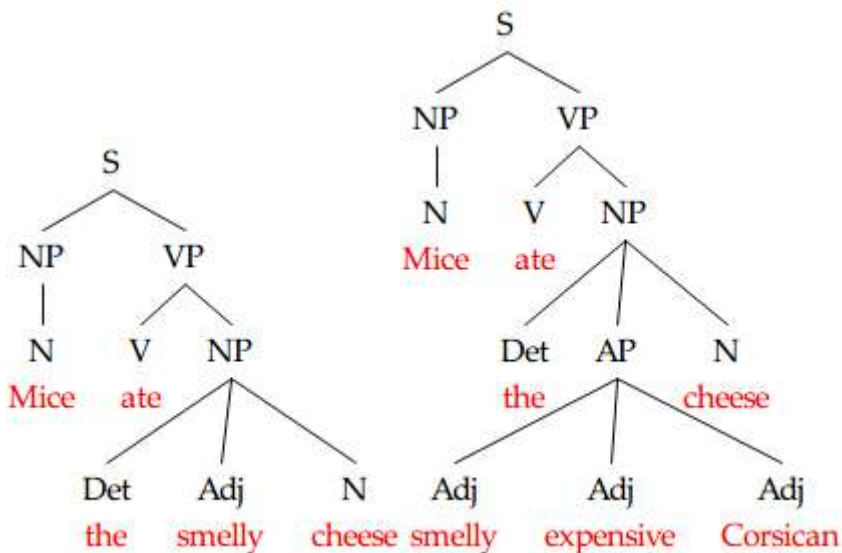
Exercises.

Exercise 1. Adjective Phrase

The phrase such as:

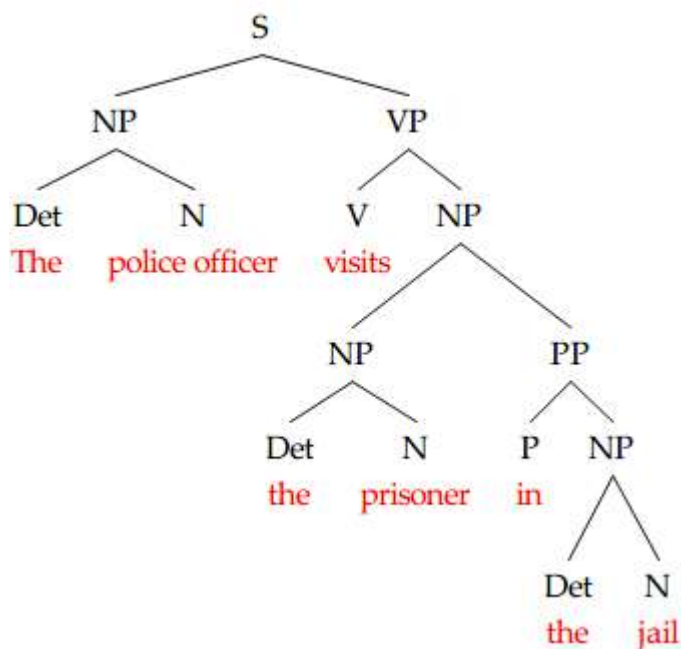
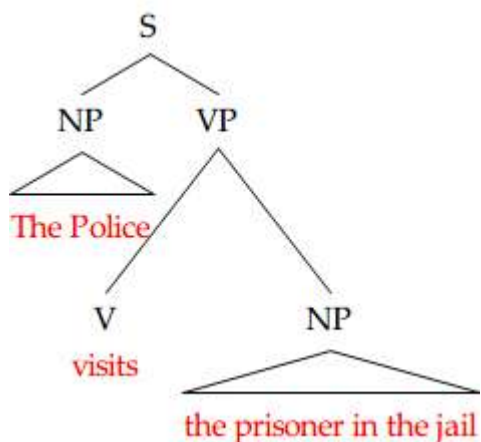
Mice ate the smelly cheese

Note that **NP** → **Det (AP) N** can be fitted by a phrase NP → the smelly cheese. You may also fill this AP with unlimited AP: smelly expensive Corsican ...

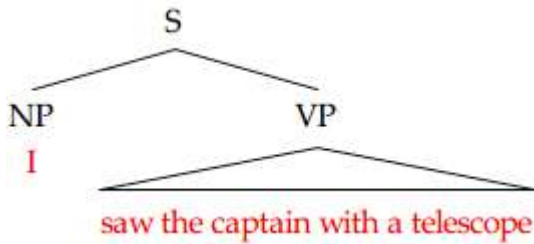


Exercise 2. Prepositional phrase

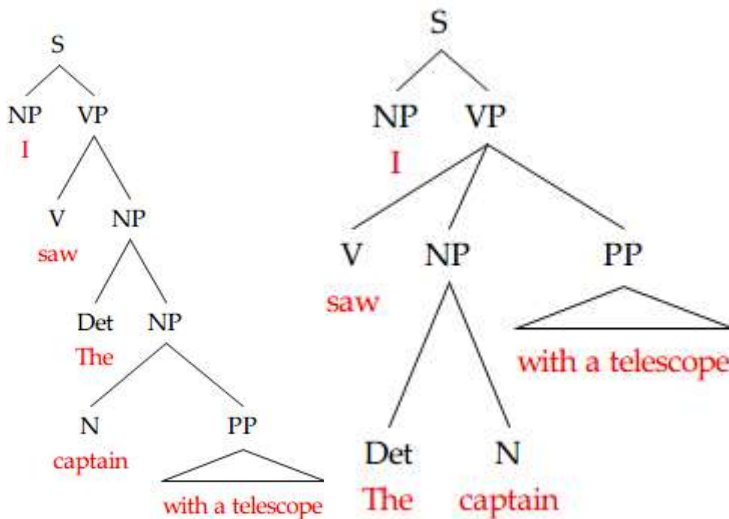
The phrase structure rule on PP (prepositional phrase) can clarify the position of the PP whether the PP is the constituent of the NP or the constituent of an AdvP



In case of an ambiguous sentence: I saw the captain with a telescope



This diagram at this level still questionable: who has the telescope? The following two tree diagram will tell us the difference between “the telescope” whether it was being used to see the captain or “the telescope” as it belongs to the captain when I see with “my bare eye”.



Exercise 3. Complement Phrase

Sentences with Complement phrase are parsed using the following rules:

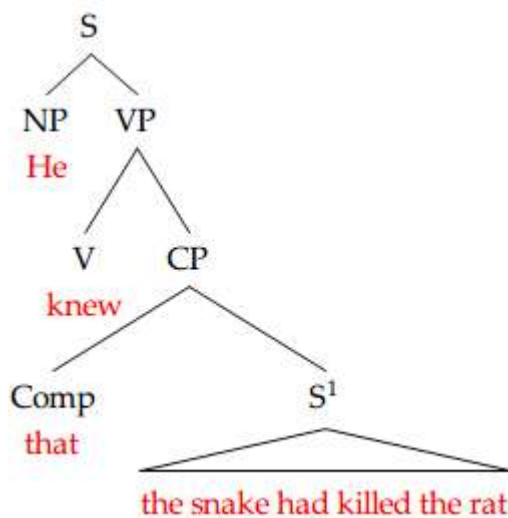
$S \rightarrow NP VP$

$VP \rightarrow V CP$

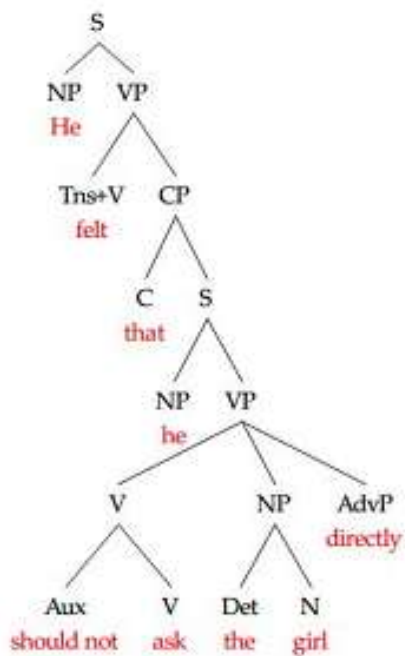
$CP \rightarrow Comp S$

Note that the triangle is used if you do not need to parse the constituent

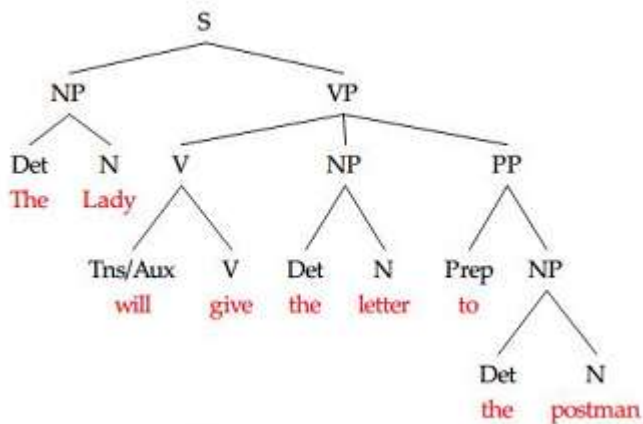
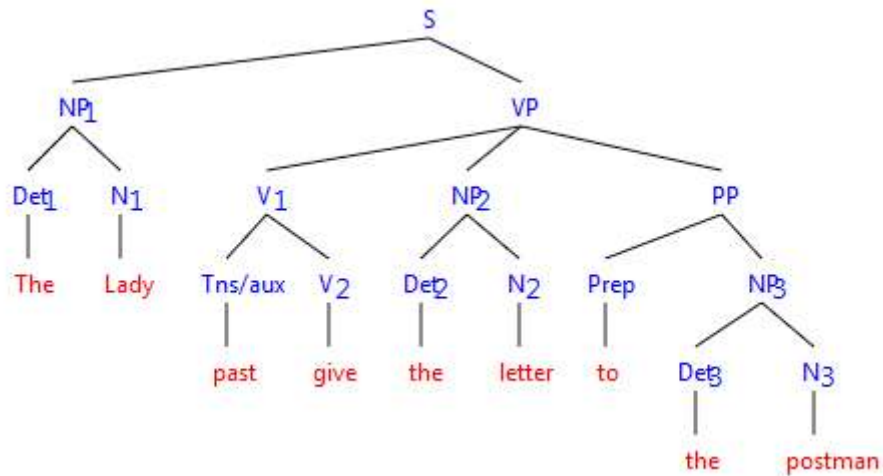
(commonly for efficiency because you are focusing on other part of the syntax)

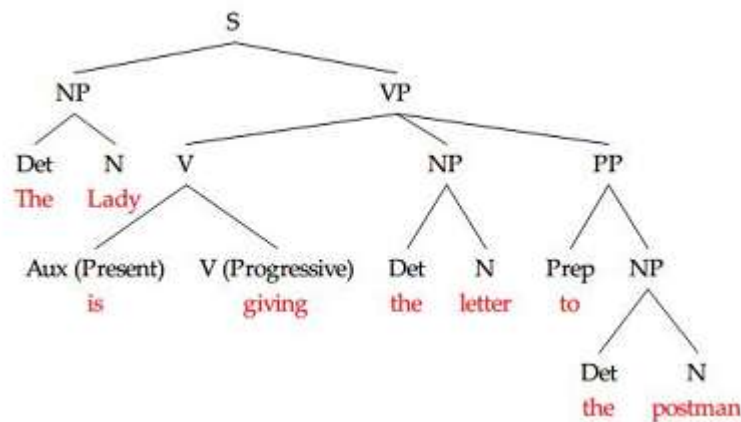


The following sentence you will see the detailed parsing of a sentence with CP:

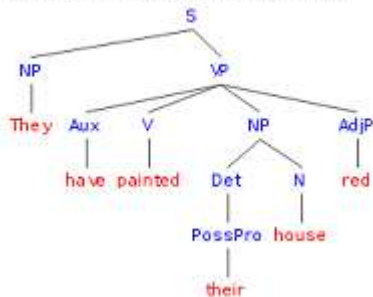


Exercise 4. Other examples of syntax parsing

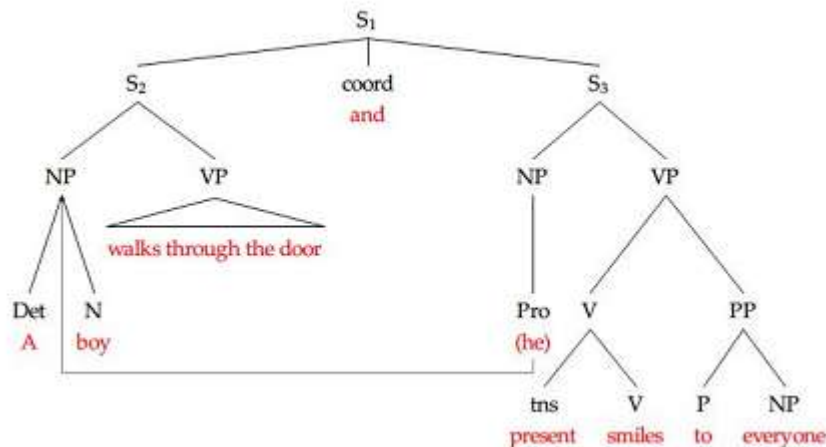




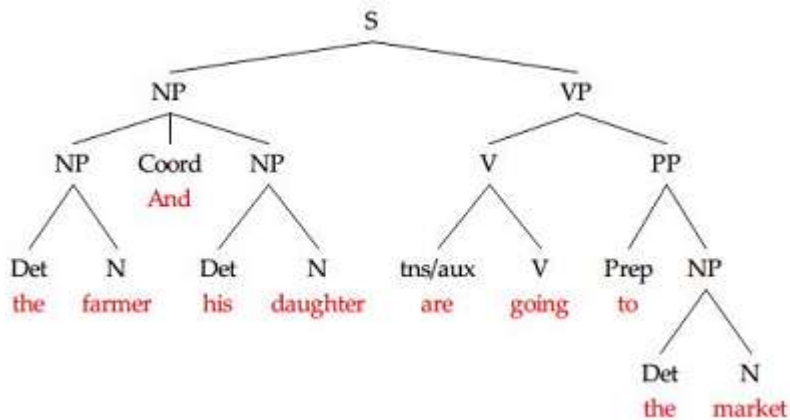
Possessive pronoun as Determiner



Merging sentences with coordinators.



Coordinators can also join NPs

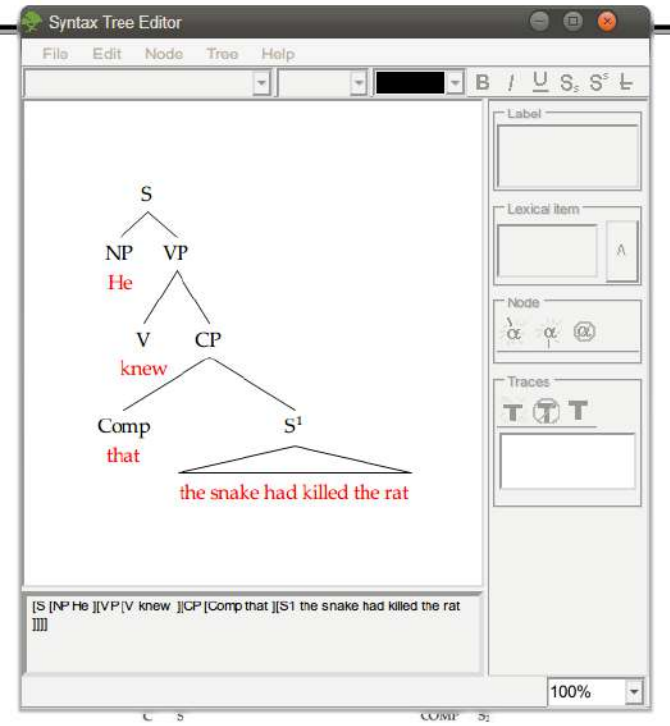


TASK

Parse these sentences with labeled bracketing and use this syntax tree tool from this link: <http://www.ironcreek.net/phpsyntaxtree/> to create a tree diagram for the following sentences:

1. Everybody thought that I was sick today.
2. My student and I went to the event early.
3. The sick goat slept in the dusty dark filthy garage.
4. We must not skip the meeting today.
5. Eventually, I saw him greeted the girl.
6. I saw a person with a baseball bat.
7. A schoolboy shouts at his friend and surprises the teacher.
8. We met the workers in the field.
9. He felt that he should give the present to her immediately.
10. Should I give you my phone number?

You can also use Syntax tree editor to draw the tree manually.



The application is free to use. Download it here: <http://www.ductape.net/~eppie/tree/download.html>

Chapter 6

THE STUDY OF MEANING

The major concern of semantic is the study of conventional or conceptual meaning of a language. Yule (2010, p. 112), furthermore elaborates that “semantics is the study of meaning of words, phrases and sentences”. It counts for the so-called objective and general meaning rather than the subjective and local meaning in its analysis. Sentences, phrases and words are equally shared as a associatively shared knowledge between the speaker and the hearer.

A. Semantic Features

At the beginning, it is central to be clear what actually included in semantic features. These features will foster different and unique approaches in analyzing words, phrases or sentences. Semantic features comprise of a written method that can be exercised to express the existence or non-existence of pre-established crucial distinguishing features by using plus minus signs. This will detect how odd or strange the meaning of a sentence would be. For example:

The radio listen to the boy (this is grammatically correct, but semantically unusual)

Radio is (-Human), (-Male), (-Adult)

Boy is (+Human), (+Male), (-Adult)

B. Semantic Relations

Below are some types of word-meaning relations which are frequently used in communication. Apart from these following examples, there are more to study in the field of semantic.

Synonym is when two or more words with very close meaning are associatively similar. The idea of “proximity” in meaning does not necessarily be in “complete similarity” in meaning. They can mostly, although not always, substitute each other. For example, theoretically-hypothetically, aircraft-plane, and etc.

Antonym is when two or more words formed the conflicting meaning. It can be divided into gradable (opposites along a scale) such as big-small or tall-short, and non-gradable (complimentary pairs) or direct opposites such as dark-bright, or live-dead.

Hyponymy when the meaning of two related words is integrated within the same hierarchical connections. Including in this group are words such as flower-orchid and rose, and animal-cat and monkey, plant – vegetables and trees, insect – flies and ants. The firstly mentioned words are called super ordinate, and the latter mentioned words are subordinate or also called co-hyponyms or hypernymy.

Polysemy occurred when two or more words with the same form and related meanings can have multiple meanings that are connected with extensions. For instance head can mean the chairperson of an organization or top parts of our body.

Metonymy can be recognized through three connections. The first one is the container-content connection such as in bottle-water. The second connection can be based on whole-part relation such as car-

wheel. Finally, the last connection is built upon representative-symbol relationship (President-White House)

C. Lexicography

Lexicography is the process of making, writing editing, compiling and revising dictionaries (monolingual, bilingual or specialized) and other textual references such as glossary, idioms, etc. This is called practical lexicography. On the other hand, the study of analyzing semantic, syntagmatic and paradigmatic relationships within lexical choices or vocabulary is also called theoretical lexicography.

D. Pragmatic: Non-Conventional Meaning

As oppose to semantic, pragmatic focuses on the study of language in context where speaker's subjective meaning is the main trait of analysis. In other word, Yule (2010) describes pragmatics as the study of invisible meaning.

Language in Context

Deixis is used to describe things (it, this), people/person (him, her), place/space/location (there, here), and time (now, then).

Reference is the continuation of comprehending deixis. When we mention the name of an object, for example, we can use proper nouns (Michael Jordan, Jennifer Lopez), other nouns in phrases (athlete, artist) or pronouns (he, she). When we are not sure we can also use "thing" or "stuff" to relate to the context.

Speech Act is the action performed by the speaker with the actual utterance. Promising, questioning, informing, requesting, blaming, attending and attacking is some examples of it.

Politeness is to show our consideration of another person's self-image during the conversation. Politeness can be positive when someone shows solidarity to the hearer, such as "I think we can do this, let's keep our high spirit". It can also be negative when someone tries to show concern about imposition for example "I apologize to interfere you, but..."

Implicature is conversational and conventional. In conversational implicature the speaker carry out non literal or implicit meaning that enables interpretation such sentences with these features: I am sure, around, approximately, some, several, neither – nor, and either – or.

Exercise: In which type these *White House* and *Head* words fall to? Why?

Chapter 7

SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Some students speak more than one language. Those students who acquire any additional language after the language they had in their homes are learning their **second language** (L2). Even though it may be their third, fourth, or tenth to be acquired, the term used is L2. Another common term for L2 is **target language** (TL), which refers to any language that is the aim or goal of learning (Saville-Troike, 2006). The language that they had earlier is called first language (L1). L1 is often named with the term “**native language**” or “**mother tongue**”. In addition, L1 is not necessarily the language that a person dominantly use. One can also uses L2 more frequent than the L1.

The linguistics field that studies how language learners learn additional language is called Second Language Acquisition (SLA), refers both to the study of individuals and groups who are learning a language subsequent to learning their first one as young children and to the process of learning that language. Gass and Selinker (2008, as cited in Van Patten & Benati, 2010) define SLA as the study of how learners create a new language system. As a research field, they add that SLA is the study of what is learned of a second language and what is not learned. SLA has been very active in the past decades in learning how a learner learns the new language(s) and has

contributed significant inputs for language teaching and learning. Many concepts, methods and approaches in language learning are developed from notions and theories in SLA. This linguistics field has become a foundation for understanding the phenomena of language learning.

SLA has emerged as a field of study primarily from within linguistics and psychology (and their subfields of applied linguistics, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, and social psychology). There are corresponding differences in what is emphasized by researchers who come from each of these fields:

1. Linguists emphasize the characteristics of the differences and similarities in the languages that are being learned, and the linguistic competence (underlying knowledge) and linguistic performance (actual production) of learners at various stages of acquisition.
2. Psychologists and psycholinguists emphasize the mental or cognitive processes involved in acquisition, and the representation of language(s) in the brain.
3. Sociolinguists emphasize variability in learner linguistic performance, and extend the scope of study to communicative competence (underlying knowledge that additionally accounts for language use, or pragmatic competence).
4. Social psychologists emphasize group-related phenomena, such as identity and social motivation, and the interactional and larger social contexts of learning.

A. First Language vs. Second Language (L1 vs. L2)

Most of us realized that we are capable in using a language although we would never be able to describe the step-by-step activities or tasks we follow when we learn that language. The language is called the first language (L1), or the mother tongue. We learn our first language without we even notice that we are learning. Most of the development of the first language happened when we are raised in the family and that of course the process where we use the language to communicate with our parents or the family members as well as the community in our surrounding most dominantly during our childhood beginning before the age of about three

years old. This process is called acquisition. Acquisition of more than one language during early childhood is called simultaneous multilingualism. Simultaneous multilingualism results in more than one “native” language for an individual, though it is undoubtedly much less common than sequential multilingualism.

Second language, however is tied with some functions in our lives. We should try to see the differences of functions so that we will be able to see clearly how the learners in each second language context acquire the target language. Seville-Troike provides a list of distinguishable definition for Second language:

1. A **Second language** is typically an official or societal dominant language needed for education, employment, and other basic purposes. It is often acquired by minority group members or immigrants who speak another language natively.
2. A **Foreign language** is one not widely used in the learner’s immediate social context which might be used for future travel or other cross-cultural communication situations, or studied as a curricular requirement or elective in school, but with no immediate or necessary practical application.
3. A **Library language** is one which functions primarily as a tool for further learning through reading, especially when books or journals in a desired field of study are not commonly published in the learner’s native tongue.
4. An **Auxiliary language** is one which learners need to know for some official functions in their immediate political setting, or will need for purposes of wider communication, although their first language serves most other needs in their lives.
5. A **language for specific purposes** is a restricted or highly specialized function for second language, for example: English for Aviation technology, Spanish for agriculture and French for hotel management, etc.

However, the same learners in different learning context can learn in both ESL and EFL. A group of Japanese students learning English in their class in Japan is learning English as Foreign Language (EFL). When the

same Japanese students learn English in an English class, say, in USA, they would be learning English as Second Language (ESL). In either case, they are trying to learn another language (additional language), so the expression second language learning is used more generally to describe in both situations. (Yule, 2006).

B. Why Studying Second Language Acquisition?

Second Language Acquisition (SLA) involves a wide range of language learning settings and learner characteristics and circumstances. This book will consider a broad scope of these, examining them from three different disciplinary perspectives: linguistic, psychological, and social. Different approaches to the study of SLA have developed from each of these perspectives in attempts to answer the three basic questions: What exactly does the L2 learner come to know? How does the learner acquire this knowledge? Why are some learners more (or less) successful than others?

Much of our L1 acquisition was completed before we ever come to school, and this development normally takes place without any conscious effort. By the age of six months and infant has produced all of the vowel sounds and most of the consonant sounds of any language in the world, including some that do not occur in the language(s) their parents speak. If children hear English spoken around them, they will learn to discriminate among those sounds that make a difference in the meaning of English words (the phonemes), and they will learn to disregard those that do not.

On average children have mastered most of the distinctive sounds of their first language before they are three years old, and an awareness of basic discourse patterns such as conversational turn-taking appear at an even earlier age. Children control most of the basic L1 grammatical patterns before they are five or six, although complex grammatical patterns continue to develop through the school years.

Human are born with a **natural ability** or **innate capacity** to learn language. Such a predisposition must be assumed in order to explain several facts

1. Children begin to learn their L1 at the same age, and in much the same way, whether it is English, Bengali, Korean, Swahili, or any other language in the world.

2. Children master the basic phonological and grammatical operations in their L1 by the age of about five or six, as noted above, regardless of what the language is.
3. Children can understand and create novel utterances; they are not limited to repeating what they have heard, and indeed the utterances that children produce are often systematically different from those of the adults around them.
4. There is a cut-off age for L1 acquisition, beyond which it can never be complete.
5. Acquisition of L1 is not simply a facet of general intelligence.

C. Key Terminologies in Second Language Acquisition

Input and Intake

S. Pit C order defines input as the language available from the environment, and intake as the language that actually makes its way into the learner's competence (VanPatten & Benati, 2010). What considered as input, to name a few, are the teachers' instructions, the materials given by teacher, and any other forms of language available or exposed to the students. The students watching a movie in a target language is a whole lot of input, but what the students learned after watching the movie is what we call the intake. An analogy of poured water from a bucket to a bottle can give us a good way on understanding input and intake. The amount of water from the bucket is the input. When it is poured into a bottle, only some of the water gets into the bottle, leaving the rest poured on the sides of the water. The water that gets into the bottle is called intake.

Input consists of language that L2 learners are exposed to in a communicative context. That is, it is language that learners hear or read that they process for its message or meaning. Different kinds of input have been discussed over the years, including **comprehensible input**, language that learners can readily understand for its meaning, and **modified input**, language that is adjusted so that learners can better comprehend the speakers' meaning.

Interlanguage

Interlanguage is a term coined in 1972 by Larry Selinker and was intended to describe the competence of L2 Learner and the source of that competence. The idea was that learners possessed a special competence (or language) that was independent of the L1 and also independent of the L2, even though it might show influences from both L1 and L2. Interlanguage involves both positive and negative transfer from the L1. **Positive Transfer** is the use of a feature from the learner's L1 that is similar to the L2. **Negative Transfer** is the use of a feature from the learner's L1 that is substantially different from the L2.

Acquisition vs. Learning

Stephen Krashen (1970) made a distinction between learning and acquisition. For him, learning referred to **conscious** effort at learning rules from books and teachers. When learners receive information such as “you need to add and-s to verbs that refer to someone else. This is called third-person –s.” and then practice this rule, Krashen would consider this learning. Learning results in a particular kind of knowledge system, an “explicit” system.

Distinct from learning is acquisition. According to Krashen, acquisition involves processes by which learners internalize language from exposure to input, and not because anyone teaches the learner a rule or because he or she practices it. Unlike learning, acquisition for an L2 learner results in an implicit (unconscious) linguistic system, just as it would for the L1 learner.

Mistakes vs. Error

Mistake is an inaccurate statement that, if pointed out, the student can correct. Often the student will notice the inaccuracy on his/her own and self-correct. **Error** is an inaccurate statement that the student does not know is inaccurate and/or does not know how to correct.

Fossilization

Fossilization is the process in which an **interlanguage** containing many non-L2 features stops evolving towards the correct L2 form

Language Acquisition Device

The language acquisition device (LAD) is an older term coined by Noam Chomsky in the 1960s to describe an innate or biological endowment for language and language acquisition. According to Chomsky, children cannot possibly acquire a first language by mimicking, hypothesis testing, or generalizing from input data because such strategies would lead them down the wrong path and cause delays on acquisition. However later, Chomsky has refined his ideas and no longer speaks of LAD, but instead refers to **Universal Grammar**, and innate knowledge source that governs the shape of natural languages. LAD refers to an “organ” of the brain that functions as the controlling device for language acquisition.

This theory was one among concepts developed by Innatist Theory, a theory that claims languages are inborn not learned. Language is a hardwired bioprogram that develops when infants are exposed to it. Acquiring language is like learning to walk.

Exercises.

Exercise 1. Explain why should we study SLA?

Exercise 2. What makes *error* and mistake in SLA difference?

Chapter 8

LANGUAGE IN DIVERSE SOCIAL CONTEXTS

Language change is taking place anytime, anywhere and anyhow around the globe. This change influences the linguistic features of a language. This includes among others phonetic, morphology, semantic and syntactic. There are some reasons why language changes occurred. Some of them are due to economic, cultural, educational, demographical, and social causes.

A. How English travels

- Colonialization
- Advertorial
- Mass-Broadcasting
- Product labels
- Art and pop-culture
- Communication (telegraphy → internet)

B. Language Changes

In terms of types of language change, it normally consists of the following ones:

Lexical changes. This change is caused by the arrival of new words into English. During this process, English is not only borrowing other words, but also losing some old words to the newly borrowed ones.

Phonetic changes. Sound change and phonological developments is included here.

Spelling changes. This change may happen because of regional dialects or accents. It may also be caused by the change in pronunciation and personal preference.

Semantic changes. In this change, the existing words' meaning is shifting to a newly adopted meaning. This can be realized into pejoration (negative), amelioration (positive), broadening (additional), narrowing (restricted and limited) changes.

Syntactic changes. This is the most influential changer of a language. It can attribute to the formation of new hybrid identity of language, where old and new language are mingling together (creolization) or also to the process of relexification in which a language changes almost all of its basic vocabulary

Kachru Circles of English (Inner, Outer and Extended Circles)

This categorization of English was firstly generated by Braj Kachru, and Indian linguists born in Kashmir, a formerly British India colony. He used the proposal to divide English language into three circles, namely inner, outer and extended circles. The inner circle recalls the traditional home of English, like Great Britain, The United States, Australia, Canada and some Caribbean countries. Then the outer circle comprises of countries where English is not their first language but it is officially used as historical purpose such as India, Nigeria, Malaysia, and most British Commonwealth countries and former American colonies. Last is the extended circle where English is used as internationally acknowledged foreign language such as in most European countries, most far-eastern countries like China, South Korean and Japan, as well as Indonesia and Brazil.

In addition to Kachru circles, there are also other categorizations of English. One of them is McArthur “wheel model” which is normally dubbed “World Standard English”. This is widely known as “written international English”. McArthur classifies English into English as Native Language (ENL), English as Second Language (ESL), and English as Second Language (ESL). Although his model is somehow problematic, his ENL, EFL and EFL groupings have been widely referred by English educators.

World Englishes

World Englishes developed firstly during the invasion of the British Empire to almost every corner of the world in the late modern English period starting in the 18th century. New form of Englishes emerged across the globe as a result of the so-called language colonialism. This term was raised internationally in 1978 to describe the making of local English globally.

Currently the variety of new Englishes spread across the global community either as first language (L1) or also as second language (L2). Therefore, the concept of world Englishes differ from world English and global English. World Englishes denote the the variation of English developed in different parts of the world such as Indian English, Malay or Singaporean English. On the other hand, world English refers to the idea of using English as the standard language in business, trade and commercials. The later concept, global English is used by scholars to designate the actual spread of English in the era of globalization.

EIL/Global English paradigm	ELF/World English paradigm
1. Assimilationist 2. Monolingual orientation 3. International English assumes Us/UK norms 4. World Standard spoken English 5. Anglo-American linguistics norms 6. Exonormative English 7. Target norm the 'native speaker' 8. Teacher can be monolingual	1. Celebrates and support diversity 2. Multilingual, multi-dialectal 3. 'International': a cross national linguistics common core 4. English as a Lingua Franca 5. Local linguistic norms, regional and national 6. Endonormative Englishes 7. Target norm the good ESL user 8. Bilingual and bicultural teacher

Philipson's global English and Lingua Franca Model (Jenkins 2009)

Method or Post-method

The last part of this chapter will elaborate specifically on method or post method in English language teaching. Most language educators are currently use “eclectic “method of teaching. This means that they are not relying on specific teaching method, but rather engaging themselves with a variation of mixed method idiosyncratically designed for specific contexts.

Some argue that the era of post method has substituted the heyday of method in language teaching. The downfall of method in language teaching is perhaps due to the fact that one method cannot comprehensively address all problems in language teaching. There is no superior advantage one can found over other methods. Such failure was pointed as the main factor of downgrading the skill of educators and teachers, and contributing to the institutional power over classroom learning and teaching process. On the other hand, the post method is a condition of escalating disappointment of conventional concept or method in teaching. In this approach, educators are highly engaged in macro-strategies and contextualized techniques in the classroom. This has led to the optimalization of learning opportunities which has failed to rise during the implementation of specific set of rules in the old method. It promotes learner autonomy and creativity and produces more exciting new approaches in modern language learning process. One of the post method examples is the Rosetta Stone software.

Exercises.

Exercise 1. What makes English, Global English and World Englishes different?

Exercise 2. Explain and give examples of Kachru classification of English

Exercise 3. What makes language change over time and how English travels around the globe? Which aspect of these changes and travels of English do you feel attach to?

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GLOSSARY

- **accent:** aspects of pronunciation that identify where a speaker is from, in contrast to dialect
- **acoustic phonetics:** the study of the physical properties of speech as sound waves
- **acquisition:** the gradual development of ability in a first or second language by using it naturally in communicative situations
- **acronym:** a new word formed from the initial letters of other words
- **adjective (Adj):** a word such as happy or strange used with a noun to provide more information
- **adverb (Adv):** a word such as slowly or really used with a verb or adjective to provide more information
- **affix:** bound morpheme such as un- or -ed added to a word (e.g. undressed)
- **affricate:** a consonant produced by stopping then releasing the air flow through a narrow opening (e.g. the first and last sounds in church)
- **allomorph:** one of a closely related set of morphs
- **allophone:** one of a closely related set of speech sounds or phones
- **alphabet (alphabetic writing):** a way of writing in which one symbol

represents one sound segment

- alveolar: a consonant produced with the front part of the tongue on the alveolar ridge (e.g. the first and last sounds in dot)
- alveolar ridge: the rough bony ridge immediately behind the upper front teeth
- analogy: a process of forming a new word to be similar in some way to an existing word
- anaphora (anaphoric expressions): use of pronouns (it) and noun phrases with the (the puppy) to refer back to something already mentioned
- antonymy: the lexical relation in which words have opposite meanings
- applied linguistics: the study of a large range of practical issues involving language in general and second language learning in particular
- arbitrariness: a property of language describing the fact that there is no natural connection between a linguistic form and its meaning
- article (Art): a word such as a, an or the used with a noun
- articulatory parameters: the four key aspects of visual information used in the description of signs (shape, orientation, location and movement)
- articulatory phonetics: the study of how speech sounds are produced
- aspiration: a puff of air that sometimes accompanies the pronunciation of a stop
- assimilation: the process whereby a feature of one sound becomes part of another during speech production
- associative meaning: the type of meaning that people might connect with the use of words (e.g. needle='painful') that is not part of conceptual meaning
- auditory phonetics: the study of the perception of speech sounds by the ear, also called 'perceptual phonetics'
- auxiliary verb (Aux): a verb such as will used with another verb
- bilabial: a consonant produced by using both lips (e.g. the first and last sounds in pub)
- bilingual: a term used to describe a native speaker of two languages or a country with two official languages, in contrast to monolingual
- bilingualism: the state of having two languages

- **blending:** the process of combining the beginning of one word and the end of another word to form a new word (e.g. *brunch* from *breakfast* and *lunch*)
- **borrowing:** the process of taking words from other languages
- **bound morpheme:** a morpheme such as *un-* or *-ed* that cannot stand alone and must be attached to another form (e.g. *undressed*)
- **broadening:** a semantic change in which a word is used with a more general meaning (e.g. *fodder* (animal fodder) → *food* (any kind)), in contrast to narrowing reduced, distorted, slow and missing grammatical markers
- **category:** a group with certain features in common
- **characters:** forms used in Chinese writing
- **clipping:** the process of reducing a word of more than one syllable to a shorter form (e.g. *ad* from *advertisement*)
- **co-articulation:** the process of making one sound virtually at the same time as the next sound
- **coherence:** the connections that create a meaningful interpretation of texts
- **cohesion:** the ties and connections that exist within texts
- **cohesive ties:** the individual connections between words and phrases in a text
- **co-hyponyms:** words in hyponymy that share the same super ordinate ('*Daffodil*' and '*rose*' are co-hyponyms of '*flower*')
- **coinage:** the invention of new words (e.g. *xerox*)
- **collocation:** a relationship between words that frequently occur together (e.g. *salt and pepper*)
- **communication strategy:** away of overcoming a gap between communicative intent and a limited ability to express that intent, as part of strategic competence
- **communicative approaches:** approaches to language teaching that are based on learning through using language rather than learning about language
- **communicative competence:** the general ability to use language accurately, appropriately and flexibly

- communicative signals: behavior used intentionally to provide information
- comparative reconstruction: the creation of the original form of an ancestor language on the basis of comparable forms in languages that are descendants
- complementizer (C): a word such as that introducing a complement phrase
- complement phrase (CP): a structure such as that Mary helped George used to complete a construction beginning with a structure such as Cathy knew
- compounding: the process of combining two (or more) words to form a new word (e.g. waterbed)
- conceptual meaning: the basic components of meaning conveyed by the literal use of words
- conjunction: a word such as and or because used to make connections between words, phrases and sentences
- consonant: a speech sound produced by restricting the air flow in some way
- consonantal alphabet: a way of writing in which each symbol represents a consonant sound
- consonant cluster: two or more consonants in sequence
- context: either the physical context or the linguistic context (co-text) in which words are used
- conversation analysis: the study of turn-taking in conversation
- conversion: the process of changing the function of a word, such as a noun to a verb, as a way of forming new words, also known as 'category change' or 'functional shift' (e.g. vacation in They're vacationing in Florida)
- co-operative principle: an underlying assumption of conversation that you will "make your conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged" (Grice, 1975:45)
- corpus linguistics: the study of language in use by analyzing the occurrence and frequency of forms in a large collection of texts

typically stored in a computer

- co-text: the set of other words used in the same phrase or sentence, also called the linguistic context
- countable: type of noun that can be used in English with a/an and the plural (e.g. cup, two cups), in contrast to non-countable
- creole: a variety of a language that developed from a pidgin and is used as a first language by a population of native speakers
- creolization: the process of development from a pidgin to a creole, in contrast to decreolization
- critical period: the time from birth to puberty during which normal first language acquisition can take place
- cultural transmission: the process whereby knowledge of a language is passed from one generation to the next
- culture: socially acquired knowledge
- decreolization: the process whereby a creole is used with fewer distinct creole features as it becomes more like a standard variety, in contrast to creolization
- deep structure: the underlying structure of sentences as represented by phrase structure rules
- deictics: gestures used to point at things or people
- deixis (deictic expressions): using words such as this or here as a way of 'pointing' with language
- dental: a consonant produced with the tongue tip behind the upper front teeth (e.g. the first sound in that)
- derivation: the process of forming new words by adding affixes
- derivational morpheme: a bound morpheme such as -ish used to make new words or words of a different grammatical category (e.g. boyish), in contrast to an inflectional morpheme
- descriptive approach: an approach to grammar that is based on a description of the structures actually used in a language, not what should be used, in contrast to the prescriptive approach
- diachronic variation: differences resulting from change over a period of time, in contrast to synchronic variation

- dialect: aspects of the grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation of a variety of a language, in contrast to accent
- dialect boundary: a line representing a set of isoglosses, used to separate one dialect area from another
- dialect continuum: the gradual merging of one regional variety of a language into another
- dialectology: the study of dialects
- diphthong: a sound combination that begins with a vowel and ends with a glide (e.g. boy)
- direct speech act: an action in which the form used (e.g. interrogative) directly matches the function (e.g. question) performed by a speaker with an utterance, in contrast to an indirect speech act
- discourse analysis: the study of language beyond the sentence, in text and conversation
- displacement: a property of language that allows users to talk about things and events not present in the immediate environment
- divergence: adopting a speech style that emphasizes social distance by using forms that are different from those used by the person being talked to, as a form of speech accommodation, in contrast to convergence
- duality: a property of language whereby linguistic forms have two simultaneous levels of sound production and meaning, also called 'double articulation'
- elision: the process of leaving out a sound segment in the pronunciation of a word
- etymology: the study of the origin and history of words
- grammatical competence: the ability to use words and structures accurately as part of communicative competence
- grammatical gender: a grammatical category designating the class of a noun as masculine or feminine (or neuter), in contrast to other types of gender
- hedge: a word or phrase used to indicate that you are not really sure that what you are saying is sufficiently correct or complete
- hierarchical organization: the analysis of constituents in a sentence showing which constituents are higher than and contain other

constituents

- homonyms: two words with the same form that are unrelated in meaning (e.g. mole(on skin) –mole(small animal))
- homophones: two or more words with different forms and the same pronunciation (e.g.to–too–two)
- hyponymy: the lexical relation in which the meaning of one word is included in the meaning of another (e.g. ‘Daffodil’ is a hyponym of ‘flower’)
- ideogram (ideographic writing): a way of writing in which each symbol represents a concept
- implicature: an additional meaning conveyed by a speaker adhering to the co-operative principle
- indirect speech act: an action in which the form used (e.g. interrogative) does not directly match the function (e.g. request) performed by a speaker with an utterance, in contrast to a direct speech act
- inference: additional information used by a listener/reader to create a connection between what is said and what must be meant
- inflectional morpheme: abound morphem eused to indicate the grammatical function of a word, also called an ‘inflection’ (e.g.dogs, walked)
- informative signals: behavior that provides information, usually unintentionally
- innateness hypothesis: the idea that humans are genetically equipped to acquire language
- input: the language that an acquirer/learner is exposed to, in contrast to output
- instrument: the semantic role of the noun phrase identifying the entity that is used to perform the action of the verb (e.g. The boy cut the rope with a razor)
- interdental: a consonant produced with the tongue tip between the upper and lower teeth (e.g. the first sound in that)
- interlanguage: the interim system ofL2learners, which has some features of the L1 and L2plus some that are independent of theL1and theL2

- internal change: change in a language that is not caused by outside influence, in contrast to external change
- isogloss: a line on a map separating two areas in which a particular linguistic feature is significantly different, used in the study of dialect
- jargon: special technical vocabulary associated with a specific activity or topic as part of a register
- L1: first language, acquired as a child
- L2: second language
- labelled and bracketed sentences: a type of analysis in which constituents in a sentence are marked off by brackets with labels describing each type of constituent
- labiodental: a consonant produced with the upper teeth and the lower lip (e.g. the first sounds in very funny)
- language planning: choosing and developing an official language or languages for use in government and education
- larynx: the part of the throat that contains the vocal cords, also called the voice box
- lateralization (lateralized): divided into a left side and a right side, with control of functions on one side or the other (used in describing the human brain)
- learning: the conscious process of accumulating knowledge, in contrast to acquisition
- lexicalized: expressed as a single word, in contrast to non-lexicalized
- lexical morpheme: a free morpheme that is a content word such as a noun or verb
- lexical relations: the relationships of meaning, such as synonymy, between words
- lexical rules: rules stating which words can be used for constituents generated by phrase structure rules
- lexifier (language): the main source (language) of words in a pidgin
- linguistic context: the set of other words used in the same phrase or sentence, also called co-text
- linguistic determinism: the idea that we can only think in the categories

provided by our language, in contrast to linguistic relativity

- linguistic geography: the study of language variation based on where different varieties of the language are used
- linguistic relativity: the idea that, to some extent, we think about the world using categories provided by our language, in contrast to linguistic determinism
- linguistic variable: a feature of language use that distinguishes one group of speakers from another
- liquid: a sound produced by letting air flow around the sides of the tongue (e.g. the first sound in lip)
- loan translation: a type of borrowing in which each element of a word is translated into the borrowing language, also called calque
- localization view: the belief that specific aspects of linguistic ability have specific locations in the brain
- location(in semantics): the semantic role of the noun phrase identifying where an entity is (e.g. The boy is sitting in the classroom)
- logogram (logographic writing): a way of writing in which each symbol represents a word
- manner maxim: the assumption in conversation that you will “be clear, brief and orderly” (Grice,1975:46)
- maxim: one of four assumptions in conversation connected to the co-operative principle
- metonymy: a word used in place of another with which it is closely connected in everyday experience (e.g. He drank the whole bottle(=the liquid))
- Middle English: the form of English in use between 1100 and 1500
- minimal pair (set): two (or more) words that are identical in form except for a contrast in one phoneme in the same position in each word (e.g.bad, mad)
- monolingual: having, or being able to use, only one language, in contrast to bilingual
- morph: an actual form used as part of a word, representing one version of a morpheme
- morpheme: a minimal unit of meaning or grammatical function

- morphology: the analysis of the structure of words
- narrowing: a semantic change in which a word is used with a less general meaning (e.g. *meat* (any type of food) → *meat* (only animal flesh)), in contrast to broadening
- nasal: a sound produced through the nose (e.g. the first sounds in my name)
- nasalization: pronunciation of a sound with air flowing through the nose, typically before a nasal consonant
- natural gender: a distinction based on the biological categories of male, female or neither, in contrast to other types of gender
- negative face: the need to be independent and free from imposition, in contrast to positive face
- negative transfer: the use of a feature from the L1 (that is really different from the L2) while performing in the L2, in contrast to positive transfer
- negotiated input: L2 material that an acquirer/learner is exposed to when active attention is drawn to that material during interaction in the L2
- neologism: a new word
- neurolinguistics: the study of the relationship between language and the brain
- non-countable: type of noun that is not used in English with a/an or the plural (e.g. *furniture*, *two furnitures*), in contrast to countable
- non-gradable antonyms: words which are direct opposites (e.g. *alive*–*dead*)
- non-lexicalized: not expressed as a single word, in contrast to lexicalized
- noun (N): a word such as *boy*, *bicycle* or *freedom* used to describe a person, thing or idea
- noun phrase (NP): a phrase such as *the boy* or *an old bicycle*, containing a noun plus other constituents
- nucleus: the vowel in a syllable
- number: the grammatical category of nouns as singular or plural
- Old English: the form of English in use before 1100
- one-word stage: the period in L1 acquisition when children can produce

single terms for objects

- onomatopoeia (onomatopoeic): words containing sounds similar to the noises they describe (e.g. bang, cuckoo)
- onset: the part of the syllable before the vowel
- output: the language produced by an acquirer/learner, in contrast to input
- overextension: in L1 acquisition, using a word to refer to more objects than is usual in the language (ball used to refer to the moon)
- overgeneralization: in L1 acquisition, using an inflectional morpheme on more words than is usual in the language (e.g. two foots)
- overt prestige: status that is generally recognized as 'better' or more positively valued in the larger community, in contrast to covert prestige
- palate: the hard part of the roof of the mouth
- palatal: a consonant produced by raising the tongue to the palate, also called 'alveo-palatal' (e.g. the first sounds in ship and yacht)
- passive voice: the form of the verb used to say what happens to the subject (e.g. The car was stolen)
- person: the grammatical category distinguishing first person (involving the speaker, me), second person (involving the hearer, you) and third person (involving any others, she, them)
- person deixis: using words such as him or them as a way of 'pointing' to a person with language
- pharyngeal: a sound produced in the pharynx
- pharynx: the area inside the throat above the larynx
- philology: the study of language history and change
- phone: a physically produced speech sound, representing one version of a phoneme
- phoneme: the smallest meaning-distinguishing sound unit in the abstract representation of the sounds of a language
- phonetic alphabet: a set of symbols, each one representing a distinct sound segment
- phonetics: the study of the characteristics of speech sounds
- phonology: the study of the systems and patterns of speech sounds in

languages

- phonotactics: constraints on the permissible combination of sounds in a language
- phrase structure rules: rules stating that the structure of a phrase of a specific type consists of one or more constituents in a particular order
- physical context: the situation, time or place in which words are used
- pictogram (pictographic writing): a way of writing in which a picture/drawing of an object is used to represent the object
- pidgin: a variety of a language that developed for a practical purpose such as trade, but which has no native speakers, in contrast to a creole
- pitch: the effect of vibration in the vocal cords, making voices sound lower, higher, rising or falling
- politeness: showing awareness and consideration of another person's public self-image
- polysemy: a word having two or more related meanings (e.g. foot, of person, of bed, of mountain)
- positive face: the need to be connected, to belong, to be a member of a group, in contrast to negative face
- positive transfer: the use of a feature from the L1 that is similar to the L2 while performing in the L2, in contrast to negative transfer
- post-creole continuum: the range of varieties that evolves in communities where a creole is spoken, usually as a result of decreolization
- postvocalic: used after a vowel
- pragmatics: the study of speaker meaning and how more is communicated than is said
- prefix: a bound morpheme added to the beginning of a word (e.g. unhappy)
- preposition (Prep): a word such as in or with used with a noun phrase
- preposition phrase (PP): a phrase such as with a dog, consisting of a preposition plus a noun phrase
- presupposition: an assumption by a speaker/writer about what is true or already known by the listener/reader
- primes: the sets of features that form contrasting elements within the

articulatory parameters of ASL

- productivity: a property of language that allows users to create new expressions, also called ‘creativity’ or ‘open-endedness’
- pronoun (Pro): a word such as it or them used in place of a noun phrase
- proper noun (PN): a noun such as Cathy, with an initial capital letter, used as the name of someone or something
- Proto-Indo-European: the hypothesized original form of a language that was the source of many languages in India and Europe
- prototype: the most characteristic instance of a category (e.g. ‘Robin’ is the prototype of ‘bird’)
- quality maxim: the assumption in conversation that you will “not say that which you believe to be false or for which you lack adequate evidence” (Grice, 1975:46)
- quantity maxim: the assumption in conversation that you will “make your contribution as informative as is required, but not more, or less, than is required” (Grice, 1975:46)
- rebus writing: a way of writing in which a pictorial representation of an object is used to indicate the sound of the word for that object
- recursion: the repeated application of a rule in generating structures
- reduplication: the process of repeating all or part of a form
- reference: an act by which a speaker/writer uses language to enable a listener/reader to identify someone or something
- register: a conventional way of using language that is appropriate in a specific situation, occupation or topic, characterized by the use of special jargon
- relation maxim: the assumption in conversation that you will “be relevant” (Grice, 1975:46)
- reversives: antonyms in which the meaning of one is the reverse action of the other (e.g. dress–undress)
- rhyme: the part of the syllable containing the vowel plus any following consonant(s), also called ‘rime’
- right-ear advantage: the fact that humans typically hear speech sounds more

- schema: a conventional knowledge structure in memory for specific things, such as a supermarket (food is displayed on shelves, arranged in aisles, etc.)
- script: conventional knowledge structure in memory for the series of actions involved in events such as ‘Going to the dentist’
- second language (L2) learning: the process of developing ability in another language, after L1 acquisition
- segment: an individual sound used in language
- semantic features: basic elements such as ‘human’, included as plus (+human) or minus (–human), used in an analysis of the components of word meaning
- semantic role: the part played by a noun phrase, such as agent, in the event described by the sentence
- semantics: the study of the meaning of words, phrases and sentences
- shape: the configuration of the hand(s) as an articulatory parameter of ASL
- slang: words or phrases used instead of more conventional forms by those who are typically outside established higher-status groups (e.g. bucks for dollars)
- slip of the ear: a processing error in which one word or phrase is heard as another, as in hearing great ape when the utterance was ‘gray tape’
- slip of the tongue: a speech error in which a sound or word is produced in the
- wrong place, as in black bloxes (instead of ‘black boxes’)
- social barrier: a phenomenon such as discrimination or segregation that separates social groups and creates marked differences between the social dialects of the groups
- social category: a category in which group members are defined by social connections
- social dialect (or ‘sociolect’): a variety of a language with features that differ according to the social status (e.g. middle class or working class) of the speaker
- social gender: a distinction between individuals in terms of their social roles as women and men, in contrast to other types of gender

- social marker: a linguistic feature that marks the speaker as a member of a particular social group
- social variable: a factor such as working class or middle class that is used to identify one group of speakers as different from another
- sociolinguistic competence: the ability to use language appropriately according to the social context as part of communicative competence
- sociolinguistics: the study of the relationship between language and society
- source: the semantic role of the noun phrase identifying where an entity moves from (e.g. The boy ran from the house)
- spatial deixis: using words such as here or there as a way of ‘pointing’ to a location with language
- speech accommodation: modifying speech style toward (convergence) or away from (divergence) the perceived style of the person being talked to
- speech act: an action such as ‘promising’ performed by a speaker with an utterance, either as a direct speech act or an indirect speech act
- speech community: a group of people who share a set of norms and expectations regarding the use of language
- speech style: a way of speaking that is either formal/careful or informal/casual
- standard language: the variety of a language treated as the official language and used in public broadcasting, publishing and education
- stem: the base form to which affixes are attached in the formation of words
- stop: a consonant produced by stopping the air flow, then letting it go, also called ‘plosive’ (e.g. the first and last sounds in cat)
- strategic competence: the ability to use language to organize effective messages and to overcome potential communication problems as part of communicative competence
- structural ambiguity: a situation in which a single phrase or sentence has two (or more) different underlying structures and interpretations
- structural analysis: the investigation of the distribution of grammatical forms in a language
- style-shifting: changing speech style from formal to informal or vice

versa

- subject: the grammatical function of the noun phrase typically used to refer to someone or something performing the action of the verb (e.g. The boy stole it)
- suffix: a morpheme added to the end of a word (e.g. fainted, illness)
- superordinated: the higher-level term in hyponymy (e.g. flower–daffodil)
- surface structure: the structure of individual sentences after the application of transformational rules to deep structure
- syllabic writing (syllabary): a way of writing in which each symbol
- represents a syllable
- syllable: a unit of sound consisting of a vowel and optional consonants before or after the vowel
- synchronic variation: differences in language form found in different places at the same time, in contrast to diachronic variation
- synonymy: the lexical relation in which two or more words have very closely related meanings (e.g. ‘Conceal’ is a synonym of ‘hide’)
- syntax (syntactic structures): (the analysis of) the structure of phrases and sentences
- taboo terms: words or phrases that are avoided in formal speech, but are used in swearing, for example (e.g. fuck)
- tag questions: short questions consisting of an auxiliary (e.g. don’t) and a pronoun (e.g. you), added to the end of a statement (e.g. I hate it when it rains all day, don’t you?)
- task-based learning: using activities involving information exchange and problem solving as a way of developing ability in language
- telegraphic speech: strings of words (lexical morphemes without inflectional morphemes) in phrases (daddy go bye-bye) produced by two-year-old children
- temporal deixis: using words such as now or tomorrow as a way of ‘pointing’ to a time with language
- tense: the grammatical category distinguishing forms of the verb such as present tense and past tense

- **theme:** the semantic role of the noun phrase used to identify the entity involved in or affected by the action of the verb in an event (e.g. The boy kicked the ball)
- **tip of the tongue phenomenon:** the experience of knowing a word, but being unable to access it and bring it to the surface in order to say it
- **traditional grammar:** the description of the structure of phrases and sentences based on established categories used in the analysis of Latin and Greek
- **transfer:** using sounds, expressions and structures from the L1 while performing in an L2
- **transformational rules:** rules that are used to change or move constituents in structures derived from phrase structure rules
- **tree diagram:** a diagram with branches showing the hierarchical organization of structures
- **turn:** in conversation, the unit of talk by one speaker, ended by the beginning of the next speaker's unit of talk
- **turn-taking:** the way in which each speaker takes a turn in conversation
- **two-word stage:** a period beginning at around 18–20 months when children produce two terms together as an utterance (baby chair)
- **velar:** a consonant produced by raising the back of the tongue to the velum (e.g. the first and last sounds in *geek*)
- **velum:** the soft area at the back of the roof of the mouth, also called the 'soft palate'
- **verb (V):** a word such as *go*, *drown* or *know* used to describe an action, event or state
- **verb phrase (VP):** a phrase such as *saw a dog*, containing a verb and other constituents
- **vernacular:** a social dialect with low prestige spoken by a lower-status group, with marked differences from the standard language
- **vocal cords:** thin strips of muscle in the larynx which can be open, in voiceless sounds, or close together, creating vibration in voiced sounds
- **voiced sounds:** speech sounds produced with vibration of the vocal cords
- **voiceless sounds:** speech sounds produced without vibration of the

vocal cords

- vowel: a sound produced through the vocal cords without constriction of the air flow in the mouth

APPENDICES

LANGUAGE MAP



Study Program of English Language Education
UIN Ar-Raniry

FOREWORD

Language Map is the final project prepared by groups of students from Unit 01 Batch 2014 study of English Language Education program. It is written to fulfill the final assignment project of Linguistic class.

We would like to thank our lecturer Dr. phil. Saiful Akmal, M.A. for his excellent guidance and support during the process of conducting this project. We would also wish to thank all the contributors. This work would not have been possible without their enthusiastic effort.

We know that this Language Map is far from perfection. Therefore, any constructive comments and advises would be appreciated for the upcoming project.

Banda Aceh, July 2017,

Students

LANGUAGE MAP

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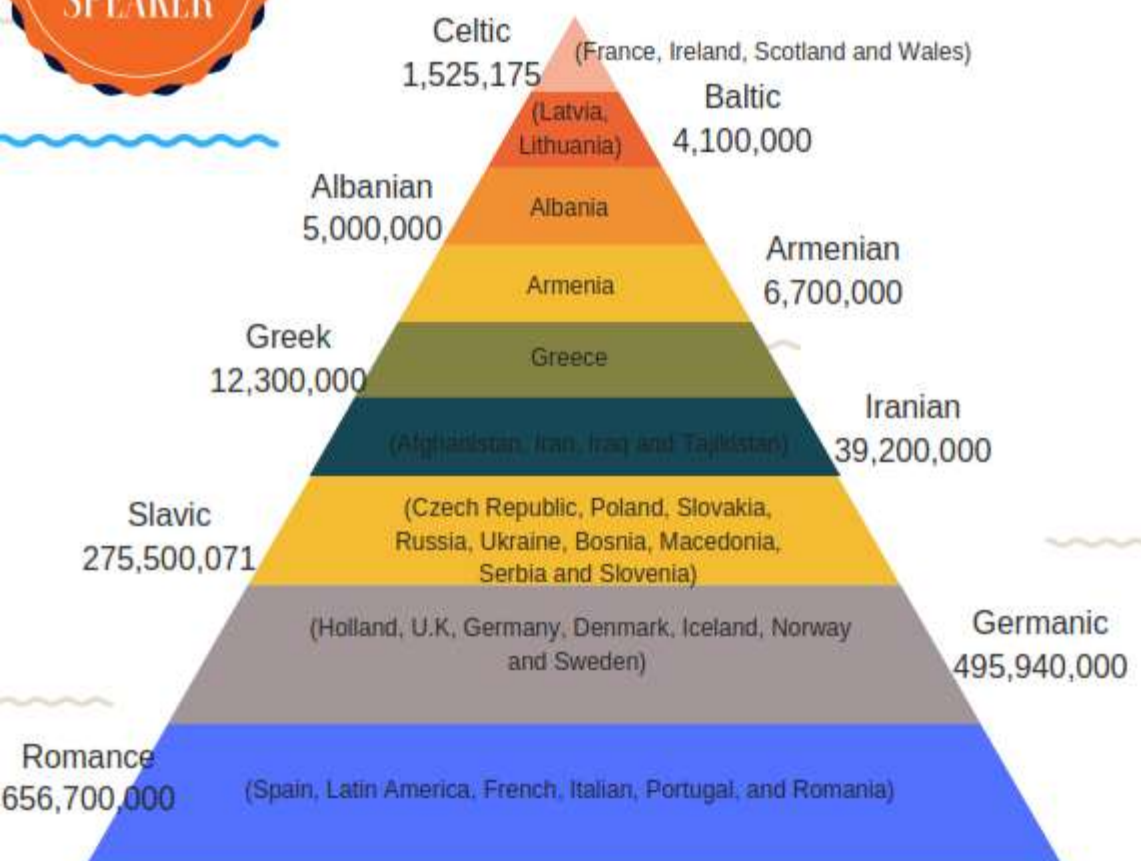
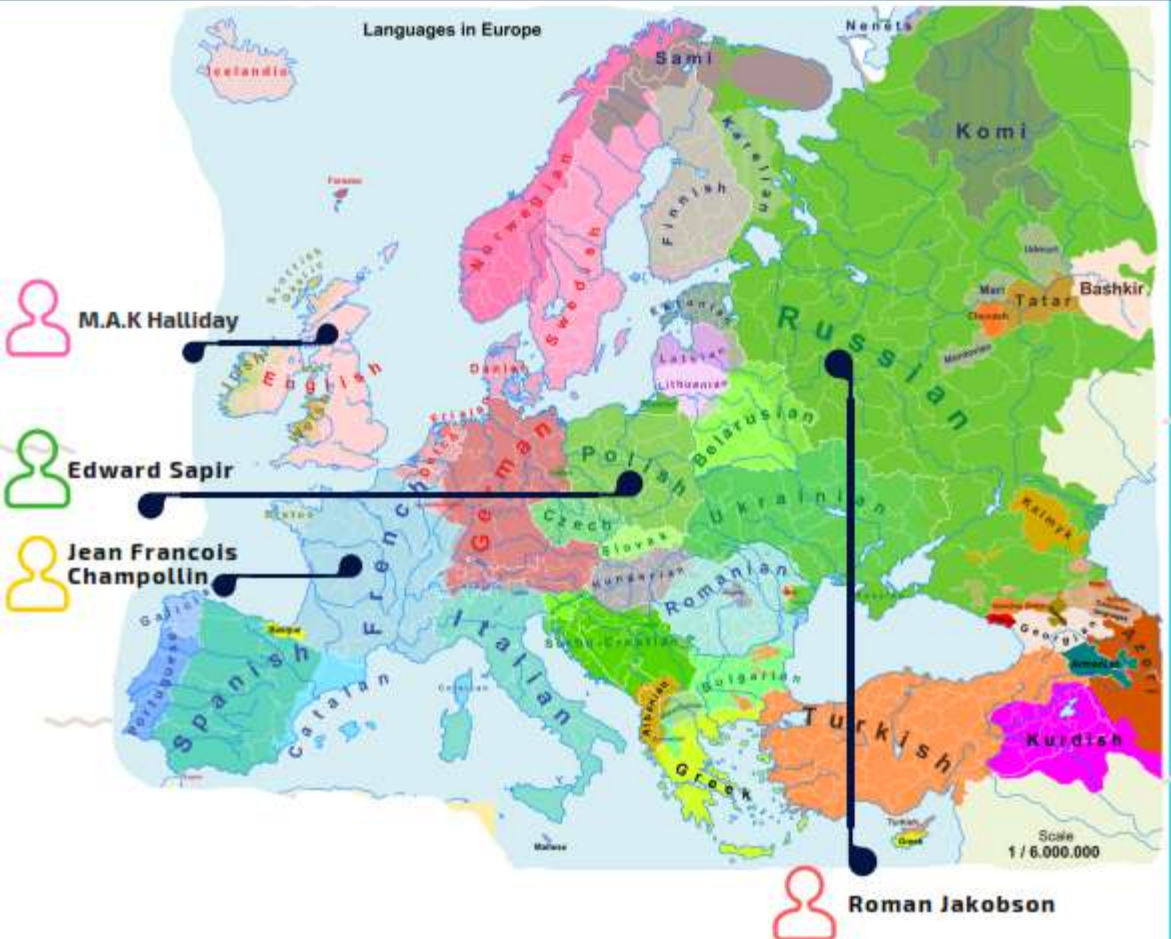


Indo-European

By: Santi Rahmadani, Rika wahyuni and Syarifah Risna

Indo-European

- The languages are classified into 11 major groups, 2 of which are extinct (Tocharian and Anatolian).
- Comprising 449 languages. For some branches of IE – Greek, Sanskrit and Indic, Latin and Romance, Germanic, Celtic.
- The earliest attested IE language is Hittite, nearly 4,000 years ago.



Sino-Tibetan

Tibetan



Users: 8 Million

Regions: China, Myanmar, Nepal, Bhutan, the state of Sikkim, India, Pakistan and Bangladesh

Linguists: Christopher Beckwith (1945-present)

Chinese



Users : 1.3 Billion

Regions: China, Taiwan, and most of the countries in Southeast Asia

Linguist: Chao Yuen Ren (1892-1982)

Baric



Users: 1.5 million

Regions: India

Linguist: Paul K Benedict (1912-1997)

Karen



Users: 3.2 Million

Regions: Myanmar and Thailand.

Linguist: James A Matisoff (1937-present)

Burmese



Users : 3.3 Million

Regions: India and Myanmar

Linguist: Scott Delancey (1949-present)



Infographic by:
Suarni
Tiara Ulfah
Nurridha Sunni

source: www.britannica.com

ARABIC AFRO-ASIATIC

BERBER

>Kabyle >Shilha
>Sous >Tamazight
>Tashelhit >Tuareg

 18 million users

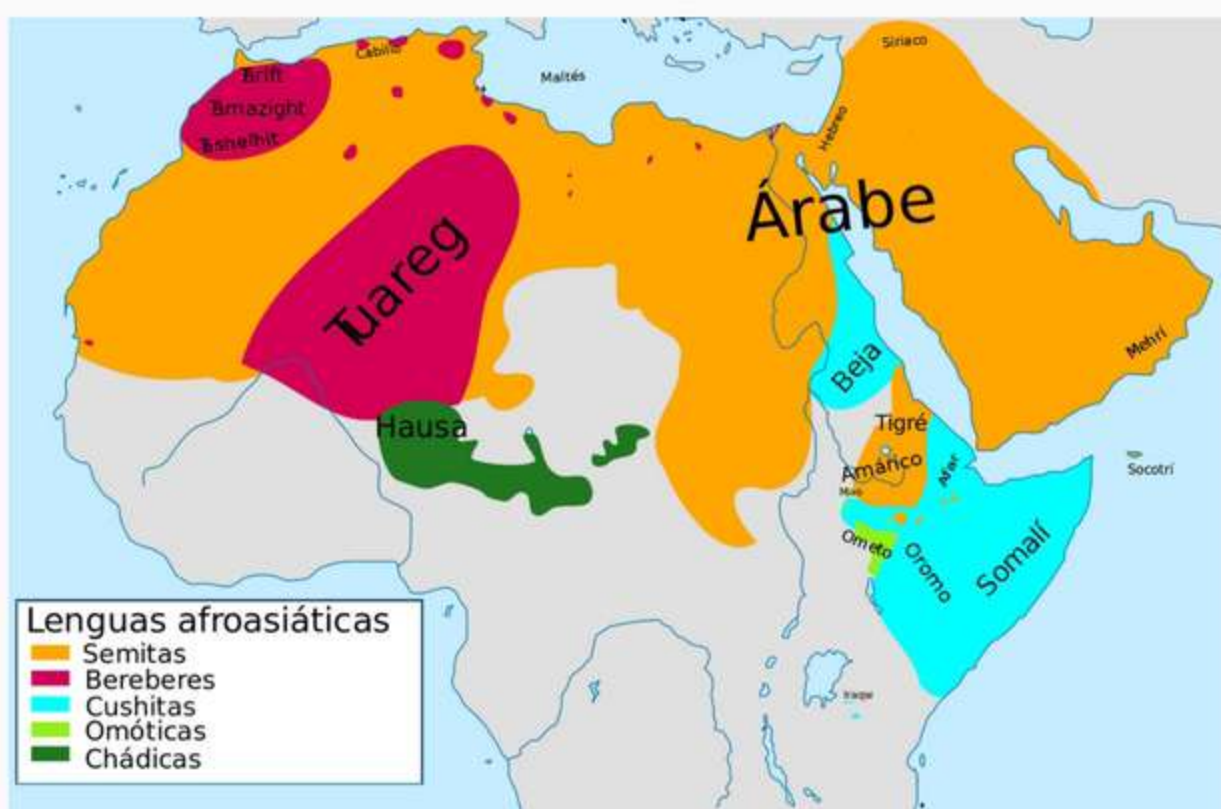
 Morocco, Algeria,
Tunisia, Libya,
Mauritania, Senegal

EGYPTIAN

>Egyptian >Coptic

 310 million users

 Egypt



SEMITIC

>Hebrew >Arabic
>Akkadian >Phoenician
>Ethiopic >Gurage
>Harari >Nehri
>Moabite >Punic

 351 million users

 Northern Africa, the
Near East

CUSHITIC

>Afar >Awngi >Bilin
>Kambata >Saho >Sidamo
>Dullay >Galab >Gidole

 55 million users

 Sudan, Ethiopia,
Kenya, Somalia, and
Tanzania

CHADIC

>Angas >Bole >Bura
>Dangaleat >Hausa >Higi
>Kotoko >Margi >Sayanci
>Tera

 40 million users

 Chad, Niger, Nigeria,
Cameroon, and the
Central African
Republic

OMOTIC

>Dizi >Gimira >Janjero
>Kefa >Walamo

 12 million users

 Western Ethiopia and
Northern Kenya

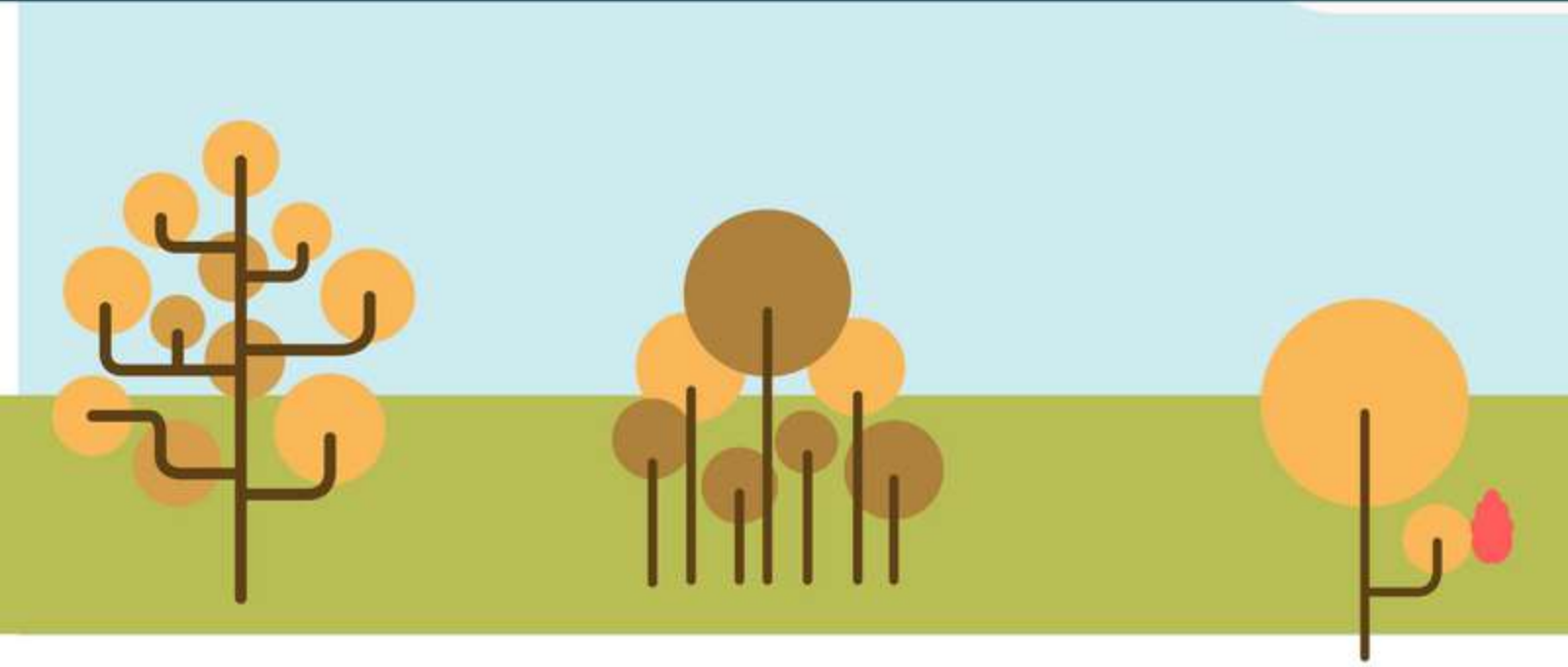
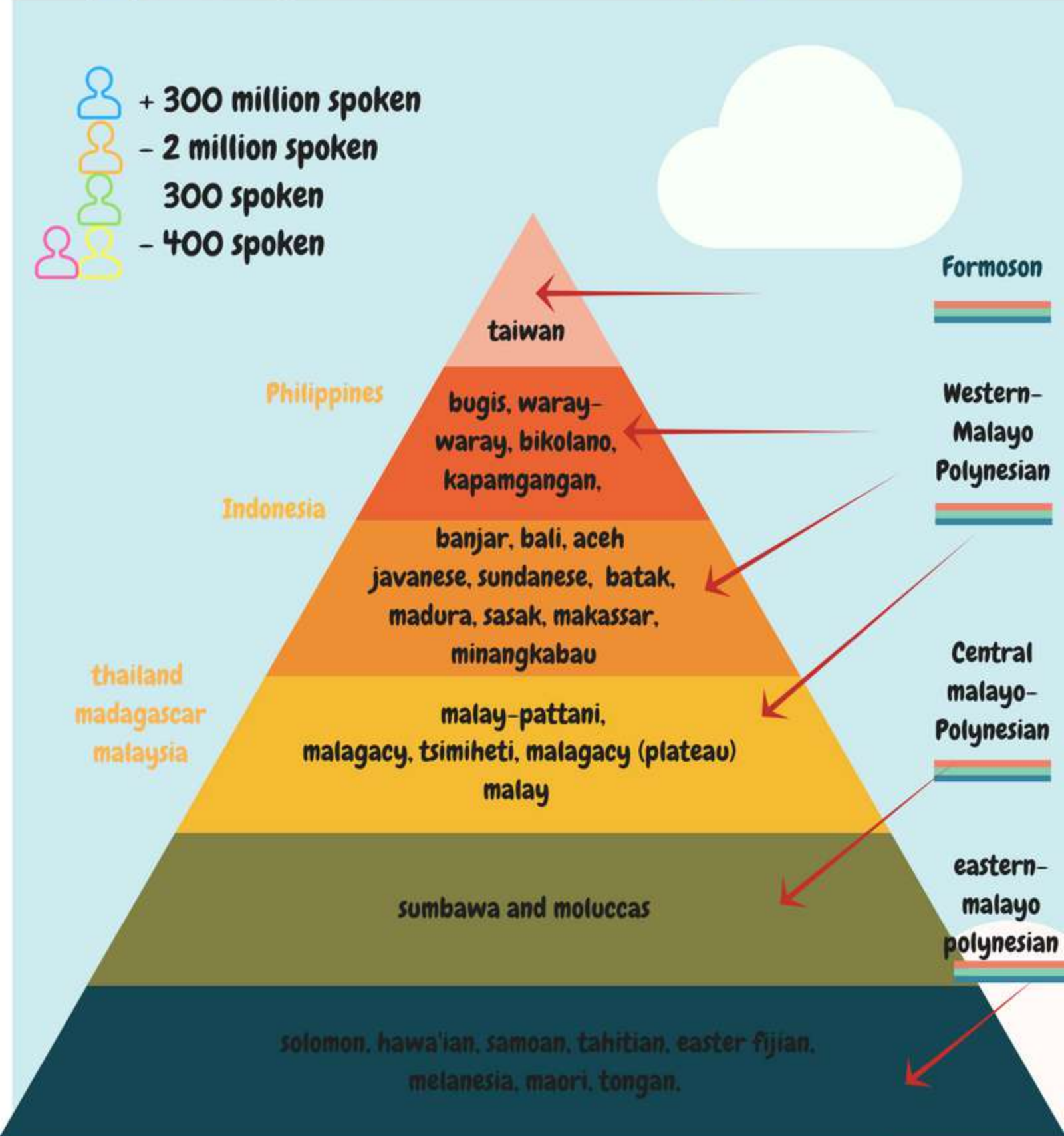
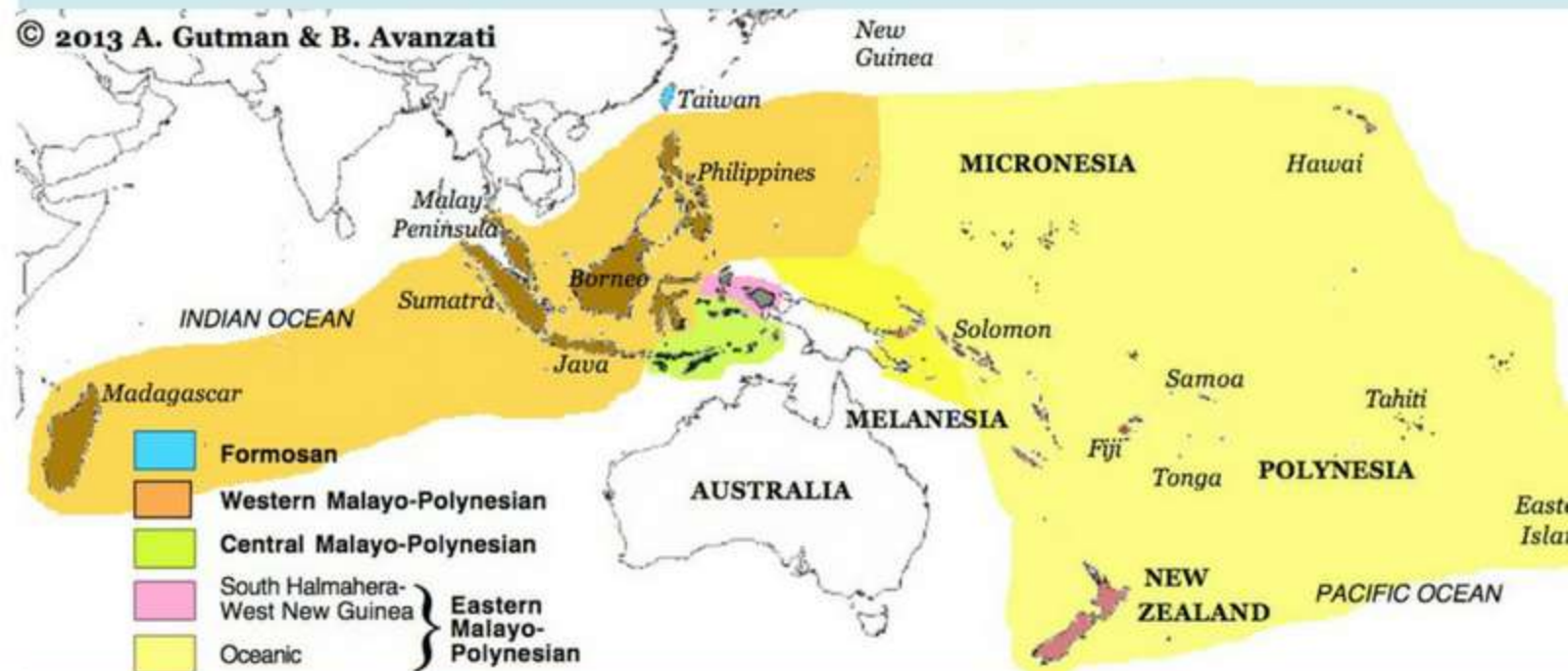
Austronesia

Alvi Rahmi

Defi Heldia Rahmi

Rahmanida

With 1268 languages and spoken by 324,883,805 people, Austronesian is one of the largest and the most geographically far spread language families of the world.



Austro-Asiatic

by:
Jasminur
Najmiatul Fauza
Zulfadly

Austro-Asiatic

Austroasiatic languages are indigenous to Southeast Asia constituting a large and heterogeneous family. The Austro-Asiatic family is traditionally divided into small Munda and large Mon-Khmer.

Khasic

Almost all people in the province of Meghalaya in Northeastern India use this language: ♦

Khasi : **1 million** users

♦ Pnar : **100.000** users

♦ War Jaintia : **30.000** users

Palaung -Wa

These languages are scattered throughout Myanmar, Northern Thailand, Northern Laos and the Yunnan province of China.

♦ Wa : **1.4 million** users

♦ Palaung : **600.000** users (Myanmar and Yunnan)

Khmuic

A dozen languages located in Northern Laos and neighboring regions of Thailand and Vietnam.

♦ Khmu : **600.000** users

Vietic

user in Vietnam , Laos and Cambodia

♦ Vietnamese : **79 million** users

♦ Muong : **1.3 million** users

Katuic

In southern Laos ,Vietnam, Thailand and Cambodia. Katuic users (± **1.5 million**)

♦ Eastern Bru: **140.000** users

♦ Upper Ta'oih : **60.000** users (Laos and Vietnam)

♦ Kataang : **110.000** users (Laos)

♦ Eastern Katu : **60.000** users (Vietnam)

♦ So : **20.000** users (Laos and Thailand)

♦ Kuy : **500.000** users (Thailand and Cambodia)

Bahnaric

The large sublanguages used by ± **1 million** users in Southern central Vietnam, southern Laos and eastern Cambodia.

♦ Bahnar : **160.000** users

♦ Sre or Koho : **130.000** users

♦ Mnong : **120.000** users

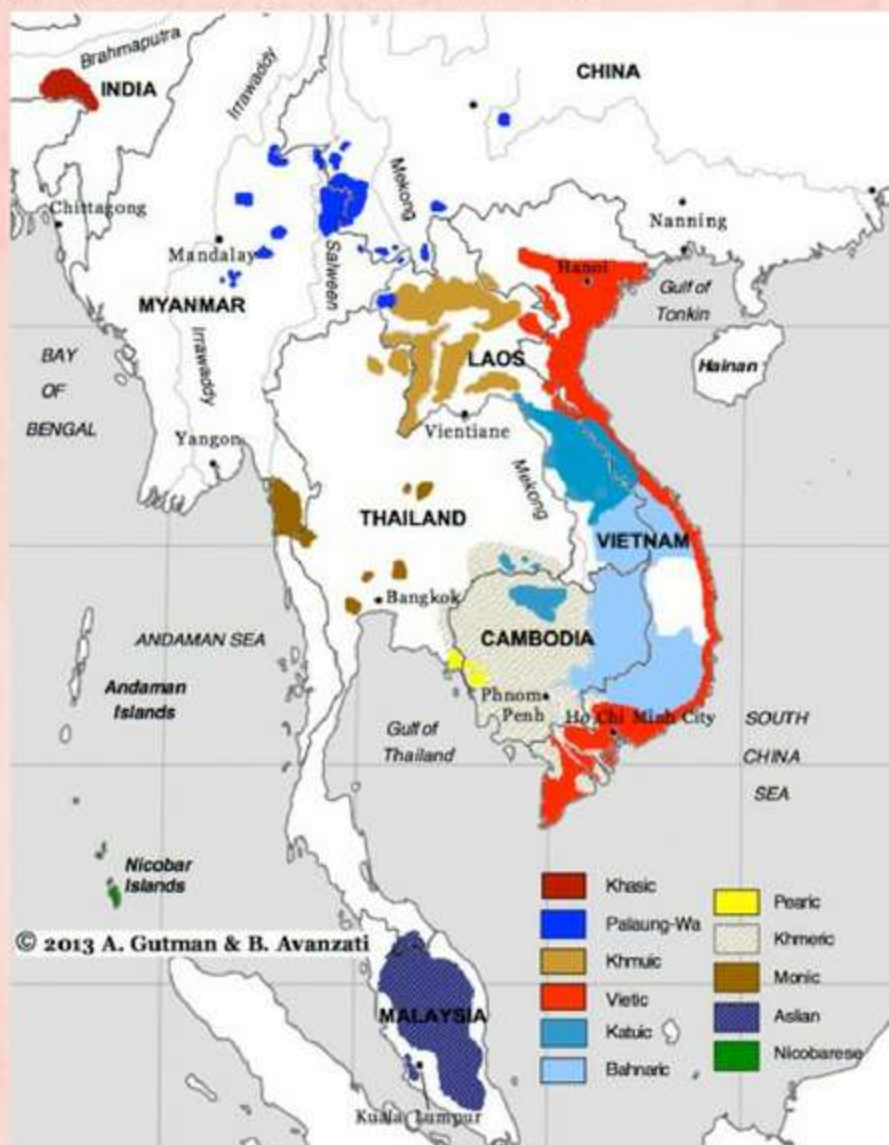
♦ Sedang : **100.000** users

Pearic

Endangered sublanguage use in small population by western Cambodia and Southeastern Thailand .

Khmeric

The national and the oldest language of Cambodia, Northern Khmer, and Southeast Thailand used by 15 milion users.



Monic

♦ Mon of Southern Myanmar and central Thailand : **100.000 – 1 million** users

Aslian

used by ± 100.000 people.

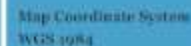
♦ Semai : **45.000** users

♦ Temiar : **27.000** users

Nicobarese

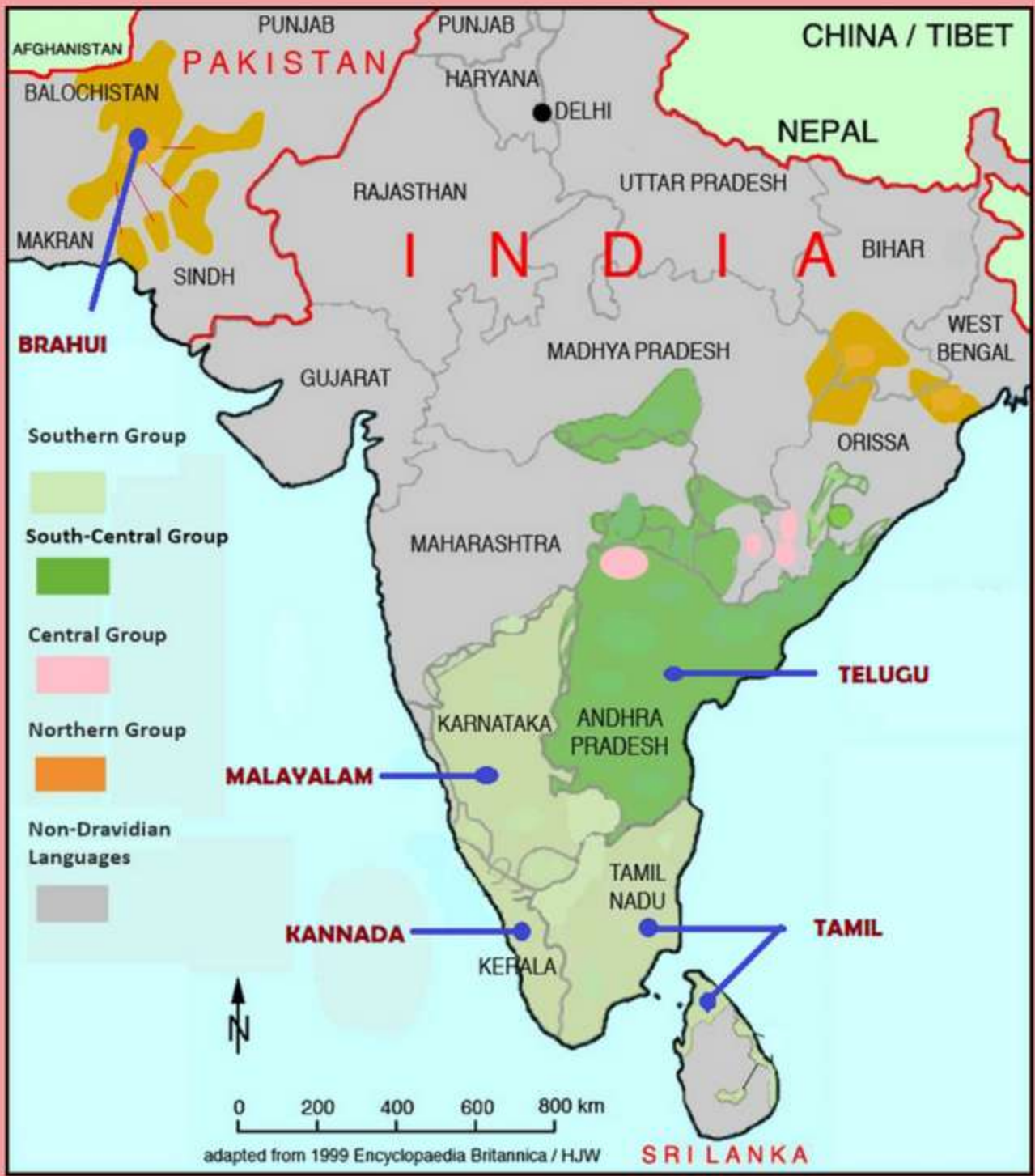
used by ± **25.000** people in Nicobar , the Eastern Indian island.

Student of English Language Education Department
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Made by :
Anis Hanani Ikhsan 140203007 Miftahul Jannah AF 140203021 Yussy Aprilia Ulfa J 140203035

Dravidian



LINGUISTS



- Whyte Ellis (1777-1819) : introduce the notion of Dravidian family in India
- Robert Caldwell (1814-1891) : the first to use Dravidian as a generic name of the major language family

DRAVIDIAN USERS



Spoken by more than 215 million people in India, Pakistan, and Sri Lanka

LANGUAGES



1. Telugu (52,986,000)
2. Tamil (44,400,000)
3. Malayalam (27,500,000)
4. Kannada (27,900,000)
5. Brahui (24,000,000 speaker in Pakistan.)

JAZA ANIL HUSNA, HAYATUN SABRIANA, SITI
NANDA HASLIDA, SITTI RAHMA

source : www.britanica.com

Altaic

Group of Languages :

Turkic
Mongolian
Manchu-Tungus
Korean
Japanese

The turkic languages are spoken principally: Turkey, Armenia and Azerbaijan. Kazakhstan, Uzbekistan, Turkmenistan, Kyrgyzstan, and Tajikistan to Xinjiang [China]

The Manchu-Tungus Languages spoken by widely dispersed population across Siberia, Russia and The Northeast in China

The Mongolian concentrated in the oval region formed by Buryatiya, Mongolia and Inner Mongolia {China}

Language Users

Spoken by > 135 million people.

Linguistic similarities

- a. Vocabulary
- b. Morphological and Syntactic structure
- c. Certain Phonological features

Linguists

1. Schott (1849) : Altaic
2. Castren (1862) : Turki/Ural
3. Anton boller (1857) : korea and japan
4. G.J Ramstedt and E.D. Polivanov (1920) : korea
5. Samuel martin (1966) and Roy Miller (1971) : Korea-Altaic

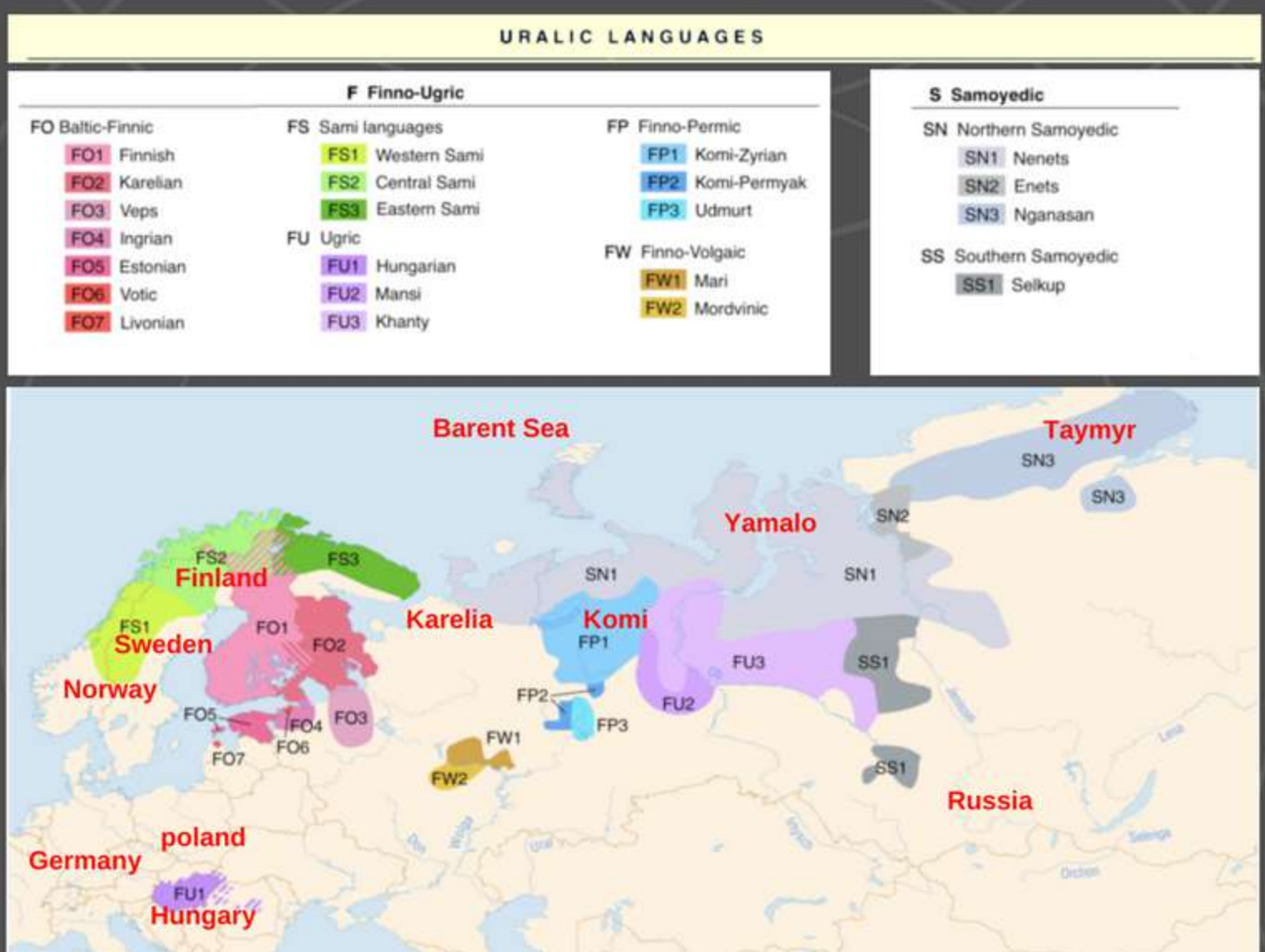
Created by group 6 :
Lisa Afridayani
Miftahul Jannah
Yesi Ana Mariati

Uralic

Linguists have
calculated that there are

25

millions users of Uralic



FO Baltic-Finnic : 6.428.000 users

FV Finno-Vulgaic : 150.000 users

FS Sami Language : 30.000 users

SN Northern Samoyedic : 28.770 users

FP Finno Permic : 1.909.000 users

SS Southern Samoyedic : 25.070 users

FU Ugric : 14. 152. 000 users

source : Britannica.com
Map : Aboutworldlanguage.com

Information provided by :
Desy Ulfa Yana
Lioni Marianti
Raudhatul Jannah

Madagascar



Location

Southern Africa

Nationality:

Malagasy

Population

24,430,325
(July 2016 est.)

Language

French, Malagasy,
English

Native speakers:

18 million (2007)

Religions:

Christian, Protestantism,
Muslim



Linguist : Otto Christian Dahl
(1903 – 1995)

ABOUT THE AUTHORS



Saiful Akmal earned his bachelor degree from Dept. of English Education UIN Ar-Raniry in 2005. He received his master degree from The University of Liverpool, United Kingdom in 2007 focusing on the applied linguistics, specializing in critical/political discourse analysis on the language of power and justification in political speech. He holds a doctoral degree in philosophy from Dept. of Southeast Asian Studies, Faculty of Language and Culture from Goethe University of Frankfurt, Germany

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ISBN 978-602-60562-2-1



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