An Introduction to Linguistics

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Chapter I

WHAT IS LANGUAGE?

Before starting to discuss a language, it is necessary to define it. In this relation, we may make some questions such as: “What is a language?”, or “What do you know about a language,” or “What is meant by a language?” Someone’s answer may be different from that of the other. For instance, he says: “Oh, it is what we use in communication” or the other says: “It is made up of sentences that convey meaning,” or perhaps someone else says: “It is a means of communication.” If those definitions are viewed from the study of language, they are insufficient ones. Let us examine the following definitions:

A language is a system of arbitrary, vocal symbols that permit all people in a given culture or other people who have learned the system of that culture, to communicate or to interact (Finocchiaro, in Ramelan 1984). A language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols used for human communication (Wardhaugh, in Ramelan, 1984). A language is an arbitrary system of articulated sounds made use of by a group of humans as a means of carrying on the affairs of their society (Francis, in Ramelan, 1984). A language is a set of rules enabling speakers to translate information from the outside world into sound (Gumperz, 1972).

Based on the definitions of a language above, we say that a language is a means of communication. But, if the definition of a language is used in the study of language, we must involve the other means of communication that are not categorized as a language. If we regard a language as consisting of sounds, the fact shows that the different means of communication may use sounds as its medium. In short, a means of interface known as a language must have some characteristics that do not belong to the other means of communication.

Characteristics of Language:

Based on the definitions of a language above, we can state some features of human language, as follows:

1. A language is a system.

2. A language is said to be arbitrary

3. A Language is social.

4. A language is spoken.

5. A language is productive or creative.

6. A language is complete for its native speakers.

Language is systematic:

Since a language is said to be a system, it must be systematic in nature. The systematism of a language can be seen from the fact that, take an example, if we regard a language as being made up of sounds, we find out that only certain sounds occur in any one language that these occur in specific regular and predictable patterns.

As has been known, a sentence is a combination of some words. The sentence is not ordered at random. In this relation, we cannot say, "Goes Ali school to every day." The English language has its own patterns of ordering some words to be a sentence. The patterns of ordering show that a language must be systematic.

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Language is a highly organized system in which each unit plays an important part which is related to other components (Boey, 1975: 1). All human languages have specific characteristics. This is to say, for instance, that a particular language, say Arabic or English, has its system. As a consequence, it has a dual structure, that is two levels of formation of systematic relationships. In other words, each language

is a system consisting of two subsystems. One is the subsystem of meaningful units. The other is the subsystem of sounds, which have no meaning in themselves but which form the meaningful units.

The idea of systematicness of language as it is found in the arrangement of words implies the notion of predictability. In an English sentence a noun is usually preceded by a determiner, and so when someone hears a determiner, he can anticipate that a noun is following it; this noun, which may function as the subject of a sentence, will be followed by a verb as the central part of the predicate; this verb will take an -s or –es ending when the preceding noun functioning as subject is third-person singular actor and the sentence is in the simple present tense (Ramelan, 1984: 45).

A language is said to be arbitrary:

A language is said to be arbitrary. This means that it is initially created based on social agreement. In this relation, there is no reasonable explanation, for instance, why a specific four-footed domestic animal is called a dog in English, or "كلب" in Arabic.

Giving a name of the animal is based on the agreement among the members of the social groups. On other words, Arabic and English people agreed to call the animal as dog, and "كلب" respectively. Recognizing this general fact about language leads

us to conclude that a property of linguistic signs is their arbitrary relationship with the objects they are used to indicate.

A language is social:

Thirdly, Language is social. We all know that a language is socially acquired, learned, and then used. If this statement is related to language acquisition and/or language learning, we may have an illustration that a new-born child acquires a communicative competence with a given language in a speech community; in the next step, he learns and uses the language in a speech community. Thus, a language is not genetically transmitted; but, it is socio-culturally acquired and/or learned.

In the social context, a language is not only means for communication, but also it is a vital medium for establishing and maintaining a social relationship. For instance, there are two persons sitting in a waiting room of a bus station; they begin to introduce and talk to each other. In short, they know each other. At the time of introducing, communicating, and understanding each other, they establish a social relationship, and they will probably maintain their social relations in future time. Setting and maintaining social relationship must involve the use of language.

A language is spoken:

A language is always spoken. This statement implies that all people the world over,

regardless of their race or ethnic group, still speak a language. This means that they still have a way of communicating ideas by using sounds that are produced by their speech organs.

Human language can be said to be an oral-auditory communication system. Why?

Oral-auditory communication has many advantages over other possible means of communication. A speaker and a listener do not need an instrument, as writers and readers do. This is to say that the writers and readers need writing implements and written texts, respectively. A speaker and a listener do not look at one another, like the deaf using handgestures language do. One can speak and listen while carrying out other activities, as long as they do not involve the mouth and the ear (Taylor, p. 6).

The kind of oral-auditory communication has some weaknesses. One weakness is that people cannot converse directly at distances greater than fifty feet. Another weakness is that speech signals are gone without a trace as soon as they are uttered. Nowadays, the spoken language can be recorded using a tape recorder.

Another means of communicating ideas is printed or written symbols, which is more prevailing and more often used in daily life. This means that they are exposed to the written language as found in newspapers, magazines, or letters so that they often confuse written language and the actual language, which is spoken. In this

relation, it can be said that the spoken form of a language is primary, whereas the written form is secondary. This is to say that the written form of a language is only a representation of what is actually spoken.

A language is productive or creative:

Another characteristic of human language is that it is productive or creative. This refers to the ability of native speakers to understand and produce any number of sentences (which they never heard before) in their native language.

The first aspect of the creative use of language is that a human being can say things that have never been said before. If we think back about our talk we have just had with our friend, we may be sure that our conversation consisted of sentences that neither we nor our conversant have heard or produced before.

A language is complete for its native speakers:

A language is a part of human culture. Besides, it is used for establishing and maintaining a social relationship, and it is used for expressing human culture. A language is complete for its native speakers to express their own culture. If a language is regarded as a system of symbol, it can be used as constitutive, cognitive, expressive, and evaluative symbols.

A constitutive symbol refers to a symbol of human belief to God or supernatural power; for instance, human beings pray to God by using a language. A cognitive symbol refers to a symbol created by human beings to recognize and introduce human knowledge about their environment; for instance, they create some terms that represent something existing in their surroundings.

Javenese people understand some words such as pari, gabah, beras, and nasi; meanwhile, English people know them as rice.

Human Language and Animal 'Language':

When human beings come together, and when they play, fight, or do something else, at the same time, they talk; they use a language. They talk to their friends, their husbands or wives, their parents, and parents-in-law; and they also speak to total strangers. They may speak face to face and over the telephone.

A language is used as a means of communication. With language, human beings can express their ideas and wishes to other people such as when they need the others' help. With language, they can establish and maintain social relationships; also, with language, they can cooperate between one and another (Ramelan, 1984: 36). However, we may be still confused about whether a language is the only means of communication or whether all means of communication are known as languages.

Different people may differently perceive a language. Some regard everything used for communication as a language. This statement is based on the fact that when we discuss a topic about the definition of language, they give different statements. For example, they state that gestures and bodily movement are referred to as languages; and, that there is what is known as animal language. As a consequence, there have been, at least, two kinds of languages: a human speech and an animal language. The human language may be perceived as having some types such as oral, written and body languages. Concerning the animal language, someone may give a question: "Does an animal have and use a language or is a means of communication used by an animal regarded as a real language?". The following discussion may guide us to understand what is actually called a language.

Human beings are not only species that can communicate among themselves, as

animals are often said to possess some communication system too. As has been known, animals communicate with one another using their own means of communication. For instance, dogs bark when they want to send their message to another. They will bark in a certain way when they want to show the others that there is something to eat; they will produce a different kind of barking when they are in danger. The difference in the barking sounds produced the dog can be 'understood' by the others, and so communication takes place among them.

Another example is a hen cackling to her chickens. She will cackle in a certain way when she wants to call her chickens to their food; she will produce a different kind of cackling sounds if she wants to warn them of coming danger. Other animals such as cats, monkeys, and elephants are also said to have a means of communication, which is understood by the animals concerned (Ramelan, 1984: 38). To some extent, these sounds serve the same purposes as human language. How does human language differ from animal language? Is animal language called as a real language? Whether animal language is a real language or not, the fact shows that both human language and animal 'language' has a similarity between the two means of communication.

The similarity that can be identified is that the sounds produced by both human beings and animals are intended to convey a message. Both human being and animal produce sounds by using their mouth. However, there are great differences between the two in their varieties and their possible combination. That is to say that the human system of communication enables human beings to be able to produce various kinds of sounds, by using speech organs. The sounds produced by the speech organs are often called speech sounds. The types of sounds produced by human beings are rich in variation; they can produce such vowels and consonants. Speech sounds can also be combined in many ways to form many utterances. The

combinations of vowels and consonants are referred to as morphemes or words.

They can convey unlimited messages and produce a new combination of linguistic units to meet the needs of new situations.

With language, human beings can communicate not only about things connected with their biological needs, or preventing themselves from dangers but almost about anything at all. They may not only inform about objects which are in their surroundings, but they can speak about things which are remote in space and time; they can talk about things which are may miles away from them, and also about events which took place in the past time, which take place at present, and which will take place many years ahead.

On the other hand, animals can only communicate about things surrounding them;

their communication is only intended for the sake of biological needs or preventing themselves from dangers, and the sounds produced are minimal and the sounds are further developed. A dog, for instance, can only provide two or three kinds of barking sounds to suit the purpose throughout its whole life.

In addition to the sounds produced and the content of the message sent by both human beings and animals, human language differs from animals' means of communication in how the two are transmitted to their young generation. Ability to speak for human beings is not genetically transmitted but culturally learned from

their elders. For instance, someone may inherit brown eyes and dark hair from his/her parents, but he/she does not inherit their language. He/she acquires a language in a culture with other speakers and not from parental genes. An infant born from Chinese parents (who live in China and speak Cantonese), which is brought up from birth by English speakers in the United States, may have physical

characteristics inherited from its natural parents, but he/she will speak English (George Yule, 1987: 20). This process whereby language is passed on from one generation to the next, is described as cultural transmission. It has been believed that human beings are born with an innate predisposition to acquire language.

All human languages are acquired, and humans have to exposed to a particular language over some length of time before they can acquire that language, by contrast, animal communication is mostly instinctive (Taylor, p. 7). If the ability to speak for human beings is culturally learned from their elders, the ability to communicate for a dog using its barking sound is genetically transmitted. Both human beings and animals use for their medium of communication sounds that are produced in their mouth, but the sounds produced by human beings are more varied than those provided by animals. The sounds produced by animals are always the same and remain unchanged. A young animal will create the same kind of sounds as their elders for their communication. The ability to produce sounds in animals for communication is, therefore, said to be genetically transmitted; their

elders never teach them. A young dog, for instance, can bark without being guided by its elders.

Conclusion

Based on some definitions of a language, we can say a language is not only regarded as a means of communication but it is a means of communication that has some characteristics. In this relation, a language must be systematic; it is socially created, acquired, and used; it is basically spoken; it is productive or creative, and it is complete for its speakers. Not all

characteristics of a language do not belong to an animal's means of communication.

Chapter II

LANGUAGE IN SOCIAL CONTEXT

Man is a social being who always needs another's help. It is hardly imagined that he can live alone in a forest without being accompanied by another. In reality, he lives together and cooperates between one and another. Thus, we may agree that human being is a social creature because he has to live a community. Thus, we may agree that the human being is a social creature because he has to live a community.

In the effort to fulfill his daily need, he has to work together between one and another. This cooperation can only be conducted in a community. When he needs rice, for instance, he is not necessary to plant in a field by himself. Rice planting is the farmers' business. Someone who needs rice, he can buy it.

Based on the example above, we have a clear picture that all the members of a community need help from one to another. They cannot live alone and try to fulfill their daily need such as food and clothes by themselves. This is to say that they need working together.

The cooperation among the members of a social group will run well if a means of

communication known as language is used. By using a word, man can express his ideas and wishes to other people such as when he needs their help. There will be close cooperation among members of the group.

The three elements mentioned above; human beings, community, and language are closely related to each other. When there are human beings in any part of the world, there will be a social community in which the same members of the group use a given language as a means of communication. The existence of a language for the community is fundamental. This is because, in reality, men as social beings always live in a community and need a language as a means of interaction among them.

In the social context, language is not only a means of communication but also it is a means of creating and maintaining the social relationship among speakers of the language. As an illustration, take an example, there are two persons in the waiting room of the railway station. At first, they do not know one and another. They, then, begin to make a talk about avoiding their boredom. They talk about many things. They give information to one and another. This is the function of the language as a means of communication and at the same time as a means of creating social relationship.

If they are from different social and geographical backgrounds, they will use different dialects. Here, we have what we call social dialect and geographical dialect (Trudgill, 1983:14). For instance, if one of them is someone speaking Arabic language, who is from south Egypt, will probably use the Arabic language with a particular accent spoken by people from that part of the country; and the other will probably use the different dialect if he is from the north.

Other than the regional dialect, there is a social dialect. This kind of dialect refers to a variety of language spoken by a group of people belonging to a certain social class (Trudgill,1983:14). For instance, if someone is a middle-class businessman, he will use the variety of language associated with men of this type.

Based on an illustration, a language may have some varieties. In fact, a language itself can be categorized as one of varieties of whatever human languages. So, it can be said that language varieties may refer to: (a) two or more distinct languages used in a community, (b) distinct varieties of one language, and (c) distinct speech levels of one language.

The facts shows that there are more than one language existing and being used in a

given speech community. A situation in which there are, at least, two languages are used is known as a diglossic situation; a person having mastery of two languages

and using them alternately is known as a bilingual speaker; and the mastery of two (or more) languages by the individual speaker is known as bilingualism.

People may use different pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, or styles of a language for different purposes. They may use different dialects of a language in different contexts. In some communities they will select different languages according to the situation in which and according to the persons to whom they speak; they may use distinct speech levels.

Conclusion

A language is an important thing in a given community, a speech community. It is not a means for communication and interaction but also for establishing and maintaining human relationships. One characteristic of a language is that is social. That is to say that all speech events must be in relation to the social aspects. A new-born child acquires a language in the social environment (family as a part of the speech community). A language use also occurs in the speech community. Based on the geographical area, one community may be different from one to another. This results in the different varieties of language: dialects. These kinds of dialects are known as geographical or regional dialects. The fact also shows us that the members of a community or speech community are in the same social hierarchy. Consequently, there are also varieties of the same language used by the

different types of the language users. These kinds of language varieties are known as social dialects.

Chapter III

LINGUISTICS AND LANGUAGE TEACHING

Each of the people in the world knows at least one language, spoken or written, or signed. Linguistics is the science of language, studying speech sounds (e.g., the sounds that are produced by using human speech organs), words (e.g., the smallest elements that can be uttered in isolation), and grammar rules (e.g., the rules of arranging words into longer and grammatical utterences). Words in languages are finite, but sentences are not. This is to say that language speaker enables to produce the unlimited number of sentences using the words he/she has mastered.

The rules of a language, also called grammar, are learned as one acquires a language. These rules include phonology, the sound system, morphology, the structure of words, syntax, the combination of words into sentences, semantics, the ways in which sounds and meanings are related, and the lexicon, or mental dictionary of words.

A grammar of a language can be divided into two types, namely: descriptive and

prescriptive grammars. The former (e.g., descriptive grammar) is a grammar that represents the unconscious knowledge of a language. Speaker who is speaking English, for example, knows that "me likes he" is incorrect, and "I like him" is correct, although the speaker may not be able to explain why. Descriptive grammar does not teach the rules of a language but instead describes or regulates that are already known. In contrast, prescriptive grammar dictates what a speaker's grammar should be, and they include teaching grammar, which is written to helpteach a foreign language.

Linguistics

Linguistics is defined as the scientific study of language. From different viewpoints, as a science, linguistics can be divided into several branches:

1. Phonetics

2. Phonology

3. Morphology

4. Syntax

5. Generative Transformational Grammar

6. Semantics

7. Pragmatics

Branches of linguistics in relation to the other fields of study:

8. Sociolinguistics

9. Psycholinguistics

The concepts of the branches of linguistics are presented as follows:

1. Phonetics: is the study of speech sounds, which are known more technically as phones. This study highlights, especially how the speech sounds produced by using speech organs. It shows mechanisms of how to produce speech sounds.

2. Phonology: on the other hand, is essentially the description of the systems and patterns of speech sounds in a language. It is, in effect, based on theory of what every speaker of a language unconsciously knows about the sound patterns of that language. This study regards the speech sounds as having functions to differentiate meanings.

3. Morphology: is the study of analyzing the expression system of a language that is concerned with the identification of morphemes and the ways in which they are distributed or combined into longer utterances or morphological constructions.

4. Syntax: is defined as the study of arrangements of words into phrases, clauses, and sentences or syntactical constructions. The smallest units of syntax are words. When two or more words are arranged in a certain way, the result refers to syntactical construction.

5. TG Grammar; Grammar includes phrase-structure rules, lexical-insertion rules, and transformational rules. The grammar can be thought of as a machine that generates all the possible sentences of the language. A grammar containing such

rules is called a generative grammar. When the rules include transformational rules, we have a transformational-generative grammar.

6. Pragmatics: A significant factor in sentence interpretation involves a body of knowledge that is often called pragmatics. This consists of the speaker's and addressee's background attitudes and beliefs, their understanding of the context in which a sentence is uttered, and their knowledge of the way in which language is used to communicate information.

7. Sociolinguistics: the term sociolinguistics is a derivational word. Two words that form it are sociology and linguistics. Sociology refers to a science of society, and linguistics refers to a science of language. A study of language from the perspective of society may be thought of as linguistics plus sociology. Some investigators have found it to introduce a distinction between sociolinguistics and sociology of language. Some others regard sociolinguistics is often referred to as the sociology of language.

The study is concerned with the relationship between language and the context in which it is used. In other words, it studies the relationship between language and society. It explains we people speak differently in different social settings. It discusses the social functions of language and the ways it is used to convey social meaning. All of the topics provide a lot of information about the language works,

as well as about the social relationships in a community, and the way people signal aspects of their social identity through their language (Jenet Holmes, 2001).

8. Psycholinguistics: the term ‘psycholinguistics’ is a combination of psychology and linguistics. Both are the branches of sciences. Psychology is defined as the systematic study of human experience and behavior or as the science that studies the behavior of men and other animals. There are several branches of psychology, among others, social psychology, the psychology of communication, developmental psychology, educational psychology, and psychology of language.

Chapter IV

PHONETICS

Imagine that a restaurant manager who has always had trouble with the spelling of

English words places an advertisement for a new SEAGH. You see the advertisement and your conclusion leads you to ask how he came to form this unfamiliar word. It's very simple, he says.Take the first sound of the word SURE, the middle sound of the word DEAD, and the final sound of the word LAUGH. You will, of course, recognize that this form conveys the pronunciation usually associated with the word chef. (Yule, 1987: 33)

This tale, however unlikely, may serve as a reminder that the sounds of spoken English do not match up, a lot of the time, with letters of written English. If we cannot use the letters of the alphabet in a consistent way to represent the sounds we make, how do we go about describing the sounds of a language like English? One solution is to produce a separate alphabet with symbols which represent sounds. Such a set of symbols does exist and is called the 'phonetic alphabet'. We will consider how these symbols are used to represent both the consonant and vowel sounds of English words and what physical aspects of the human vocal tract are involved in the production of those sounds.

Knowing a language includes knowing the sounds of that language. When you know a language, you know words in that language, i.e. sound units that are related to specific meanings. However, the sounds and meanings of words are arbitrary. For the most part, there is no relationship between the way a word is pronounced (or signed) and its meaning.

Phonetics is the study of speech sounds, which are known more technically as phones. A whole chain of activities is involved in communicating meaning by sound. First of all, a speaker encodes meaning into sounds, which he or she produces using the tongue, lips, and other articulatory organs. These sounds are transmitted through the air to reach the hearer. Then the hearer perceives them through auditory processes, finally translating them back into meaning.

There are therefore three aspects to the study of speech sounds:

1. **Articulatory phonetics,** which is the study of how speech sounds are made or 'articulated';

2. **Acoustic phonetics,** which is the study of how speech sounds are transmitted, deals with the physical properties of speech as sound waves 'in the air', such as intensity, frequency, and duration;

3. **Auditory phonetics** (or perceptual), which is the study of how speech sounds are heard, deals with the perception via the ear, of speech sounds.

Phonetic Alphabet

Spelling, or orthography, does not consistently represent the sounds of language. Spelling, or orthography, of words in misleading, especially in English. One sound can be represented by several different combinations of letters. For example, all of the following words contain the same vowel sound: he, believe, Lee, Caesar, key, loudly, machine, people, and sea.

Some problems with ordinary spelling:

1. The same sound may be represented by many letters or combination of letters:

He – people -key - believe - seize – machine - Caesar

Seas – see

2. The same letter may represent a variety of sounds:

father village

badly made many

3. A combination of letters may represent a single sound:

shoot character Thomas

either physics rough

coat deal

4. A single letter may represent a combination of sounds:

xerox

5. Some letters in a word may not be pronounced at all:

autumn sword resign pterodacty

lamb corps psychology write

knot

In 1888 the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) was invented in order to have a system in which there was a one- to-one correspondence between each sound in language and each phonetic symbol. Someone who knows the IPA knows how to pronounce any word in any language.

Phonetic symbols

used in the dictionary

Consonants

p	pen	/pen/	s	so	/səʊ/
b	bad	/bæd/	z	zoo	/zuː/
t	tea	/tiː/	ʃ	shoe	/ʃuː/
d	did	/dɪd/	ʒ	vision	/ˈvɪʒn/
k	cat	/kæt/	h	hat	/hæt/
g	got	/gɒt/	m	man	/mæn/
tʃ	chain	/tʃeɪn/	n	no	/nəʊ/
dʒ	jam	/dʒæm/	ŋ	sing	/sɪŋ/
f	fall	/fɔːl/	l	leg	/leg/
v	van	/væn/	r	red	/red/
θ	thin	/θɪn/	j	yes	/jes/
ð	this	/ðɪs/	w	wet	/wet/

Vowels and diphthongs

iː	see	/siː/	ʌ	cup	/kʌp/
i	happy	/ˈhæpi/	ɜː	bird	/bɜːd/
ɪ	sit	/sɪt/	ə	about	/əˈbaʊt/
e	ten	/ten/	eɪ	say	/seɪ/
æ	cat	/kæt/	əʊ	go	/gəʊ/
ɑː	father	/ˈfɑːðə(r)/	aɪ	five	/faɪv/
ɒ	got	/gɒt/	aʊ	now	/naʊ/
ɔː	saw	/sɔː/	ɔɪ	boy	/bɔɪ/
ʊ	put	/pʊt/	ɪə	near	/nɪə(r)/
u	actual	/ˈæktʃuəl/	eə	hair	/heə(r)/
uː	too	/tuː/	ʊə	pure	/pjʊə(r)/

(r) indicates that British pronunciation will have /r/ only if a vowel sound follows directly; otherwise it is omitted. In American pronunciation, every 'r' of the ordinary spelling is retained.

In this discussion, we just focus on the articulatory phonetics. In the articulatory phonetics, we investigate how speech sounds are produced using the fairly sophisticated oral equipment we have. This is related to the manner of articulation. The manner of articulation is "the way the airstream is affected as it flows from the lungs and out of the mouth and nose". We start with the air pushed out by the lungs up through the trachea (the 'windpipe') to the larynx. Inside the larynx are our vocal cord which take two basic positions: (1) When the vocal cords are spread apart, the air from the lungs passes between them unimpeded. Sounds produced in this way are described as voiceless. This is to say that "Voiceless sounds are those

produced with the vocal cords apart so the air flows freely through the glottis"; and (2) When the vocal cords are drawn together, the air from the lungs repeatedly pushes them apart as it passes through, creating a vibration. Sounds produced in this way are described as voiced. In other words, "Voiced sounds are those produced when the vocal cords are together and vibrate as air passes through."

We need to know the differences between voiced and voiceless sounds based on the reasons:

a. The voiced/voiceless distinction is important in English because it helps us distinguish words like:

Rope [rop] / robe [rob]

fine [faɪn] /vine/[vaɪn]

seal [sil] / zeal [zil]

b. Some voiceless sounds can be further distinguished as aspirated or unaspirated

aspirated unaspirated

pool [phul] spool [spul]

tale [thel] stale [stel]

kale [khel] scale [skel]

c. Oral sounds are those produced with the velum raised to prevent air from escaping out the nose.

d. Nasal sounds are those produced with the velum lowered to allow air to escape out the nose.

e. So far we have three ways of classifying sounds based on phonetic features: by voicing, by place of articulation, and by nasalization:

[p] is a voiceless, bilabial, oral sound

[n] is a voiced, alveolar, nasal sound

As examples of this distinction, we can try to say the words pick and fish, which

have voiceless sounds at the beginning and end. Then say the words big and viz, which have voiced sounds at the beginning and end. The distinction can also be felt physically if we place a fingertip gently on the top of our ‘Adam’s apple’ (i.e. part of our larynx) and produce sounds like Z-Z-Z-Z or V-V-V-V. Since these are voiced sounds, we should be able to feel some vibration. Keeping our fingertip in the same position, make the sounds S-S-S-S or F-F-F-F. Since these are voiceless sounds, there should be no vibration. Another trick is to put a finger in each ear, not too far, and produce the voiced sounds to hear some vibration, whereas no vibration will be heard if the voiceless sounds are produced in the same manner. See figure 1 below:

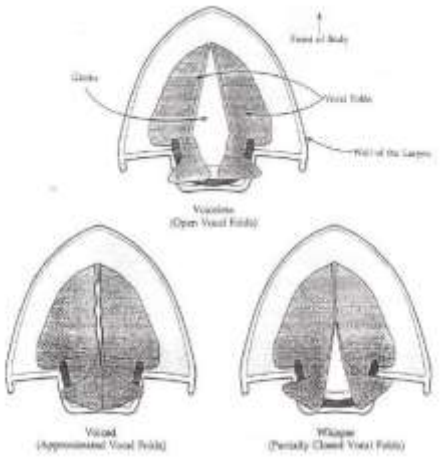


Figure 1: Superior view of the larynx.

The first thing it is necessary to state about a sound when providing an articulatory description, then, is whether it is voiced (the vocal folds are vibrating) or voiceless (there is no vocal fold vibration)

Consonants:

Consonants are sounds produced with some restriction or closure in the vocal tract.

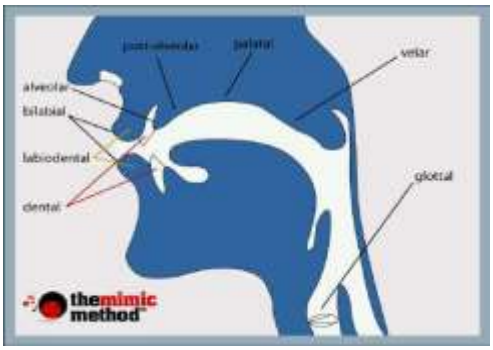
Another one states that consonants are speech sounds produced when air from the lungs is pushed through the glottis (the opening between the vocal cords) and out the mouth. They are classified according to voicing, aspiration, nasal/oral sounds, places of articulation and manners of articulation. We have discussed a little bit about voicing, aspiration, nasal/oral sounds. The following will discuss consonants from the perspectives of places of articulation.

Once the air has passed through the larynx, it comes up and out through the mouth

and/or the nose. Most consonant sounds are produced by using the tongue and other parts of the mouth to constrict, in some way, the shape of the oral cavity through which the air is passing. The terms used to describe many sounds are those which denote the place of articulation of the sound, that is, the location, inside the mouth, at which the constriction takes place.

To describe the place of articulation of most consonant sounds, we can start at the front of the mouth and work back. We can also keep the voiced – voiceless distinction in mind and begin using the symbols of the phonetic alphabet to denote specific sounds. The symbols will be enclosed within square brackets [ ].

These are the places where the constrictions and obstructions of air occur:



PLACE OF ARTICULATION

The consonants produced based on the place of articulation are:

a. Bilabial: lips together. The bilabial sounds are made by bringing both lips closer together.There are five such sounds in English: [p] pat, which is voiceless, and [b] bat, [m] mat, which are voiced. The [w] sound found at the beginning of the way, walk, and the world is also a bilabial and even [w] where (present only in some dialects).

b. Labiodental: lower lip against front teeth. The labiodental consonants are made with the lower lip against the upper front teeth. English has two labiodentals,

which are in the initial sounds and the final sounds: [f] which is voiceless, as in fat and [v] which is voiced, as in vat and [f] in safe and [v] in save.

c. Interdental: tongue between teeth. The interdentals are made with the tip of the tongue between the front teeth. The term Dental is sometimes used to describe a manner of pronunciation with the tongue tip behind the upper front teeth. There are two interdental sounds in English: [q] thigh and [ð] thy. The initial sound of thin and the final sound of bath interdental is represented by the symbol [ð] and is found in the pronunciation of the initial sound of thus and the final sound of bathe.

d. Alveolar: tongue near the alveolar ridge on the roof of the mouth (in between teeth and hard palate). Alveolar consonants are consonant sounds that are produced with the tongue close to or touching the ridge behind the teeth on the roof of the mouth. The name comes from alveoli - the sockets of the teeth. The consonant sounds /t/, /n/ and /d/ are all alveolar consonants. Just behind the upper front teeth, there is a small ridge called the alveolar ridge. The English alveolar consonants are as follows:

/n/ as in “no” and “man“

/t/ as in “tab” and “rat“

/d/ as in “dip” and “bad“

/s/ as in “suit” and “bus“

/z/ as in “zit” and “jazz“

/l/ as in “luck” and “fully”

e. Palatal: if you let your finger glide back along the roof of your mouth, you will note that the anterior portion is hard, and the posterior portion is soft. Sounds made with the tongue near the hard part of the roof of the mouth are called palatal sounds. English makes five sounds in the region of the hard palate: [š]leash, [•]measure, [è]hurch, [ǰ] judge, [y] yes.

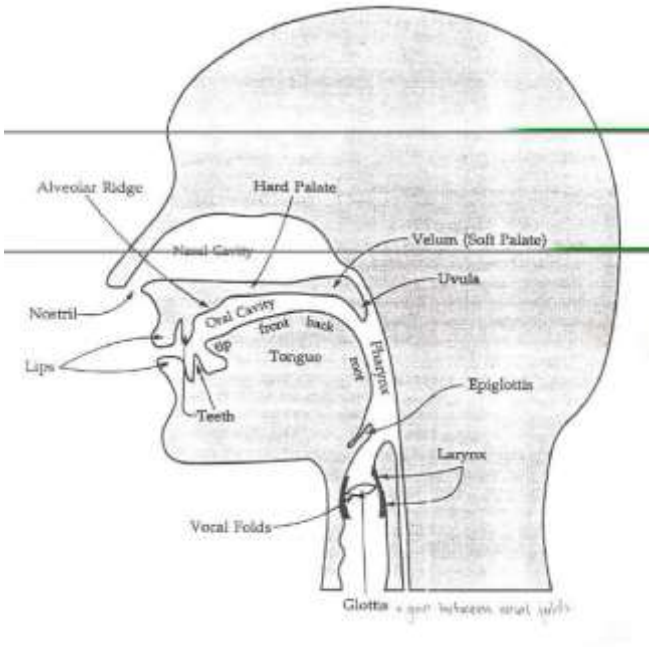
(More precisely, [š,•,è], and [ ] are alveopalatal sounds, because they are made in the area between the alveolar ridge and the hard palate. We’ll use the shorter term “palatal” to describe these sounds of English, however.)

f. Velar: the soft part of the roof of the mouth behind the hard palate is called the velum. Sounds made with the tongue near the velum are said to be velar. There is a voiceless velar sound, represented by the symbol [k], which occurs not only in kid and kill, but is also the initial sound in car and cold. Despite the variety in spelling, this [k] sound is both the initial and final sound in words cook, kick, and coke. The voiced velar sound to be heard at the beginning of the words like go, gun, and give is represented by [g]. This is also the final sound in words like bag, mug, and, despite the spelling, plague.

One other voiced velar is represented by the symbol [ ]. In English, the sound is normally written as the two letters ‘ng’ so, the [ŋ] sound is at the end of sing, sang, and, despite the spelling, tongue. It would occur twice in the form of ringing. Be careful not to be misled by the spelling – the word bang ends with the [ŋ] sound only. There is no [g] sound in this word.

g. Glottal: the space between the vocal cord is the glottis. English has two other sounds which are produced without the active use of the tongue and other parts of the mouth. One is the sound [h] which occurs at the beginning of having and house, and, for most speakers, as the first sound in who and whose. This sound is usually described as voiceless glottal. The ‘glottis’ is the space between the vocal cord in the larynx. When the glottis is open, as in the production of other voiceless sounds, but there is no manipulation of the air passing out through the mouth, the sound produced is that represented by [h]. When the glottis is closed completely, very briefly, and then released, the resulting sound is called a glottal stop. This sound occurs in many dialects of English but does not have a written form in the Roman alphabet. The symbol used in phonetic transcription is [?]. You can produce this sound if you try to say the words *butter* or *bottle* without pronouncing the –ff- sound in the middle. In Britain, this sound is considered to be a characteristic aspect of Cockney speech and, in the United States, of the speech of many New Yorkers.

Figure 2: Sagittal section of the vocal tract (Organ of Speech)



MANNER OF ARTICULATION

Besides stating whether a sound is voiced or voiceless and giving the sound's point of articulation, it is necessary to describe its manner of articulation, that is, how the airstreams is modified by the vocal tract to produce the sound. The manner of articulation of a sound depends on the degree of closure of the articulators (how close together or far apart they are).

• **Stops** – stops are made by obstructing the airstreams completely in the oral cavity. Notice that when you say [p] and [b] your lips are closed together for a moment, stopping the airflow.

[p] and [b] are bilabial stops. [b] is a voiced bilabial stop. [t], [d], [k], and [g] are also stops. The glottal stop [ʔ] is made by momentarily closing the vocal folds. The expression uh – oh has a [ʔ] before each vowel. If you stop halfway through uh – oh and hold your articulators in position for the second half, you should be able to feel yourself making the glottal stop. (it will feel like a catch in your throat). Nasal consonants are also stops in terms of their oral articulators.

• **Fricatives** – the manner of articulation used in producing the set of sounds: /f/,/v/, /θ/, /ð/, /s/, /z/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/, /h/,which involves almost blocking the airstreams, and having the air push through the narrow opening. As the air is pushed through, a type of friction is produced and the resulting sounds are called fricatives. If you put your open hand in front of your mouth when making these sounds, [f] and [š] in particular, you should be able to feel the stream of air being pushed out. A word like fish will begin and end with 'voiceless fricatives'.

• **Africates –** an affricate is made by briefly stopping the airstreams completely and then releasing the articulators slightly so that friction is produced. (Affricates can be thought of as a combination of a stop and a fricative.) English has only two affricates, [č] and [ĵ]..

• **Nasals –** Most sounds are produced orally, with the velum raised, preventing airflow from entering the nasal cavity. However, when the velum is lowered and

the airflow is allowed to flow out through the nose to produce [m], [n], and [ŋ], the sounds are described as nasals. These three sounds are all voiced. Words like morning, knitting, and name begin and end with nasals.

• **Liquids –** when a liquid is produced, there is an obstruction formed by the articulators, but it is not narrow enough to stop the airflow or to cause friction. The [l] in leaf is produced by resting the tongue on the alveolar ridge with the airstreams escaping around the side of the tongue. Thus it is called a 'lateral liquid'. Liquids are usually voiced in English: [l] is a 'voiced alveolar lateral liquid'. There is a great deal of variation in the ways speakers of English make r-sounds; most are voiced and articulated in the alveolar region, and a common type also involves curling the tip of the tongue back behind the alveolar ridge to make a retroflex sound. For our purposes [r] as in red may be considered a voiced alveolar retroflex liquid.

• **Glides –** The sound [w] and [y] are produced very much as transition sounds. They are called glides, or 'semi-vowels'. In pronunciation, they are usually produced with the tongue moving, or 'gliding', to or from a position associated with a neighboring vowel sound. They are both voiced. Glides occur at the beginning of we, wet, you and yes. We can also use the chart to find a sound with a particular description by essentially reversing the above procedure. If you wanted

to find the voiced palatal fricative, first look in the fricative row, then under the palatal column, and locate the symbol in the row marked “voiced”: This is [z].

The chart can also be used to find classes of sounds. For instance, to find all the alveolar, just read off all the sounds under the alveolar column. Or, to find all the stops, read off all the sounds in the stop row. You should familiarize yourself with the chart so that you can easily recognize the phonetic symbols. Remember that we are talking about sounds and not letters.

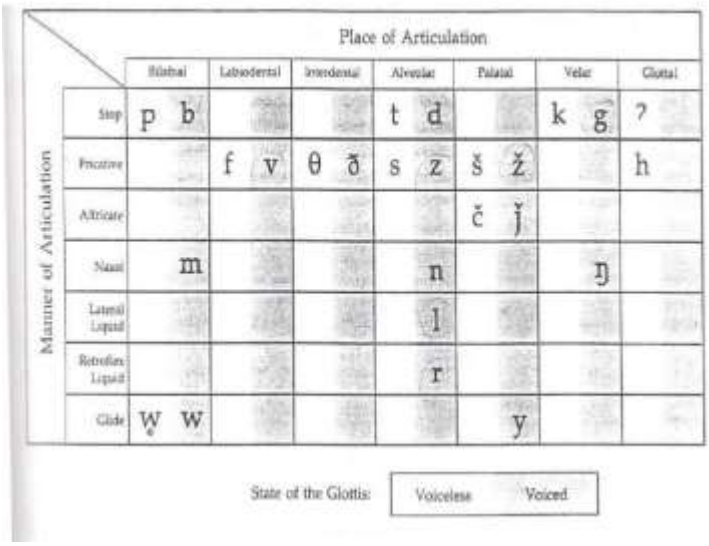


Figure 3 : The Consonants of English

ENGLISH VOWELS

While the consonant sounds are mostly articulated via closure or obstruction in the vocal tract, vowel sounds are produced with a relatively free flow of air. To describe vowel sounds, we consider the way in which the tongue influences the

‘shape’ through which the airflow must pass. Because these sounds are not so easily defined in terms of place and manner of articulation, we use labels which serve to indicate how each vowel sounds in relation to the others.

Vocal fold vibration is the sound source for vowels. The vocal tract above the glottis acts as a resonator affecting the sound made by the vocal folds. The shape of this resonator determines the quality of the vowel – [i] vs [u] vs [a], for example.

There are several ways in which speakers can change the shape of the vocal tract and thus change vowel quality. They do this by:

1. raising or lowering the body of the tongue

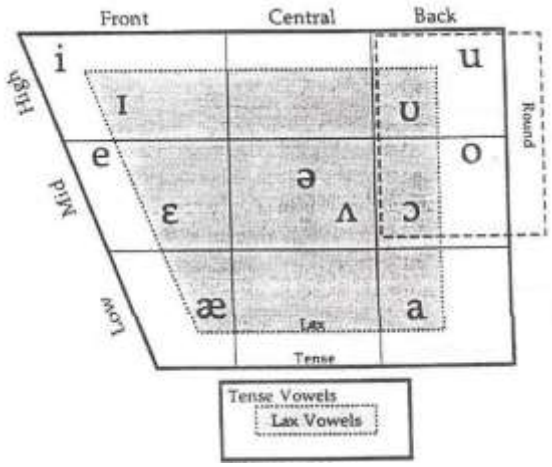
2. advancing or retracting the body of the tongue

3. rounding or not rounding the lips

4. making these movements with a tense or a lax gesture

Therefore, when describing a vowel, it is necessary to provide information about these four aspects of the articulation of the vowel. Refer to the chart in figure 4 as each aspect is discussed.

Figure 4 : The Vowels of English.



Tongue Height

If we repeat to ourselves the vowel sounds of seat, set, sat – transcribed [i], [ɛ], [æ] – we will find that we open our mouth a little wider as we change from [i] to [ɛ], and then a little wider still as we change from [ɛ] to [æ]. These varying degrees of openness correspond to different degrees of tongue height: high for [i], mid for [ɛ], and low for [æ].

High vowels like [i] are made with the front of the mouth less open because the tongue is raised or high. The high vowels of English are [i] [ɪ] [u] [ʊ], as in leak, lick, luke, look. Conversely, low vowels like the [æ] in sat are pronounced with the front of the mouth open and the tongue lowered. [æ, a], as in cat and cot, are the low vowels of English. Mid vowels like the [ɛ] of set are produced with an

intermediate tongue height; in English, these mid vowels are [e] [ɛ] [o] [ə] [ʌ] [ɔ] as in *bait, bet, but, bought, boat.*

In many American dialects, words like caught and cot, or dawn and Don, are pronounced differently, with an [ɔ] and [a], respectively. In other American dialects, these words are pronounced the same. If we pronounce these pairs the same, we probably use the unrounded vowel [a] in these words. For most speakers of English, however, the vowel [ɔ] appears in words such as *hall, ball, and tall.*

Tongue Advancement

Beside being held high or mid or low, the tongue can also be pushed forward or pulled back within the oral cavity. For example, in the high front vowel [i] as in beat, the body of the tongue is raised and pushed forward so it is just under the hard palate. The high back vowel [u] of boot, on the other hand, is made by raising the body of the tongue in the back of the mouth, toward the velum. The tongue is advanced or pushed forward for all the front vowels, [i, I, e, ɛ, ae] as in seek, sick, sake, sec, sack, and retracted or pulled back for the back vowels [u] [ɔ] [o] [æ] [a] as in ooze, look, road, paw, dot. The central vowels [ə] [ʌ] as in luck and the first vowel in the word another, require neither fronting nor retraction of the tongue.

Lip Rounding

Vowel quality also depends on lip position. When we say the [u] in two, our lips are rounded. For the [i] in tea, they are unrounded. English has four rounded vowels: [u] [ʊ] [o] [ɔ], as in loop, foot, soap, caught. All other vowels in English are unrounded. In the vowel chart, the rounded vowels are enclosed in a dotted line forming a rectangle.

DIPHTHONGS

At this point, we still have not described the vowel sounds of some English words such as hide, loud, and coin. Unlike the simple vowels described above, the vowels of these words are diphthongs: two part vowel sounds consisting of a vowel and a glide in the same syllable. If we say the word eye slowly, concentrating on how we make this vowel sound, we should find that our tongue starts out in the position for [a] and moves toward the position for the vowel [i] or the corresponding palatal glide [y]. If we have a hard time perceiving this as two sounds, try laying a finger on our tongue and saying eye. This should help us feel the upward tongue movement. This diphthong, which consists of two articulations and two corresponding sounds, is written with two symbols: [ay], as in [hayd] hide. To produce the vowel in the word loud, the tongue and the lips start in the position for [a] and move toward the position for [u] or [w]; so this diphthong is written [aw],

as in [lawd] loud. In the vowel of the word coin, the tongue moves from the [o] position toward the position for [i] or [y]; so the vowel of coin is written [oy], as in [koyn]. The positions of the vocal organs for [y] and [w] are very close to the positions for [i] and [u], respectively. So diphthongs are often transcribed using the symbols for two vowels instead of a vowel symbol plus a glide symbol: [ay], [oy], and [aw] can be written [ai], [oi], and [au]. Below are examples of diphthongs:

- [ei] or [ey] bay, take, cake, say
- [ai] or [ay] buy, my, tie
- [oi] or [oy] boy, soy, coin

Chapter V

PHONOLOGY

Both phonetics and phonology study speech sounds. However, phonetics is different from phonology. Let us try to examine the similarity and difference from one and another, Phonetics is the term for the description and classification of speech sounds, mainly how sounds are produced, transmitted and received. A phoneme is the smallest unit in the sound system of a language; for example, the [t] sound in the word top. Various phonetic alphabets have been developed to represent the speech sounds in writing through the use of symbols.

Some of these symbols are identical to the Roman letters used in many language alphabets; for example, [p] and [b]. Other symbols are used on the basis of the Greek alphabet, such as [θ], to represent the th- sound in thin and thought. Still, others have been specially invented; e.g. [ð] for the th- sound in *the* and *then*. The most widely used phonetic script is the International Phonetic Alphabet.

Phonology is the term used for the study of the speech sounds used in a particular language. The distinctive accents that many learners of English have are due to

differences between the phonological system of their language and that of English. From birth, and possibly before, we learn to recognize and produce the distinctive sounds of our language. We do not need to give any thought to how to have the lips, tongue, teeth, etc. working together to produce the desired sounds. The physical structures of parts of the sound system are adapted to produce native-language sounds.3

Finch (1998: 48) says that almost all introductory books on linguistics have a section on the sound structure, or Phonology, of English, which aim to tell you how sounds are formed and what the principal symbols of the International Phonetic Alphabet are. Phonology, on the other hand, is essentially the description of the systems and patterns of speech sounds in a language. It is, in effect, based on theory of what every speaker of a language unconsciously knows about the sound patterns of that language. Because of this theoretical status, phonology is concerned with the abstract or mental aspect of the sounds in language rather than with the actual physical articulation of speech sounds. Thus, when we say that the [t] sounds in the pronunciation of satin and eighth are the same, we are actually saying that in the phonology of English they would be represented in the same way. In actual speech, these [t] sounds may be very different. In the first word, the influence of a following nasal sound could result in some form of nasal release, while, in the second word, the influence of the following [0] sound would result in

a dental articulation of the [t] sound. This distinction between one [t] sound and another [t] sound can be captured in a detailed, or narrow, phonetic transcription (Yule, 1987 : 44 – 45).

Yule also says that in the phonology of English, this distinction is less important than the distinction between the [t] sounds in general and, for example, the [d] sounds or the [b] sounds. Because there are meaningful consequences related to the use of one rather than the others. These sounds must be distinct meaningful sounds, regardless of which individual vocal tract is being used to pronounce them, since they are what make the words tie, die, and buy meaningfully distinct. Considered from this point of view, we can see that phonology is concerned with the abstract set of sound in a language which allows us to distinguish meaning in the actual physical sounds we say and hear.

Phonemes, Phones and Allophones

Phonemes is a meaningful distinguished sounds in a language. When we considered the basis of alphabetic writing, we were actually working with the concept of the phoneme as the single sound type which came to be represented by a single symbol. It is in this sense that the phoneme /t/ is described as a sound type, of which all the different spoken versions of [t] are tokens. Note that slash marks are conventionally used to indicate a phoneme, /t/, an abstract segment, as opposed

to the square brackets, [t], used for each phonetic, or physically produced, segment. As essential property of a phoneme is that it functions contrastively. We know that there are two phonemes /f/ and /v/ in English because they are the only basis of the contrast in meaning between the forms fat and vat, or fine and vine. This contrastive property is the basic operational test for determining the phonemes which exist in a language. If we substitute one sound for another in a word and there is a change of meaning, then the two sounds represent different phonemes. The consonant and vowel charts in Chapter IV can now be seen as essentially a mapping out of the phonemes of English.

The terms which were used in creating that chart can be considered ‘features’ which distinguish each phoneme from the next. Thus, /p/ can be characterized as [+voiceless, +bilabial, +stop] and /k/ as [+voiceless, +velar, +stop]. Since these two sounds share some features, they are sometimes described as members of a natural class of sounds. The prediction would be that sounds which have features in common would behave phonologically in some similar ways. A sound which does not share those features would be expected to behave differently. For example, /v/ has the features [+voiced, +labiodental, +fricative] and so cannot be in the same ‘natural class’ as /p/ and /k/. Although other factors will be involved, this feature-analysis could lead us to suspect that there may be a good phonological reason why words beginning with / pl- / and / kl- / are common in English, but

words beginning with / vl- / are not. Could it be that there are some definite sets of features required in a sound in order for it occur word-initially before /l/ and /?/ If so, then we will be on our way to produce a phonological account of permissible sound sequences in the language.

We have already established that, while a phoneme is an abstract unit of sound, there can be different phonetic realizations of any phoneme. These phonetic units are technically described as phones. It has been noted by phoneticians that, in English, there is a difference in pronunciation of the /i/ sound in words like seed and seen. In the second word, the effect of the nasal consonant [n] makes the [i] sound nasalized. This nasalization can be represented by a diacritic over the symbol, [i] in narrow phonetic transcription. So, there are at least two phones, [i] and [i], used in English to realize a single phoneme. These phonetic variants are technically known as allophones. The crucial distinction between phonemes and allophones is that substituting one phoneme for another will result in a word with a different meaning (as well as a different pronunciation), but substituting allophones only results in a different pronunciation of the same word.

It is possible, of course, for two languages to have the same phones, or phonetic segments, but to treat them differently. In English, the effect of nasalization on a vowel is treated as allophonic variation because the nasalized version is not meaningfully contrastive.

In French, however, the pronunciation [me] is used for one word mets, meaning ‘dish’, and [me] for a different word main, meaning ‘hand’, and [so] for seau, meaning ‘pail’, contrasts with [so] for son, meaning ‘sound’. Clearly, in these cases, the distinction is phonemic.

Minimal Pairs and Sets

When two words such as pat and bat are identical in form except for a contrast in one phoneme occurring in the same position. The two words are described as a minimal pair. More accurately, they would be classified as a minimal pair in the phonology of English since Arabic, for example, does not have this contrast between the two sounds. Other examples of English minimal pairs are fan – van, bet – bat, site – side. Such pairs have been used frequently in tests of English as a second language to determine non-native speakers’ ability to understand the contrast in meaning resulting from the minimal sound contrast.

When a group of words are differentiated each one from the others by changing one phoneme (always in the same position), then we have a minimal set. Thus, a minimal set based on the vowel phonemes of English would include feat, fit, fat, fate, fought, foot, and one based on consonants could have big, pig, rig, fig, dig, wig.

One insight provided by this type of exercise with phonemes is that we can see that

there are indeed definite patterns to the types of sound combinations permitted in a language. In English, the minimal set we have just listed does not include forms such as lig or vig. As far as we know, these are not English words, but they can be viewed as possible English words. That is, our phonological knowledge of the pattern of sounds in English words would allow us to treat these forms as acceptable if, at some future time, they came into use. They represent ‘accidental’ gaps in the vocabulary of English.

Assimilation and Elision

The example of vowel nasalization in English which we have just noted is an illustration of another regular process involving phonemes. When two phonemes occur in sequence and some aspect of one phoneme is taken or ‘copied’ by the other, the process is known as assimilation. In terms of the physical production of speech, one might assume that this regular process is occasioned by ease of articulation in everyday speech. In isolation, we would probably pronounce /I/ and /æ/ without any nasal quality at all. However, in saying words like pin and pan, the anticipation of forming the final nasal consonant will make it ‘easier’ to go into the nasalized articulation in advance and consequently the vowel sounds in these words

will be, in precise transcription, [I] and [æ]. This is very regular feature of English speaker's pronunciation. So regular, in fact, that a phonological rule can be stated in the following way: 'Any vowel becomes nasal whenever it immediately precedes a nasal'.

This type of assimilation process occurs in a variety of different contexts. It is particularly noticeable in ordinary conversational speech. By it, you may pronounce the word can as [kæn], but if you tell someone I can go. The influence of the following velar [g] will almost certainly make the preceding nasal sound come out as [ŋ] (a velar) rather than [n] (an alveolar). The most commonly observed 'conversational' version of the phrase is [ayk□ŋgo].

Notice that the vowel can has also changed to [□] from the isolated-word version [æ]. The vowel sound [□], called 'schwa', is very commonly used in conversational speech when a different vowel would occur in words spoken in isolation. In many words spoken carefully, the vowel receives stress, but in the course of ordinary talk, that vowel may no longer receive any stress.

For example, you may pronounce and as [And] in isolation, but in the casual use of the phrase you and me, you almost certainly say [□n], as in [yu□nmi].

Note that in the above example, in the environment of preceding and following nasals, the [d] sound of and has simply disappeared. The [d] sound is also

commonly ‘omitted’ in the pronunciation of a word like friendship [frɛnsIp]. This ‘omission’ of a sound segment which would be present in the deliberate pronunciation of a word in isolation is technically described as elision. Word-final /t/ is a common casualty in this process, as in the typical pronunciation [æspɛks] for aspects, or in [him□sbi] for he must be. You can, of course, solely and deliberately pronounce the phrase we asked him, but the process of elision in casual speech is likely to produce [wiæstim]. Vowels also disappear, as in the middle of [IntrIst], or [kæbnIt] for cabinet.

These two processes of assimilation and elision occur in everyone’s speech and should not be treated as a form of sloppiness or laziness in speaking. In fact, consistently avoiding the regular patterns of assimilation and elision used in a language would result in extremely artificial sounding talk. The point of investigating phonological processes (Only a very small number of which have been explored here) is not to arrive at a set of rules about how a language should be pronounced, but to try to come to an understanding of the regularities and patterns which underline the actual use of sounds in language.

Chapter VI

MORPHOLOGY

The study of analyzing the expression system of a language which is concerned with the identification of morphemes and the ways in which they are distributed or combined into longer utterances, is called morphology. This term, which literally means ‘the study of forms’, was originally used in biology, but, since the mid nineteenth century, has also been used to describe that type of investigation which analyzes all those basic ‘elements’ which are used in a language. What we have been describing as ‘elements’ in the form of a linguistic message are more technically known as morphemes.

Morphology is the branch of linguistics that studies the form of words, changes in words, and the impact of these changes on the meaning and class of words. Morphology is a part of linguistics that studies the forms of words, and changes in meanings that arise as a result of changes in word forms. Morphology is the branch of linguistics that studies word structures, especially regarding morphemes, which are the smallest units of language. They can be base words or components that form words, such as affixes.

In morphology, we studied about how to form words based on the existing patterns of the language and we also studied to recognize the well– form and ill–form based on the principles of the language, so why in some sources defined that morphology is the study of word formation or the study of architecture of words. When the study about the history of words or the origins of words, is called, Etymology and the pursuit of lexicography is divided into two related disciplines: (a) Practical lexicography is the art or craft of compiling, writing and editing dictionaries, and (b) Theoretical lexicography is the scholarly discipline of analyzing and describing the semantic relation- ship within the lexicon / vocabulary of a language and developing theories of dictionary components and structures linking the data in dictionaries.

Branches of and Approaches to Morphology

The two branches of morphology include the study of the breaking apart (the analytic side) and the reassembling (the synthetic side) of words; to wit, inflectional morphology concerns the breaking apart of words into their parts, such as how suffixes make different verb forms. Lexical word formation, in contrast, concerns the construction of new base words, especially complex ones that come from multiple morphemes. Lexical word formation is also called lexical morphology and derivational morphology. A widely recognized approach divides the field into two domains: lexical or derivational morphology studies the way in

which new items of vocabulary can be built up out of combinations of elements (as in the case of indescribable); inflectional morphology studies the ways words vary in their form in order to express a grammatical contrast (as in the case of horses, where the ending marks plurality)

Morphemes VS Phonemes

A continuous stream of speech can be broken up by the listener (or linguist) into smaller, meaningful parts. A conversation, for example, can be divided into the sentences of the conversation, which can be divided up further into the words that make up each of the sentences. It is obvious to most people that a sentence has a meaning, and that each of the words in it has a meaning as well. Can we go further and divide words into smaller units that still have meanings?

Many people think not; their immediate intuition is that words are the basic meaningful elements of a language. This is not the case, however. Many words can be broken down into still smaller units. Think, for example, of words such as unlucky, unhappy, and unsatisfied. The un- in each of these words has the same meaning, loosely, that of not, but un is not a word by itself.

Thus, we have identified units – smaller than the word – that have meanings. These are called morphemes. Let's consider the words look, looks, and looked . What about the -s in looks and the –ed in looked ? These segments can be separated from

the meaningful unit look, and although they do not really have an identifiable meaning themselves, each does have a particular function. The –s is required for agreement with certain subjects (She looked, but not she look), and the –ed signifies that the action of the verb look has already taken place. Segments such as these are also considered morphemes. Thus, a morpheme is the smallest linguistic unit that has a meaning or grammatical function.

In preceding chapter, we defined that phonemes is the smallest distinguished sound in a language or the minimal unit in the sound system of a language.

Phonemes and morphemes are the two basic signaling units of language, which are universal in that they are always found in any language. Each language has phonemes and morphemes as its signaling units. For example, the word ‘fat’ has three smallest distinguished sound (phonemes): ‘fat’ [fæt] : /f/, /æ/, /t/ and also to the word ‘some’ [s m] : /s/, / /, /m/.

A morpheme, on the other hand, is a minimal unit of meaning or grammatical function. Let’s clarify this definition with one example. We would say that the word reopened in the sentence *The police reopened the investigation* consists of three morphemes. One minimal unit of meaning is open, another minimal unit of meaning is re- (meaning ‘again’), and a minimal unit of grammatical function is –

ed (indicating past tense). It means that a single word may be composed of one or more morphemes, such as, other examples below:

- one morpheme : open

Happy

- two morphemes : open + ed = opened

happy + ness = happiness

- three morphemes : re + open + ed = reopened

un + happy + ness = unhappiness

- more than three morphemes : un + desire + able + ity =

undesirability

un + gentle + man + ly + ness = ungentlemanliness

FREE AND BOUND MORPHEMES

As stated above that a morpheme is the smallest linguistic unit that has a meaning or grammatical function, we can clarify it with some examples. We would say that the word reopened in the sentence *The police reopened the investigation* consists of three morphemes. One minimal unit of meaning is open, another minimal unit of meaning is re- (meaning 'again'), and a minimal unit of grammatical function is -ed (indicating past tense). The word *tourists* also contains three morphemes. There is one minimal unit of meaning, tour, and another minimal unit of meaning –ist (meaning 'person who does something'), and also a minimal unit of grammatical function -s (indicating plural).

From these two examples, we can make a broad distinction between two types of morphemes. There are free morphemes, that is, morphemes which can stand by themselves as single words, e.g. open and tour. There are also bound morphemes, that is, those which cannot normally stand alone, but which are typically attached to another form, e.g. re-, -ist, -ed, -s. This last set known as affixes. So all affixes in English are bound morphemes. The free morphemes can be generally considered as the set of separate English word-forms. When they are used with bound morphemes, the basic word-form involved is technically known as the stem.

For example:

- Undressed: un- : prefix (bound)

dress : stem (free)

-ed : suffix (bound)

- **Carelessness :** care : stem (free)

-less : suffix (bound)

-ness : suffix (bound)

It should be noted that this type of description is a partial simplification of the morphological facts of English. There are a number of English words in which the element which seems to be the 'stem' is not, in fact, a free morpheme. In words like receive, reduce, repeat we can recognize the bound morpheme re-, but the elements –ceive, -duce and –peat are clearly not free morphemes. There is still some disagreement over the proper characterization of these elements and you may encounter a variety of technical terms used to describe them. It may help to work with a simple distinction between forms like-ceive and –duce as 'bound stems' and forms like dress and care as 'free stems'.

What we have described as free morphemes fall into two categories. The first category is that set of ordinary nouns, adjectives and verbs which we think of as the words which carry the 'content' of messages we convey. These free morphemes are called lexical morphemes and some examples are: girl, woman, house, motorcycle, camel, cat, lion, crocodile, happy, tall, beautiful, green, sincere, close, watch, teach, ride.

The other group of free morphemes are called functional morphemes. Examples are: and, but, or, while, because, at, in, near, above, an, the, this, it, we. This set consists largely of the functional words in the language such as conjunctions, prepositions, articles, and pronouns.

The set of affixes which fall into the 'bound' category can also be divided into two types. The first type is the derivational morphemes. These are used to make new words in the language and are often used to make words of a different grammatical category from the stem. Derivational morphemes can change the meaning or part of speech of a word they attach to. Thus, the addition of the derivational morpheme –ness changes the adjective kind to the noun kindness. A list of derivational morphemes will include suffixes such as the –ish in foolish, the –ly in slowly and the –ment in agreement. It will also include prefixes such as re-, pre-, ex-, dis-, im-, un- and many more.

The second set of ‘bound morphemes’ contains what are called inflectional morphemes. These are not used to produce new words in the English language, but rather to indicate aspects of the grammatical function of a word. Inflectional morphemes are used to show if a word is plural or singular, if it is past tense or not, and if it is a comparative or possessive form. Examples of inflectional morphemes at work can be seen in the use of –ed to make jump into the past tense form jumped. And the use of -s to make the word boy into the plural boys. Other examples are the –ing, -s, -er, est and –‘s inflections in the phrases Ranny is singing, Patria plays, She is bigger, the richest woman and Prima’s car. Note that, in English, all inflectional morphemes are suffixes.

In every word we find that there is at least one free morpheme. In a morphologically complex word, i.e., one composed of a free morpheme and any number of bound affixes, the free morpheme is referred to as the stem, root, or base. However, if there is more than one affix in a word, we cannot say that all of the affixes attach to the stem. Consider the word happenings, for example. When –ing is added to happen, we note that a new word is derived; it is morphologically complex, but it is a word. The plural morpheme –s is added onto the word happening, not the suffix –ing.

In English the derivational morphemes are either prefixes or suffixes, but by chance, the inflectional morphemes are all suffixes. Of course, this is not the same

in other languages. As mentioned above, there are only eight inflectional morphemes in English. They are listed below, along with an example of the type of stem each can attach to.

The Inflectional Suffixes of English

Stem	Suffix	Function	Example
Wait	-s	3rd per. sing. Present	She waits there at noon.
Wait	-ed	past tense	She waited there yesterday.
Wait	-ing	progressive	She is waiting there now.
Eat	-en	past participle	Jack has eaten the Oreos.
Chair	-s	plural	The chairs are in the room.
Chair	-‘s	possessive	The chair’s leg is broken.
Fast	-er	comparative	Jill runs faster than Joe.
Fast	-est	superlative	Tim runs fastest of all.

The difference between inflectional and derivational morphemes is sometimes difficult to see at first. Some characteristics of each are listed below to help make the distinction clearer.

Derivational Morphemes

1. Change the part of speech or the meaning of a word, e.g., -ment added to a verb forms a noun, judg-ment, re-activate means ‘activate again’.

2. Are not required by syntax. They typically indicate semantic relations within a word, but no syntactic relations outside the word (compare this with inflectional morphemes point 2 below), e.g., un-kind relates un- ‘not’ to kind but has no particular syntactic connections outside the word – note that the same word can be used in he is unkind and they are unkind.

3. Are usually not very productive – derivational morphemes generally are selective about what they’ll combine with, e.g., the suffix –hood occurs with just a few nouns such as brother, neighbor, and knight, but not with most others, e.g., friend, daughter, or candle.

4. Typically occur before inflectional suffixes, e.g., govern-ment-s: -ment, a derivational suffix, precedes –s, an inflectional suffix.

5. May be prefixes or suffixes (in English), e.g., pre-arrange, arrangement.

Inflectional Morphemes

1. Do not change meaning or part of speech, e.g., big, bigg-er, bigg-est are all adjectives.

2. Are required by the syntax. They typically indicate syntactic relations between different words in a sentence , e.g., Nim love-s bananas: -s marks the 3rd person singular present form of the verb, relating it to the 3rd singular subject Nim.

3. Are very productive. They typically occur with all members of some large class of morphemes, e.g., the plural morpheme –s occurs with almost all nouns.

4. Occur at the margin of a word, after any derivational morphemes, e.g., ration-al-iz-ation-s : is inflectional, and appears at the very end of the word.

5. Are suffixes only (in English).

It is useful to make one final distinction between types of morphemes. Some morphemes have semantic content. That is, they either have some kind of independent, identifiable meaning or indicate a change in meaning when added to a word. Others serve only to provide information about grammatical function by relating certain words in a sentence to each other (see point 2 under inflectional morphemes, above). The former are called content morphemes, and the latter are called function morphemes. This distinction might at first appear to be the same as the inflectional and derivational distinction. They do overlap, but not completely. All derivational morphemes are content morphemes, and all inflectional morphemes are function morphemes, as you might have surmised. However, some words can be merely function morphemes. Examples in English of such free

morphemes that are also function morphemes are prepositions, articles, pronouns, and conjunctions.

WORD-FORMATION PROCESSES

In the previous paragraph of this section on morphology, we have been looking at how words are put together out of smaller parts. We have seen that English makes use of derivational morphemes to create more words than would exist with only free morphemes, and of course, English is not the only language that enlarges its vocabulary in this way. When linguists observe a language which uses the combining of bound and free morphemes to form additional words, they note that the occurring combinations are systematic, i.e., rule-governed, as we have certainly seen is the case in English. To illustrate, recall the prefix un-, meaning 'not', attaches only to adjectives, the prefix re- attaches only to verbs, and the suffix –ful attaches only to nouns. Because these combinations are rule-governed, we can say that a process is at work, namely, a word formation process, since new words are being formed. What we will consider in this section are the ways in which languages create new words from bound and free morphemes.

Before describing some of the word formation process found in the world's languages, we must first address the question: in what sense is it meant that new words are being "formed"? Do we mean that every time a speaker uses a

morphologically complex word that the brain reconstructs it? Some linguists would maintain that this is the case. They would claim that in a speaker's mental dictionary, called the lexicon, each morpheme is listed individually, along with other information such as what it means, it's part of speech (if a free morpheme), and possibly a rule naming what it can combine with, if it is a bound morpheme. Thus, each time a word is used; it is re-formed from the separate entries in the lexicon. However, there is evidence that indicates this is not actually the case; even morphologically complex words apparently have a separate entry in the adult lexicon. There are other reasons, though, to consider derivation a process of word formation. A linguist analyzing a language uses the term formation to mean that the lexicon of a language includes many items that are systematically related to one another. Speakers of a given language, however, are also often aware of these relationships. We see evidence of this when new words are formed based on patterns that exist in the lexicon. For example, a speaker of English may never have heard words such as unsmelly, smellness, or smellful before, but he or she would certainly understand what they mean. The word stick-to-itive- ness causes some prescriptivists to wail; why create this new word when a perfectly good word, perseverance, already exists? This word illustrates that speakers of a language have no problem accessing the patterns in their lexicons and applying them for new creations. Thus, the term formation is applicable. Rules that speakers

actually apply to form words that are not currently in use in a language are termed productive. English has examples of nonproductive morphemes as well; for example, the suffix –tion is not used by speakers to form new nouns, whereas the suffix –ness is.

Affixation

Words formed by the combination of bound affixes and free morphemes are the result of the process of affixation. Although English uses only prefixes and suffixes, many other languages use infixes as well. Infixes are inserted within the root morpheme. Note that English really has no infixes. At first glance, some students think that –ful in a word like doubtfully is an infix because it occurs in the middle of a word, however, that doubtfully has a hierarchical structure that indicates that the –ful suffix attaches not to the affix –ful but rather to complete word doubtful. Thus –ful attaches to the word doubt as a suffix and does not break up the morpheme doubt.

As mentioned before that Prefixes are some affixes have to be added to the beginning of a word. And a few examples are the elements un-, re-, im-, mis- which appear in words like unhappy, recourse, impolite, misrepresent. The other affix forms are added to the end of the word which is called as Suffixes. And a few examples are the elements –ful, -less, -ish, -ism, -ness, which appear in words like

joyful, careless, girlish, terrorism, and kindness. And the third type of affix, not normally to be found in English, but fairly common in some other languages. Those are called Infixes and, as the term suggests that it is an infix which is incorporated inside another word. It is possible to see the general principle at work in certain expressions, occasionally used in fortuitous or aggravating circumstances by emotionally aroused English speakers: Hallebloodylujah!, Absogoddamlutely! And Unfuckinfbelieveble! We could view these 'inserted forms as a special version of infixing.

Reduplication

Reduplication is a process of forming new words either by doubling an entire free morpheme (total reduplication) or part of it (partial reduplication). In English, total

reduplication occurs only sporadically and it usually indicates intensity:

That's a big, big house! (big is drawn out)

Young children will frequently reduplicate words or parts of words. Some English examples are lugglety – pigglety, hoity – loity, and hocus – pocus. However, note that these partial reduplications are not a single morpheme. Other languages, however, do make use of reduplication more extensively.

Compounding

Compounding is a process that forms new words not from bound affixes but from two or more independent words or in other word said that it is a process of joining of two separate words to produce a single form. The words that are parts of the compound can be free morphemes, words derived by affixation, or even words formed by compounding themselves.

Examples in English of these three types include:

Girlfriend	air conditioner	lifeguard chair
Blackbird	looking glass	aircraft carrier
Textbook	watch maker	life insurance salesman

Notice that in English compound words are not represented consistently in the orthography. Sometimes they are written together, sometimes they are written with a hyphen, and sometimes they are written separately. We know, however, that compounding forms words and not just syntactic phrases, regardless of how the compound is spelled, because the stress patterns are different for compounds.

Think about how you would say the words red neck in each of the two following sentences:

1. The wool sweater gave the man a red neck.

2. The redneck in the bar dot drunk and started yelling.

Compounds that have words in the same order as phrases have primary stress on the first word only, while individual words in phrases have independent primary stress. Some other examples are listed below. (Primary stress is indicated by ‘on the vowel).

Compounds	Phrases
‘Blackbird	‘black ‘bird
‘makeup	‘make ‘up

Other compounds can have phrasal stress patterns, but only if they can’t possibly be phrases. These same compounds might also have stress on the first word only, like other compounds. For example:

‘easy-‘going	‘easy-going
‘man-‘made	‘man-made
‘homem’ade	‘homemade

The syntactic category of a word created by compounding depends to some extent on the categories of its parts. In general, two words of identical categories will

make a compound of the same category. Also, the second part of compound seems to dominate when the categories of the parts differ.

Noun – noun	Adjective – adjective
Birdcage	deaf-mute
Wallpaper	easy-going
Playground	highborn

X – Noun	X – Adjective	X – Verb
blackbird	stone-deaf	outrun
wastebasket	colorblind	fingerprint
backwater	knee-deep	undergo

The meaning of a compound depends on the meanings of its parts, but almost any kind of meaning connection can be involved between the parts. For example, an aircraft is a craft made for use in the air, but an airconditioner is a conditioner of air. Similarly, an airbrush is a brush which uses air.

Blending

This combining of two separate forms to produce a single new term is also present in the process called blending. However, blending is typically accomplished by

taking only the beginning of one word and joining it to the end of the other word. In some parts of the United States, there's a product which is used like gasoline, but is made from alcohol, so the 'blended' term for referring to this product is gasohol. If you wish to refer to the combined effects of smoke and fog, there is the term smog. Some other commonly used examples of blending are brunch (breakfast / lunch), motel (motor / hotel), and telecast (television / broadcast), also chortle (chuckle / snort). The British have, for a number of years, considered the feasibility of constructing a tunnel under the English Channel to France, and newspapers inevitably refer to this project by using the blended expression Chunnel. A fairly recent invention, based on the blending process, was President Reagan's version of economic policy, that is Reaganomics.

Clipping

The element of reduction which is noticeable in blending is even more apparent in the process described as clipping. This occurs when a word of more than one syllable is reduced to a shorter form, often in casual speech. The term gasoline is still in use, but occurs much less frequently than gas, the clipped form. Common examples are ad has been clipped from advertisement, fan from fanatic, exam from examination, dorm from dormitory, flu from influenza, lab from laboratory, prof from professor, plane from airplane, and either taxi or cab from taxi cab which is itself a clipping from taximeter cabriolet.

Back Formation

A very specialized type of reduction process is known as backformation. Typically, a word of one type (usually a noun) is reduced to form another word of a different type (usually a verb) or in another word, backformation is forming a verb from existing noun. And backformation makes use of a process called analogy to derive new words, but in a rather backwards manner. A good example of backformation is the process whereby the noun television first came into use and then the verb televise was created from it. Other examples of words created by this process are: edit from 'editor', donate from 'donation', supervise from 'supervision', opt from 'option', emote from 'emotion', and enthuse from 'enthusiasm'.

Acronyms

These words are formed by taking the initial sounds (or letters) of the words of a phrase and uniting them into a combination which is itself pronounceable as a separate word. These acronyms often consists of capital letters, as in NATO, an acronym for North Atlantic Treaty Organization, UNESCO is an acronym for the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, IBRD, an acronym for International Bank for Reconstruction and Development. But can lose their capitals to become everyday terms such as laser ('light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation'), radar ('radio detecting and ranging') and scuba

(‘self contained underwater breathing apparatus’). You might even hear talk of a snafu which is reputed to have its origins in ‘situation normal, all fouled up’.

Coinage

One of the least common processes of word – formation in English is coinage. Words may also be created without using any of the methods described above and without employing any other word or word parts already in existence; that is, they may be created out of thin air, or the invention of totally new terms. Our fanciful creation of somp would be one example. Words like aspirin and nylon, originally invented trade names or brand names. Such trade names or brand names as Xerox, Kodak, Kleenex, and Exxon were made up without reference to any other word, as were the common words pooch and snob. Those words have quickly become everyday words in the language.

Borrowing

One of the most common sources of new words in English is the process simply labeled borrowing. That is, the taking over of words from other languages. Throughout its history, the English language has adopted a vast number of loan-words from other languages, including alcohol from Arabic, boss from Dutch, croissant from French, lilac from Persian, piano from Italian, pretzel from German, robot from Czech, tycoon from Japanese, yogurt from Turkish and Zebra from

Bantu. Other languages, of course, borrow terms from English, as can be observed in the Japanese use of suupaamaaketto (‘supermarket’) and rajio (‘radio’), or Hungarians talking about sport, klub and futbal, or the French discussing problems of le parking, over a glass of le whisky, during le weekend.

A special type of borrowing is described as loan–translation, or calque. In this process, there is a direct translation of the elements of word into the borrowing language. An interesting example is the French term un gratte-ciel, which literally translates as ‘a scrape sky’, and is used for what. In English, is normally referred to as a skyscraper. The English word superman is thought to be a loan-translation of the German Ubermensch, and the term loan-word itself is believed to have come from the German Lehnwort. Nowadays, some Spanish speakers eat perros calientes (literally ‘dogs hot’), or hot dogs.

Conversion

A change in the function of a word, as, for examples when a noun comes to be used as a verb (without any reduction) is generally known as conversion. Other labels for this very common process are ‘category change’ and ‘functional shift’. A number of nouns, such as paper, butter, bottle, vacation, can, via the process of conversion, come to be used as verbs, as in the following sentences: He’s papering

the bedroom walls; Have you buttered the toast?; We bottled the home-brew last night; They're vacationing in Frence.

This process is particularly productive in modern English, with new uses occurring frequently. The conversion can involve verbs becoming nouns, with guess, must and spy as the sources of a guess, a must and a spy. Or adjectives, such as dirty, empty, total, crazy and nasty, can become the verbs to dirty, to empty, to total, or the nouns a crazy and a nasty. Other forms, such as up and down, can also become verbs, as in *They up the prices* or *We down a few beers.*

Morphological Misanalysis (False Etymology)

Sometimes people hear a word and misanalyze it either because they "hear" a familiar word or morpheme in the word, or for other, unknown reasons. This misanalyses can introduce words or morphemes. For example, the suffix –burger results from misanalyzing hamburger as ham plus burger. (Hamburger is a clipping from Hamburger Steak). –Burger has since been added to other types of foods: cheeseburger, pizzaburger, salmonburger, and steakburger. Another example concerns the creation (a) holic from a peculiar analysis of alcoholic. This suffix can be found in words like workaholic and sugarholic. It is not clear whether such misanalyses arise from actual miasunderstanding or from intentional or creative extension of the morphological possibilities of the language.

Proper Names

Many places, inventions, activities, etc, are named for persons somehow connected with them; for instance, Washington, D.C. for George Washington – and District of Columbia for Christopher Columbus, German Kaiser and Russian tsar for Julius Caesar, and ohm and watt for George Simon Ohm and James Watt.

Multiple Process

Although we have concentrated on each of these word-formation processes in isolation, it is possible to trace the operation of more than one process at work in the creation of a particular word. For example, the term deli seems to have become a common American English expression via a process of first 'borrowing' delicatessen from German and then 'clipping' that borrowed form. If you hear someone complain that problems with the project have snowballed, the final term can be noted as an example of 'compounding', whereby snow and ball have been combined to form the noun snowball, which has then undergone 'conversion' to be used as a verb. Forms which begin as 'acronyms' can also undergo other processes, as in the use of lase as a verb, the result of 'backformation' from laser. In the expression, waspish attitudes, the form WASP ('White Anglo-Saxon Protestant') has lost its capital letters and gained a suffix in the 'derivation' process.

Many such forms can, of course, have a very brief life-span. Perhaps the generally accepted test of the ‘arrival’ of recently formed words in a language is their published appearance in a dictionary. However, even this may not occur without protests from some, as Noah Webster found when his first dictionary, published in 1806, was criticized for citing words like advocate and test as verbs, and for including such ‘vulgar’ words as advisory and presidential. It would seem that Noah had a keener sense than his critics of which new wordforms in the language were going to last.

Chapter VII

S Y N T A X

Syntax refers to "the whole system and structure of a language or of languages in general, usually taken as consisting of syntax and morphology (including inflections) and sometimes also phonology and semantics.” It includes the syntax, but it's not limited to that. The syntax of a language is also referred as, "the arrangement of words and phrases to create well-formed sentences in a language.", the grammatical structure of words and phrases to create coherent sentences.

Syntax is roughly about word order. Grammar has two overlapping meanings:

1. Everything about how a language works, including syntax as a subset.

2. How words are inflected, conjugated, declined according to aspect, degree, gender, mood, number, person, tense, etc.

One part of grammar is called Morphology. It has to do with the internal economy of words. So a word like bookkeepers has four morphemes (book, keep, -er, -s) and is put together with morphology. The other part is called Syntax. It has to do with the external economy of words, including word order, agreement; like the sentence *For me to call her sister would be a bad idea* and its syntactic transform *It would*

be a bad idea for me to call her sister. That's syntax. English grammar is mostly syntax.

From the other perspective, the syntax is defined as the study of arrangements of words into phrases, clauses, and sentences or syntactical constructions. The smallest units of syntax are words. When two or more words are arranged in a certain way, the result refers to syntactical construction. In other words, it can be said that a syntactical construction is a construction in which its immediate constituents (IC-a) are words (or free morphemes). An immediate constituent (IC) refers to a constituent (or element) that directly forms the construction. As has been mentioned before, the smallest units of syntax are words. Then, words will be discussed in the following.

Based on one perspective, grammarians classify the words into eight types of parts of speech in the English language: noun, pronoun, verb, adjective, adverb, preposition, conjunction, and interjection. The part of speech indicates how the word functions in meaning as well as grammatically within the sentence. An individual word can function as more than one part of speech when used in different circumstances. Understanding parts of speech is essential for determining the correct definition of a word when using the dictionary. Meanwhile, structural linguists classify words into two great classes: content and function words.

Firstly, the parts of speech cover: noun, pronoun, verb, adjective, adverb, preposition, conjunction, and interjection. Let us explain them in following:

1. Noun

A noun is a word for a person, place, thing, or idea. Nouns are often used with an article (the, a, an), but not always. Proper nouns always start with a capital letter; common nouns do not. Nouns can be singular or plural, concrete or abstract. Nouns show possession by adding 's. Nouns can function in different roles within a sentence; for example, a noun can be a subject, direct object, indirect object, subject complement, or object of a preposition.

The young girl brought me a very long letter from the teacher, and then she quickly disappeared. Oh my!

2. Pronoun

A pronoun is a word used in place of a noun. A pronoun is usually substituted for a specific noun, which is called its antecedent. In the sentence above, the antecedent for the pronoun she is the girl. Pronouns are further defined by type: personal pronouns refer to specific persons or things; possessive pronouns indicate ownership; reflexive pronouns are used to emphasize another noun or pronoun;

relative pronouns introduce a subordinate clause; and demonstrative pronouns identify, point to, or refer to nouns.

3. Verb

The verb in a sentence expresses action or being. There is a main verb and sometimes one or more helping verbs. ("She can sing." Sing is the main verb; can is the helping verb.) A verb must agree with its subject in number (both are singular or both are plural). Verbs also take different forms to express tense.

4. Adjective

An adjective is a word used to modify or describe a noun or a pronoun. It usually answers the question of which one, what kind, or how many. (Articles [a, an, the] are usually classified as adjectives.)

5. Adverb

An adverb describes or modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb, but never a noun. It usually answers the questions of when, where, how, why, under what conditions, or to what degree. Adverbs often end in -ly.

6. Preposition

A preposition is a word placed before a noun or pronoun to form a phrase modifying another word in the sentence. Therefore a preposition is always part of a

prepositional phrase. The prepositional phrase almost always functions as an adjective or as an adverb.

7. Conjuction

A conjunction joins words, phrases, or clauses, and indicates the relationship between the elements joined. Coordinating conjunctions connect grammatically equal elements: and, but, or, nor, for, so, yet. Subordinating conjunctions connect clauses that are not equal: because, although, while, since, etc. There are other types of conjunctions as well.

8. INTERJECTION

An interjection is a word used to express emotion. It is often followed by an exclamation point such as: *Oh!... Wow!... Oops!*

Content and Function Words

Secondly, the structural linguists classify words in two great classes, namely: Content and Function Words. The first class is known as content words and the second one is known as function words. The first group include: (1) nouns, (2) verbs, (3) adjectives, and (4) adverbs. Whereas, the second group include words such as (1) auxiliary words (can, may, must, shall, and will), (2) determiner articles (a, the, this, that, many, some, etc), (3) prepositions (on, at, in, above, etc), (4)

qualifiers (very, somewhat, quite, etc), interrogators (when, how, who, etc), (5) negators (not, never), (6) subordinators (is, as, although, etc), and (7) coordinators (and, or, but, etc). Both content words and function words are used to form sysntactical constructions.

Content words are different from function words in some cases. These content words have some characteristics as follows. Content words have precise lexical meanings, namely: meanings of words as found in a dictionary or when they occur in isolation such as meanings of ‘Ali,’ ‘kicked,’ and ‘dogs.’ ‘Ali’, for instance, refers to ‘a certain human being called ‘Ali’, ‘kicked’ means ‘hitting by using one’s foot which happened in the past time’, and ‘dogs’ refers to ‘more than one four-footed animal’; whereas, function words do not have clear lexical meaning such a word ‘of.’ ‘Of’ may mean ‘possession’ (for instance, the house of my father) and it may mean ‘relationship of an action and its object’ (for example, the running of the boy).

Content words are different from function words concerning their frequencies of occurrence. The former has a low frequency of occurrence, and the latter has a high frequency of occurrence. For instance, a certain kind of content words like ‘chair’ (noun), ‘write’ (verb), ‘green’ (adjective), and ‘clearly’ (adverb) are not always found or used in dialogue (conversation) or a writing activity. On the other hand, a

certain kind of function word like ‘of’ (preposition) is often used in utterance or discourse, both when people speak and write.

The difference between content and function words concerns their numbers. The former is said to be high in number, and the latter is known as those which are limited in number. In this relation, we cannot imagine the number of nouns or verbs. There must be many words categorized as nouns or verbs (also, adjectives or adverbs). On the other hand, the number of ‘auxiliary words’ can be easily counted by hand.

The difference between content and function words concerns their formal markers. The former have formal markers. A noun, for instance, can be identified by using its formal markers such as inflectional suffixes (for example, -s in dogs, derivational suffixes (for example, -ment in statement), and its position after noun determiners (for instance, the- in the book). Whereas, the latter do not have formal markers that can be used to identify them. In this relation, we do not have ‘a marker’ or ‘ a means’ to determine a word ‘in’; there is nothing in the word ‘in’ that tells that it is a preposition.

Lastly, the difference between content and function words in what we often call open and closed classes of words. This is to say that the former is said to be open classes of words, and the latter are known as closed classes of words. When words

are open, they mean that they may change from time to time; the number of contents can increase in line with the development of culture and technology. When words are closed in nature, they mean that they hardly ever increase in their number.

Syntactical Constructions

Syntactical construction may be in the form of phrases, clauses, or sentences. A phrase or sentence can be analyzed based on its immediate constituents (IC-s). This term was introduced by Bloomfield, who illustrated how it was possible to a sentence (Poor John ran away) and split it up into two IC-s (Poor John and ran away, and each IC can be further analyzed into its IC-s. So Poor John consists of Poor and John; and ran away consists of ran and away. When the constituent(s) can be further analyzed into its(their) IC-s, the constituent(s) are identified as ultimate constituent(s). In this relation, it can be said that Poor, John, ran, and away are the ultimate constituents of the sentence *Poor John ran away*.

Types of Syntactical Constructions

There are two types of syntactical constructions. They are (1) endocentric construction and (2) exocentric construction.

An endocentric construction is a construction in which at least one of the IC-s belong to the same form class as the whole construction. For instance, a

construction ‘green book.’ To identify whether this construction is endocentric or not, we can test by using the following sentence:

Green book is on the table.

When we delete ‘book,’ the sentence will be :

Green is on the table *

Of course, and the sentence is not accepted because there is a sentence with an adjective as its subject.

When we delete ‘green,’ the sentence will be:

Book is on the table.

This sentence is acceptable. This shows us that one of the IC-s of the construction ‘green book’ e.g. ‘book’ belongs to the same form class as the construction ‘green book.’ In other words, an IC ‘book’ can replace the position of ‘green book.’ Therefore, the construction is called ‘endocentric construction.’

An exocentric construction is a construction in which none of the IC- s belongs to the same form class the whole construction. For instance, we have a construction ‘…in the room.’ We can test in the same way as we did before. We use ‘in the room’ in a sentence:

They slept *in the room.*

Let us pay attention to ‘in the room.’

When we delete ‘in,’ the sentence will be:

They slept *the room* (*)

This is not a complete sentence, and therefore, it is not accepted. When we delete ‘in,’ the sentence

will be :

They slept *in* (*)

The sentence is also not complete and therefore, it is not accepted. Because none of the IC-s belongs to the same form class as the construction ‘in the room,’ it is called ‘exocentric construction.’ In this case, we can say that either ‘in’ or ‘the room’ can replace the position of the construction ‘in the room.’

Sub-types of Endocentric Construction

There are three sub-types of endocentric construction. They are (1) attributive construction, (2) appositive construction, and (3) coordinative construction.

An attributive construction is a construction that consists of two IC-s. The first IC is called ‘a modifier (M)’ and the second one is called ‘a head (H)’ such as in

the construction ‘green book.’ An IC ‘green’ is a modifier and an IC ‘book’ is a head. Some words that can be functioned as ‘modifiers’ are adjectives, verbs in past participle and verbs in present participle, and nouns such as ‘strong’ in ‘the strong boy’, ‘finished’ in ‘we need the finished products’, and ‘swimming’ in ‘he is swimming in the swimming pool’, and ‘stone’ in ‘a stone house’ respectively.

English has four possible ways of making attributive construction: M – H such as ‘green house’, ‘my book’, swimming pool, etc, (2) H – M such as ‘number two’, ‘the woman in blue jean’, etc., (3) M – H – M such as ‘as soon as possible’, ‘the best friend of mine’, etc., and (4) H – M – H such as ‘ do not talk’, ‘will never die’, etc. An appositive construction is a construction that consists of two IC-s. The first IC is a noun or noun phrase, and the second one is a noun or noun phrase. The function of the second one is to clarify the first one. In a written form, the first noun or noun phrase and the second one are separated by a comma (,) such as a construction ‘Aryati, the student of ULM, is always on time.

A coordinative construction is a construction that consists of two IC-s. The first one is combined with the second one by using coordinators such as ‘and, or, but, both…and, either…or and neither….nor’. The example of the construction is ‘you and I will attend the meeting.’ Sub-types of Exocentric Construction.

There are three sub-types of exocentric construction. They are :(1) directive construction, (2) complementation construction, and (3) predicative construction.

A directive construction is a construction that consists of two IC-s. The first IC is a director and the second one is its object. The director may be in the form of verbal element such as ‘give’ that is followed by its object ‘money’ to form a construction ‘give money’; it may be in the form of preposition such as ‘on’ that is followed by its object ‘the chair’ to form a construction ‘on the chair’; or it may be in the form of conjunction ‘after’ that is followed by its object ‘he went home’ to form a construction ‘after he went home’.

A complementation construction is a construction that consists of two IC-s. The first IC is a copula or copulative verb ‘be,’ and the second one is its complement. The following is some examples of this type of construction:

(I) am a teacher be (am) + a noun as a complement (He) is strong. be (is) + an adjective asa complement

(They) are in the room à be (are) + an adverb of place as a complement.

Some verbs are similar in their function to a copulative verb ‘be. They are ‘become (become angry), get (get dark), go (go mad), grow (grow old), turn (turn red). In one case, the verbs have almost the same meaning as ‘be.’ That is to say that a sentence ‘I am angry’ is similar in meaning to a sentence ‘I become angry.’ In

other cases, they are different from ‘be.’ In this relation, when the sentence is changed into a negative or an interrogative sentence, it is altered differently. For instance, a negative form of the sentence ‘I am angry’ is ‘I am not angry’; whereas, a negative form of the sentence ‘I become angry’ is ‘I do not become angry.’

A predicative construction is a construction that consists of two IC-s. The first IC is a subject and the second one is a predicate. This construction refers to what we have known as a sentence. The two essential things in the sentence are the uses of a subject and a predicate or a noun/noun phrase plus a noun/noun phrase. The following examples show the kind of construction:

1. He is angry ----- He (subject) + is angry (predicate)

2. He sings well----- He (subject) + sings well (predicate)

3. People elect him a president.---- He (subject) + elect him a president (predicate).

Analysis of Syntactical Construction

We have said that a sentence can consist of a predicate and its arguments. So in a sentence such

as (1):

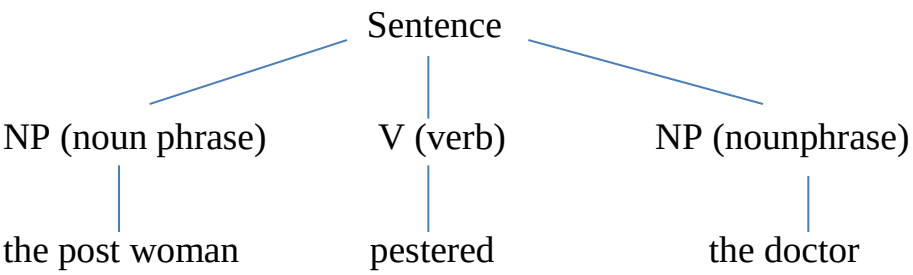
(1) Prudence pestered Dennis

We have the verb pestered as the predicate which relates the two arguments Prudence, the agent and Dennis, the patient. Now consider a slightly more complex case:

(2) the post woman pestered the doctor

This could mean exactly the same thing as (2), on the assumption that Prudence is a post woman and Dennis is a doctor. In this case, the arguments seem to be the post woman and the doctor, a sequence of words made up of a determiner followed by a noun. But what status do these sequences of words have in the sentence? It seems as though they function as single words do in (1), inasmuch as they constitute the same arguments as Prudence and Dennis do.

Thus these two words seem to go together to make up a unit which is the functional equivalent of the proper nouns in the original sentence. This unit is called a phrase. We can represent this as follows:



Thus, a sentence has more internal structure to it than we have so far been assuming. Not only can sentences contain words and other sentences, but they can

also contain phrases. To make the drawing of the structures clearer in what follows, we will use the symbol S to stand for sentences and the symbol P to stand for phrases. Though it should be made clear that these symbols have no place in the system, we will eventually develop and are used now as mnemonics which stand for something we have yet to introduce properly.

Two questions arise immediately: do sentences contain any more phrases than those indicated in (3), and what can phrases contain? To be able to answer these questions, we must first look a little more closely at the properties of phrases in general. The first thing to note is that just as words have distributions in a sentence, so do phrases. This is obvious from the above example, as the phrases the post woman and the doctor distribute in the same way that the nouns Prudence and Dennis do:

wherever it is grammatical to have Prudence, it will be grammatical to have the postwoman and where it is ungrammatical to have Prudence it will be ungrammatical to have the postwoman:

a. Prudence is considerate the postwoman is considerate

b. I saw Prudence I saw the postwoman

c. They spoke to Prudence they spoke to the postwoman

d. *we Prudence Dennis *we the postwoman Dennis

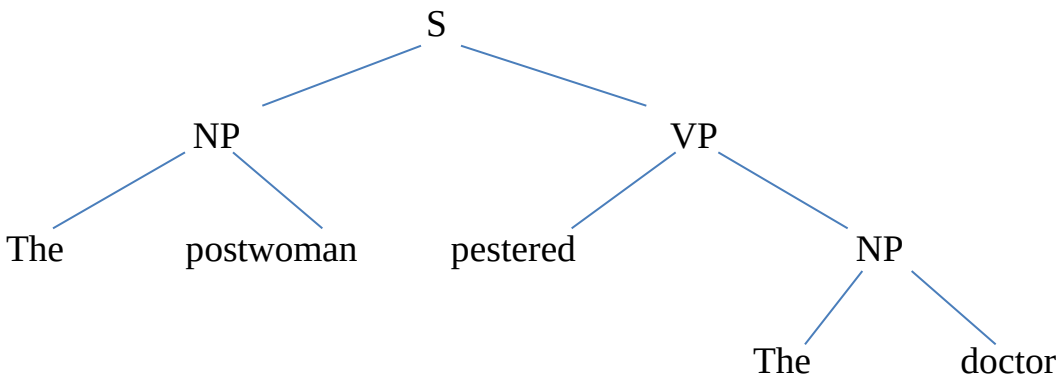
With this in mind, consider the following:

(4) a. Prudence pestered Dennis on Wednesday

b. Prudence persisted on Wednesday

It seems that in the position where we have pestered Dennis we can have the verb persisted. This is not surprising as the verb pestered is used transitively in (4a), with a nominal complement (Dennis) whereas persisted is used intransitively in (4b), without a complement. However, if intransitive verbs distribute the same as transitive verbs plus their complements, this means that transitive verbs and their complements form a phrase that has a distribution in the same way that a determiner with its nominal complement distributed like certain nouns.

Thus a more accurate description of the sentence than (3) would be:



Syntactic Devices

The arrangement of words does not always refer to syntactical construction. Not all combinations of words are said to be syntactical constructions. For instance, 'books many,' 'many book,' 'he sing,' 'the president gave his agree,' and 'I go school.'

In improving the arrangements of the words above, we need some syntactic devices. We use a word-order for improving 'books many'; this arrangement must be changed into 'many books.' We use an inflectional suffix –s to make 'he sing' syntactic; this arrangement must be turned into 'he sings.' We use a derivational suffix –ment to improve 'the president gave his agree' and the resultant form is 'the president gave his agreement.' At last, we use a function word 'to' to make 'I go school' acceptable and after 'to' is inserted, the resultant form will be a syntactical construction, namely: 'I go to school.'

Chapter IX

SEMANTICS

Semantics is the study of linguistic meaning; that is, the meaning of words phrase,

and sentences. Many people may have the impression that a word's meaning is simply its dictionary definition. A little thought should show, however, that there must be more to meaning than just this.

It is true that when someone wants to find out what a word means, an easy and practical way to do it is to look the word up in a dictionary. Most people in our culture accept dictionaries as providing unquestionably authoritative accounts of the meanings of the words they define.

The role of dictionaries as authorities on meaning leads many people to feel that the dictionary definition of a word more accurately represents the word's meaning than does an individual speaker understands of the word. However, we must face the fact that a word means what people use it to mean. A word's meaning is determined by the people who use that word, not, ultimately, by a dictionary.

Let's first consider some observations we can make about the meaning of words and sentences:

(1) The word fly has more than one meaning in English. The word moth does not.

(2) The word hide can mean the same thing as conceal.

(3) The meaning of the word fear includes the meaning of the word emotion, but not vice versa.

(4) The words sister and niece seem to be closer in meaning than the words sister and girl.

(5) In the sentence Monica believes that she is genius. She refers either to Monica or to someone else. However, in the sentence Monica believes herself to be a genius. *Herself* can refer only to Monica.

(6) If someone were to ask you to name a bird, you would probably think of a robin before you would think of an ostrich.

(7) The sentences *A colorless gas is blue* and *Oxygen is blue* are both false, but they are false for different reasons.

(8) The sentence John's wife is six feet tall is neither true nor false, if John does not have a wife.

The observations in (1 – 8) are all essentially semantic in nature. That is, they have to do with the meaning of words and sentences. As is standard procedure in

linguistics, we will assume that these phenomena are systematic; that is, they are rule-governed.

Lexical relations

The approach which has just been outlined is not without problems. For many words in a language it may not be so easy to come up with neat components of meaning. If you try to think of which components or features you would use to distinguish the nouns advice, threat and warning, for example, you will have some idea of the scope of the problem. Part of the problem seems to be that the approach involves a view of words in a language as some sort of 'containers', carrying meaning-components. Of course, this is not the only way in which we can think of the meaning of words in our language. If you were asked to give the meaning of the word conceal, for example, you might simply reply "it's the same as hide", or give the meaning of shallow as "the opposite of deep" , or the meaning of daffodil as "it's a kind of flower". In doing so, you are not characterizing the meaning of a word in terms of its component features, but in terms of its relationship to other words. This procedure has also been used in the semantic description of languages and is treated as the analysis of lexical relations. The types of lexical relations which are usually appealed to are defined and exemplified in the following sections.

Synonymy

Synonyms are two or more forms, with very closely related meanings, which are often, but not always, intersubstitutable in sentences. Examples of synonyms are the pairs broad – wide, hide – conceal, almost – nearly, cab – taxi, liberty – freedom, answer – reply.

It should be noted that the idea of 'sameness of meaning' used in discussing synonymy is not necessarily 'total sameness'. There are many occasions when one word is appropriate in a sentence, but its synonym would be odd. For example, whereas the word answer fits in this sentence: Karen had only one answer correct on the test, its near-synonym, reply, would sound odd.

Antonymy

Two forms with opposite meanings are called antonyms, and commonly used examples are the pairs: quick – slow, big – small, long – short, old – young, above – below, male – female, alive – dead.

Antonyms are usually divided into two types, those which are 'gradable', and those which are 'non – gradable'. Gradable antonyms are pairs that describe opposite ends of a continuous scale, such as the pair big – small, can be used in comparative constructions *bigger than – smaller than*, and the negative of one member of the pair does not necessarily imply the other. For example, if you say *that dog is not*

old, you do not have to mean *that dog is young*. Another example is hot and cold. Not everything that can be hot or cold is, in fact, either hot or cold. A liquid, for example, may be neither hot nor cold; it can be in between, say, warm or cool. These antonyms do not constitute contradiction but contrary relationships. Non-gradable antonyms, on the other hand, which also called ‘complementary pairs’ or Binary antonyms, are pairs that exhaust all possibilities along some scale. Dead and alive are examples of binary antonyms. This is the familiar relationship of contradiction, where something and its negation concur. Dead and alive constitute a contradiction, because dead means not alive. There is no middle ground between the two. All men, for example, are either dead or alive. Non-gradable antonyms or binary antonyms can also say that comparative constructions are not normally used (the expressions deader or more dead sound strange), and the negative of one member does imply the other. For example, that person is not dead does indeed mean that person is alive.

CHAPTER X

PRAGMATICS

Over the years pragmatics has become more and more important branch of linguistics, as the inadequacies of a purely formalist, abstract approach to the study of language has become more evident.

A major factor in sentence interpretation involves a body of knowledge that is often called pragmatics. This includes the speaker's and addressee's background attitudes and beliefs, their understanding of the context in which a sentence is uttered, and their knowledge of the way in which language is used to communicate information.

Pragmatics' goal is to understand the reason of a speech, what are the speaker's motif and goal? And no speech without a context. For example:

the same sentence may be used for two different purposes in two different context:

2. a) A: Why don't you close that window?

B: I let it open for Mimi, my cat

b) A: Why don't you close that window?

B: That's a good idea. I feel cold myself.

In dialog (2a), the expression "Why don't you close that window" is used merely as a question. A wants to know why B doesn't close a certain window. On the other hand, in dialog (2b) is used as a request. And this dialog, the weather is probably cold and A asks B to close the window.

3. A: How could you do that?

B: It's very easy. All you need is a high motivation and hard work

4. A: How could you do that?

B: I'm sorry. I didn't mean it.

In dialog (3), the expression "How could you do that" is used by A to show a mild surprise. It's just a matter of curiosity. While in dialog (4), the same expression is used to show regret. A doesn't really want to know how B did a certain act, but it is used to show that A is really disappointed with B.

Aspects of Pragmatics:

1. Performatives

In 1955, the British philosopher, John L. Austin delivered the William James

Lectures at Harvard. (These lecturers were published in 1962 as How to Do Things with Words). Austin's fundamental insight was that an utterance can constitute an act. That is he was the first to point out that in uttering a sentence, we can do things as well as say things. (Before Austin, philosophers held that sentence were used simply to say things). For example, if I utter the sentence *I have five toes on my right foot*. I am simply saying something about my foot. However, uttering the sentences in (5) constitutes more than just saying something; they constitutes doing something as well.

5. a) I promise I'll be there on time.

b) I apologize for the way I acted.

c) I name this "The Good Ship Lollipop."

d) I give and bequeath to John L. Jones all my earthly possessions.

e) I bet you $100 that it'll rain before 6:00 p.m.

f) I now pronounce you man and wife.

Note that, if said under the right circumstances, each of the sentences in (5a – f)

constitutes the performance of an act; (5a) constitute an act of promising; (5b) an act of apologizing; (5c) an act of naming; (5d) an act of giving; (5e) an act of betting; and (5f) an act of marrying. Consequently, the verbs in such sentences are

known as performatives. Moreover, Austin noted that in order for a verb to be a performative, it must be present tense and it must have a first person subject. For example, consider sentences (6a – c):

6. a) I promise that I won't be late.

b) I promised that I wouldn't be late. (past tense)

c) John promises that he won't be late. (third person subject)

Uttering (6a) constitutes performing an action (i.e, making a promise). On the other hand, uttering (6b) or (6c) constitutes saying something: (6b) reports a past promise, and (6c) reports someone else's promise. Therefore, although (6a – c) all contain the same verb, only (6a) contains a performative.

2. Speech Acts

Searle, Kiefer and Bierwisch (1980:3) state that speech act theory firstly introduced by Austin in 1962 is a branch of the theory of communication. When people communicate, they may make a promise, give praise, negotiate, flatter, etc. It means that communication or conversation may fulfill much different function. There have been many language philosophers taking language function into their consideration. Petrey (1990:1) as one of language philosophers notes that speech act theory addresses language's productive force, which depends entirely on where

and when it is used. In other words, this theory examines the power of language in communities. While Searle (1969:6) states that the minimal unit of human communication is not sentence or other expression, but rather the performance of certain kind of acts, such as making statements, asking questions, giving orders, making a request, apologizing, welcoming, etc. To get success in performing these acts, a speaker has to fulfill a set of rules what he calls felicity conditions.

Austin (1962) devides sentences into constatives and performatives. He argues that words are not only something we use to say things but also to do things. The term constatives are for sentences with their primary function of saying something which may be true or false. For instance, a girl tells her friend, "I bought this nice pen at KOPMA shop." Her sentence is constatives because it tells something, namely, what she did and how she felt. The term performatives is used for sentences with their primary function of doing something. For example, 'betting'. When a speaker tells, "I bet you ten dollars", his utterance constitute a bet and obligate the loser to pay ten dollars to the winner. The attitude of the person performing the linguistic act – his thoughts, feelings, or intentions – is of paramount importance. Whereas the constative utterance is true or false, the performative utterance is felicitous or infelicitous, sincere or insincere, authentic or inauthentic, well invoked or misinvoked. For example, saying "I do" at a marriage

ceremony is insincere and misinvoked if the speaker is already married and has no intention of abiding by the conditions of the contract.

The utterances can perform three kinds of acts. They are **locutionary, Illocutionary and perlocutionary acts**. Locutionary act is the act of saying something and illocutionary act is the performance of an act in saying something. The interpretation of the locution is concerned with meaning, it produces an understandable utterance. And the interpretation of the illocution with force, it is informed with a certain tone, attitude, feeling, motive,or intention. Perlocutionary act is the act of producing some effect on the thoughts, feelings, or actions of the audiences, it has an effect upon the addressee. These three components are not altogether separable. For example, that a bartender utters the words, 'the bar will be closed in five minutes,' reported by means of direct quotation, he is thereby performing the locutionary act of saying that the bar (i.e. the one he is tending) will be closed in five minutes (from the time of utterance), and what is said reported by indirect quotation (notice that what the bartender is saying, the content of his locutionary act, is not fully determined by the word he is using, for they do not specify the bar in question or the time of the utterance). In saying this, the bartender is performing the illocutionary act of informing the patrons of the bar's imminent closing and perhaps also the act of urging them to order a last drink. Whereas the upshot of these illocutionary acts is understanding on the part of the

audience, perlocutionary acts are performed with the intention of producing a further effect. The bartender intends to be performing the perlocutionary acts of causing the patrons to believe that the bar is about to close and of getting them to order one last drink. In this case, he is performing all these speech acts, at all three levels, just by uttering certain words.

3. Locutionary, Illocutionary, and Perlocutionary Act

Austin defines locutionary acts as the act of saying something which has literal meaning. Refering to Austin' notion of the locutionary act, Coulthard defines that locutionary act is the act of saying something in the full sense of 'say' and its interpretation is concerned with meaning of the speaker's utterance. Locutionary act is also defined as the act of producing a recognizable grammatical utterance in the language.

Normally, a locution demands that the speaker and the hearer have knowledge of the grammar, lexicon, semantics, and phonology of the language.

As an example:

7. He said to me, "Shoot her."

The sentence is imperative. The meaning of "shoot" is shoot and referring by

“her” is to her. In conclusion, locutionary act is the act of say something that has literal meaning.

Austin defines that basically **illocutionary act** is a linguistic act performed in uttering certain words in given context and its interpretation is concerned with force. Coulthard stresses that the illocutionary act is potentially under the control of its speaker. Illocutionary act is also defined as the attempt to accomplish some communicative purposes such as promising, warning, arguing, announcing a verdict, betting, warning, making appointment, etc. The speaker ordinarily intends his hearer to recognize his particular attitudes towards an expressed proposition.

The illocutionary force of an utterance or what is intended by an utterance is dependent on the context and particular utterance may have a different illocutionary force in different context.

For example, a mother tells her teenaged daughter, “This house is like a ruined ship”. The utterance may be intended as a claim that the house is very untidy and as an order to clean it up without delay. The utterance means as an excuse when the mother says it to her guest. The mother intends her excuse for making her guest be in frightful mess. Similarly, a single utterance can have more than one function. For example a girl utters, “I am trying to find my purse along the way to his room”.

Her utterance may be an expression concerning her wondering of losing her purse or a directive requesting another to help her to find it.

Austin define the perlocutionary act as the act performed as a consequence of the locutionary and illocutionary acts causing a change in the mind of listener so that he becomes ‘alarmed’, ‘convinced’, ‘deterred’, etc.

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