Murni Fidiyanti, M.A

ENGLISH LINGUISTICS
AN INTRODUCTORY SURVEY

JAUDAR PRESS

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English Linguistics an Introductory Survey

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Perpustakaaan Nasional: katalog dalam terbitan (KDT)

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English Linguistics an Introductory Survey
Surabaya: JAUDAR PRESS, 2017
V, 166 hlm
ISBN 978-602-6691-460

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Cetakan Pertama, 2017

Hak penerbitan pada JAUDAR PRESS, Surabaya

Desain cover : Ach. Chusnul Fajar, S.Hum
Editor : Murni Fidiyanti, M.A

Dicetak di CV. JAUHAROH DARUSALAM

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English Linguistics an Introductory Survey

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FOREWORD

All praise is always to Allah *p.b.u.h*., the Almighty and the Benevolent who has bestowed and granted me with His blessing. Without His guidance, I will never be able to finish this book.

English Linguistics an Introductory Survey is a book which covers all of the elements of linguistics. It focused on English linguistics. Linguistics itself is the science of language, so it begins from the nature of language. The first explanation deals with the origin of language, definition of language, feature of language and some basic distinctions of language. The second explanation deals with the elements of linguistics, including phonology, morphology, syntax, generative transformational grammar,semantics, pragmatics and discourse analysis. The third explanation deals with the relation between linguistics and other sciences, such as sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics. The last explanation deals with historical linguistics and also linguists' theory that have contributed toward linguistics. Hopefully, this book may have a good valuable contribution toward linguistics, especially for those who

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intend to make further study dealing with linguistics. I believe that this book is far from perfect, so I need criticism and suggestion to make it perfect.

By finishing this book, I say thanks to all lecturers in Faculty of Arts and humanities, UIN Sunan Ampel Surabaya, especially Dr. Dzo'ul Milal, M.Pd as my advisor and editor of this book, my late parents, my husband Zudan Rosydi, M.A and my little children, M.Kafaa Amrulhaq and Lubna Khaira An Najda as the spirit of my life.

Murni Fidiyanti, M.A

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Chapter 1
LANGUAGE

1.1 Definition of language

Language is not only used by human being, but also used by animals. Although animal has its own language, human language is different from animal language. Animals use language when they find a supply of food, give warning of danger, or attract a mate, and so on. They use sight, smell and sound to communicate each other, whereas human use verbal language and non verbal language in communicating with others.

The term "communication" is the key to find the definition of the term language. It is derived from our first response maybe language relates to communication among human beings. An American Linguist, Edward Sapir stated that language is related to communication between human being. His definition is as follows: *Language is a purely human non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of a system of voluntary produces symbols.* (Sapir, 1921:8)

From the definition above, Sapir stresses on the term symbols. The element symbols reflect the fact that there is a rarely inherent association between a word and an object, for example we could denote a *paper* for the using of the word *kirtosun* in Arabic, *dluwang* in Javanese. Another example, we say *chair*, then we can see the object of the word chair. Then the element system reflects the fact that

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language must be systematic. It means that language has rules. In using language, man is always bound with the rules of language, for example the grammatical rule. Sentence at least consists of subject (noun) and predicate (verb). The arrangement of words must be appropriate structurally. It is from subject, followed by predicate plus complement. For example, *he read a historical book in the library*, a correct sentence. But, we cannot say *a library historical book in the read he* because the arrangement of the words is not systematic.

Another definition given by David Crystal, British Linguist, who wrote the definition of language as follows*: The discussion may be summarized by referring to language as human vocal noise (or the graphic representation of this noise in writing) used systematically and conventionally by a community for purposes of communication. (Crystal, 1989: 251).*

From the definition above, we recognize that language is human vocal noise which is systematic and based on the convention. The definition above also shows that communication is the function of language. While R.H. Robins (1990: 12) gives definition of language simplistically. He said that *language is a form of human communication by means of a system of symbols principally transmitted by vocal sounds.*

The last definition is from Wardaugh. He (1977:3) said that *Language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols used by human communication.* From those definitions, inferences can be drawn; language as a system, it contains system of sound and system of meaning. It means that only certain sounds are used by speakers of

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any language. And in another side only combinations of these sounds are possible.

The meaning of word depends on the sound of that word and the meaning of the sentence. It also relates to the arrangement of words' sound in a sentence. For example, the word ''*bank*'', the sound can be *banque* (the sound party like a Frencman), or *nbka* (the sound some kind of tongue twister). The sounds of *banque* and *nbka* have different meaning with the sound of the word *bank*. Then, the arrangement of words in a sentence *'' I saw the bank''* and a sentence *''I bank the saw''* also have different meaning. So, we can conclude that the meaning of something also relates to the sound of something.

The next terms of the definition are arbitrary, vocal, symbols, human, communication. The explanation of the terms arbitrary and symbols can be seen on explanation before. The term vocal in the definitions refers to the fact that the primary medium of language is sound. It means that the standard of human language occurs as a vocal (making sounds with the mouth) type of communication which is perceived by auditory organ. To existence of historical record confirm the fact that writing is based on speaking. Writing is attempted to capture sound and meaning.

So, one of the characteristics of language is vocal or sound. Then, the term human refers to the fact that the kind of system that is possessed only by human beings. Another fact is that the system is very different from other live language. Only human language that has complete features of language, it means that language improves the ability of human being to communicate and differentiate it from

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another creature. The last term of the definition is communication. Language is used for communication. Language allows people to say things to each other and express their communicative needs.

1.2 Origins of Language

How did we get language? When did we get language? And how were the origins of language? There are many answers to the question above. One of the answers tells that language begins from hominid. It is one of Homo but they were not smart like Homo Sapiens. It was happened perhaps 4 or 5 million years ago.

Besides the hominid theory, there are some theories about the origin of language. The first theory is mama theory. This theory claims that language begins from the easiest syllables attached to the most significant objects. Commonly, this theory applies to babies. When they are at four or five months old, they can say billabial sounds, like, pa..pa..pa.., ma..ma..ma.., ba..ba..ba

The second theory is Ta-ta theory. This theory is given by Sir Richard Paget that was influenced by Darwin. He believed that body movement preceded language. Language began as an unconscious vocal imitation of these movements. For example, we wave our right hand, it means that we say good bye, or we refuse something. It evolved into the popular idea that language may have derived from gestures. A gesture is the body language. The third theory is bow-bow theory. This theory states that language begins as imitations of natural sounds, for example the sounds … moo, bang, meow... This is more technically referred to as onomatopoeia or echoism.

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The next theory is *pooh-pooh* theory. The theory explains that language is started with interjections, instinctive emotive cries such as oh! for surprise and ouch! for pain, may be in Indonesia we will find the word "aduh!" for pain and "wow!" for surprise. It is an expression of someone's feeling (self-expression). She/he will say something to express what she/he feels. The fifth theory is ding-dong theory. This theory is introduced by the famous linguist Max Muller. He have pointed out that there is a rather mysterious correspondence between sounds and meanings. It means that certain sounds will produce meanings. For example the sounds from the words *itsy, bitsy, teeny, weeny*, refer to small things, whereas the sound of the word *moon* refers to big things. It is often referred to as sound symbolism.

Besides the theories above, we also know *the hey you theory*. This theory is proposed by a linguist, Revesz. He suggested that we always needed interpersonal contact. The language itself begins as sounds to signal both identity (here I am!) and belonging (I'm with you!). We may also cry out in fear, anger, or hurt (help me!). This is more commonly called the contact theory. The linguist A.S Diamond also contributed his opinion toward the next theory. It is *yo-he-ho theory*. This theory assumes that language contains rhythmic chants, perhaps ultimately from the grunts of heavy work. It usually appears unconsciously. For example, when someone is in cooperation of heavy work and he feels tired, he will say *cut* or *break* unconsciously to stop his work.

The last theory is *the eureka theory*. This theory says that language is consciously invented. It is invented once (monogenesis) or

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it is invented many times (polygenesis). We can take the word thou for the example of monogenesis. Then, the word “thou” will change to the word “you”, it is the example of polygenesis. From the explanation above, it can be seen that language begins from the instinct of human being. In another word, we can say that language is instinctive.

1.3 Design Features of Human Language

Human language has some design features; the first opinion is given by the American Linguist, Charles F.Hocket. He stated that human language has some features; they are interchangeability, productivity and cultural transmission. Interchangeability means that human being can transmit and receive the information. Productivity refers to the ability of human being to change the different message in circumstances concerned or the ability of human being to create new message. And the last feature is cultural transmission. It means that language that we have is particularly associated with human language for one to the other. In another word, we can say that we should learn and adapt to get and to develop our language.

Whereas, according to Wardaugh (1977:26-27), there are eleven features of human language. The first feature is duality. It means that language contains two systems, one of sound and the other of meaning. In this way, the units of sounds can be grouped and regrouped into units of meaning, and then these units of meaning can be grouped and regrouped into an infinite number of sentences.

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The second feature is productivity. This feature refers to the ability of human being to produce or to send message that has never been sent before. The third feature is arbitrariness. It means that there is no connection between symbol and object, for example; the object *paper*, it can be called (*kertas* in Indonesia), (*kirtosun* in Arabic), (*dluwang* in Javanese). Why can the paper be called, *kertas, dluwang* and *kirtosun*? That is arbitrariness; there is no necessary connection between the form of the signal and the thing being referred to. The next feature is interchangeability. It means that the human being can be both a producer and a receiver of message.

The fifth feature is displacement: language can be used to refer to real or imagined matters in the past, present, or future. Language can be used based on the event of the tense. The sixth feature is specialization. This means that the organs used for producing speech are specially adapted to that task. Human being has complete organs of speech like lips, tongue, throat, etc. which are different from animal organs of speech. Dogs, for example, are not physically capable of all of the speech sounds that humans produce, because they lack the necessary specialized organs.

The seventh feature is cultural transmission, which refers to the fact that the language must be learned a new by each speaker. They are not biologically transmitted from generation to generation. The next feature is discreteness. It means that each language has specific characteristic that will make it different from another language, for example English has the sound /θ/ in words *thank* and *think*. Another example is repetition words in madurese like *lon-alon, nak-kanak,*

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reng-oreng. From those examples, Indonesian doesn't have it. Beside the discretness, language has universal characteristics. It is the characteristic that makes it the same as other languages, for example, each language has vocals and consonants, each language has grammatical elements, like phoneme, morpheme, word, phrase, clause and sentence.

The ninth feature is reflexiveness, (we can use language to talk about language or we can say that language can be used to refer to or to describe itself). The tenth is semanticity; language is about something that has meaning, it is not just sound. This means that specific signals can be matched with specific meanings. This is a fundamental aspect of all communication systems. For example, in French, the word *sel* means a white, crystalline substance consisting of sodium and chlorine atoms. The same substance is matched with the English word *salt*. Anyone speaker of these languages will recognize that the signal *sel* or salt refers to the substance of sodium chloride. And the last feature is prevarication; language can be used to tell falsehoods or it can be used to make false statements.

1.4 Functions of Language

Language has important role in our life, but sometimes we do not pay attention to it. We consider that language is an ordinary thing, so we consider that language is not important. We do not realize its existence. According to Bloomfield;

> *Language plays a great part in our life. Perhaps because its familiarity, we rarely observe it, taking it rather for granted, as*

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we do breathing or working. The effects of language are remarkable, and include much of what distinguishes man from animals, but language has no place in our educational program or in the speculations of our philosophers (Bloomfield, 1973: 3)

Based on Bloomfield's statement above, it can be concluded that it has important role in our live. Its importance refers to the function of language. What is the function of language? The general function of language is communication. Communication is derived from the word communicate; to make something known (based on Oxford dictionary). So, we can say, communication is the activity of conveying meaningful information. In this case, communication is not only oral but also written. The term communication, then, can be used to cover most of the functions of language. But the function of language is varied. Based on Jacobson's opinion (www.wikipedia.org), there are six functions of language.

1. Referential function, it refers to the context and attempt to describe a situation and object. e.g. "the spring leaves have all risen now"
2. Expressive function, it is called emotive or affective function. It is identified by interjection and represent speaker's internal state,(self expression) e.g. "Wow, it's amazing!"
3. Conative function, imperatives are the best example of the conative function, e.g "Tom!Come inside and eat!"
4. Poetic function, commonly it is found in poetry and slogan

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5. Phatic function, it relates to the use of language in interaction. It is usually used in greeting and casual discussion particularly with strangers
6. Metalingual function, it focuses on the use of language to discuss or describe itself.

1.5 Some Basic Distinctions of Language

1.5.1 Description and Prescription

Wardaugh said that linguists are concerned with how languages work, not with how they can be improved (if indeed they can be). Linguistics is descriptive. It means, linguists describe and explain features of language without making subjective judgments on whether a particular feature is "right" or "wrong". Descriptive linguistics, observes and records how language actually is used and it is contrasted with prescriptive. Prescriptive approach to language concerned with how the prescriptivist recommends how language should be used. Prescription can apply to most aspects of language: spelling, grammar, semantics, pronunciation and register. The distinction between description and prescription can be seen in the sentences below:

a. What time are you going to go bed?
b. What time are you going to sleep?

From the example above, it can be identified that sentence (a) is prescriptive. It is produced by native speaker or the second language learners who has high competence in English. They produce their sentence based on the rule or the grammar of English. Whereas,

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sentence (b), is produced by the second language learners who has low competence in English or people who don't have knowledge about English.

1.5.2 Synchronic and Diachronic

Language can be analyzed based on the period of time. When we study language at one periode of time, we are looking at it from syncronic point of view. Whereas, when we study language over a period of time, we are looking at it from diachronic point of view. The word *holpen* and *wyf* for example, are used in the past, but now those words are changed into *helped* and *wife*. The another examples are below:

(a) Fit wye div ye ken that …….?

(b) How do you know that …..?

Sentence (a) is used in the past, and sentence (b) is used in present day. Now, when we want to study language with diachronic point of view, we not only take language in this present day but also we should look at the language in the past. In meant that we take two a periode time to analyze language.

1.5.3 Form and Substance

The distinction between form and subtance is the distiction between the system that we devise and the actual data. The system is a theoretical construct; the data are the events in the real world. The distinction between them can be drawn as follows:

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Form	vs	**Substance**
System that we device		the actual data
A theoretical construct		the events in the real word
	Examples	
Noun		girl, betty, cat
Phoneme		p,b,m
Imperative		go out!

1.5.4 **Competence and Performance**

There are some distinctions between a person's knowledge of language (*competence*) and use of it (*performance*). Competence is ability to do something, or knowledge about something, to a certain required or acceptable standard, whereas performance refers to the action, using one's ability or knowledge to do something. It means that performance is the practice of competence. Therefore, language competence means the ability or knowledge to do something by using language. We use language to do the following things: to speak, to write, and to read what other have written or to listen to others when they are speaking.

Summary

Language is a medium or a tool that is used by human to communicate each others. Language has a wide scope. It can be seen in the explaining of language that consists of some points. First point is origin of language. This point explain about how did language begin.

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There are some theories in origin of language such as ma..ma theory, pooh..pooh theory, ta..ta theory, etc. Second point is features of language. These features consist of duality, productivity, interchangeeability, displacement, semanticity, etc. It makes human language differs from animal language. Third point is function of language. Language has two functions, general function and specific function. The last point is distinction of language such as competence and performance, description and prescription, Synchronic and diachronic, form and substance.

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Chapter 2
PHONOLOGY

2.1 Definition of Phonology

In general definition, phonology is the study of sound, but the definition is not simple like that. There are various definitions based on phoneticians. According to Peter (1982: 23) Phonology is the description of the system and pattern of sounds that occurs in a language. Another opinion explains that phonology studies sounds in the context of languages and other speech of varieties (Poole,1999 :55). The next definition is more complete, it states that phonology is the study of the sound system of a language; that is, what sounds are in a language and what the rules are for combining those sounds into larger units. Phonology also refers to the study of the sound systems of all languages, including universal rules of sound in general language.

There are two branches of phonology; phonetics and phonemics. Phonetics is study of speech sound and their production, whereas, phonemics is the study that refers to the phoneme. The words phonetics and phonemics derived the terms etic and emic. *Etic* refers to concepts and categories that have meaning to a scientist but may have little or no meaning to the people being studied. For example, the category *bilabial stop* would not have meaning to most people, but it would to a linguist. In other words, *bilabial stop* has no intrinsic meaning to a speaker. Instead, *bilabial stop* is an extrinsic category used by the linguist for analytic purposes. *Emic* refers to distinctions

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that are meaningful (intrinsic) to the members of a society, such as the distinction between the sounds /b/and /m/ in the words *bat* and *mat*. The /b/and /m/ change the meaning of words if they are substituted for each other. This chapter would not discuss more about all of the phonological parts, it will be limited to phonetics, as a one of the parts of phonology. There are three points in phonetics, articulatory phonetics (the production of speech sound), acoustic phonetics (the study of the physical production and transmission of speech sounds), and auditory phonetics (the study of the perception of speech sounds). As an introduction of phonetics, we just explain about articulatory phonetics.

2.2 Organ of Speech

Before we know how speech sounds are produced, we had better to know the name of organ of speech and its explanation. There are three important areas in speech sounds production; the oral cavity (mouth), the pharyngeal cavity (throat), and the nasal cavity (nose). They are general organs of speech that have function to produce the sounds. They have some parts that we can call them specific organs of speech, such as lips, teeth, tongue, hard palate, velic, velum, pharynx, larynx, glottis (vocal cord), epiglottis, esophagus, and so on. Where are the organs of speech located? We can see the picture of organs of speech below;

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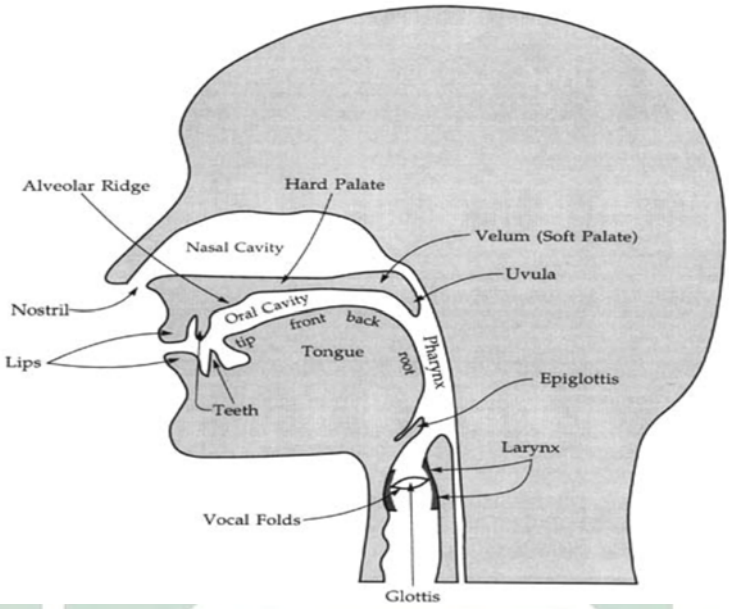

The position of lips is in front of the teeth. Behind the upper teeth is alveolar ridge. It is small protuberance that we can feet with the tip of the tongue. The front part of the roof of the mouth is hard palate. It is like a bony structure. How about soft palate or velum? We cannot touch the soft palate or velum by our tongue, because its place is at the back of the mouth. May be, we can touch it by a finger tip. A small appendage hanging down at the lower end of the soft palate is uvula. The part of the vocal tract between uvula and larynx is the pharynx. The explanation about vocal tract will be explained next. The organ that is attached to the lower part of the root of the tongue is epiglottis.

The term vocal tract also takes important rule in a process of sounds production because the organ of speech or the articulators is the parts of the vocal tract (the air passages above the larynx). Based

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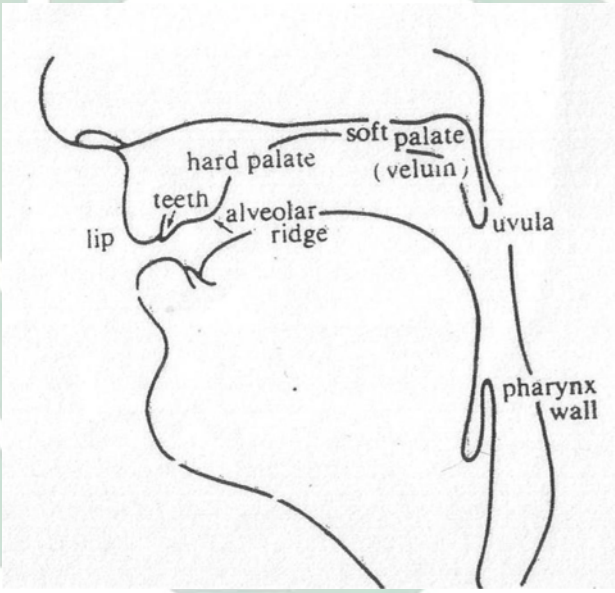
on sound production vocal tract is divided into two kinds, the oral tract and nasal tract. The oral tract is the air passage within the mouth and the pharynx, nasal tract within the nose. Whereas based on its place, oval tract is divided into two places; upper surface of the vocal tract and the lower surface of the vocal tract. Upper surface of the vocal tract includes upper lip, upper teeth, alveolar ridge, hard palate, soft palate/ velum. The lower surface of the vocal tract includes lower lip and the names for parts of the tongue (front, center, back and root). See the pictures from Peter (1982: 3-4) below; the first picture is the principal parts of the upper surface of the vocal tract, and the second picture is the principal parts of the lower surface of the vocal tract.

1.



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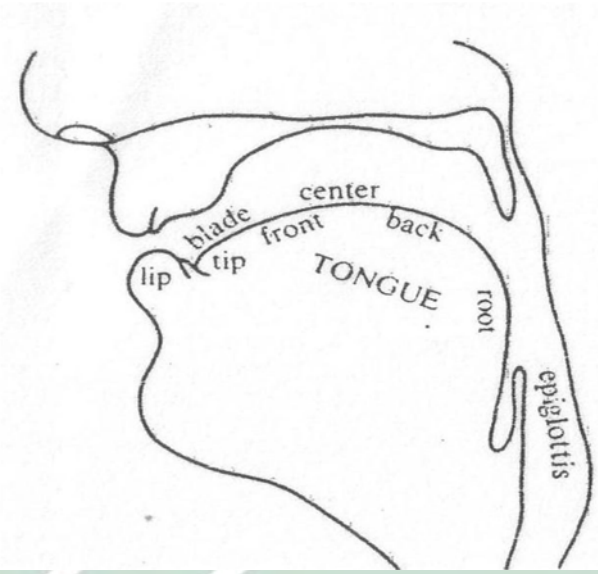

2.

After we know the names of speech's organ, we are going to explain how speech sounds are produced. Air from the lungs goes up the windpipe and into the larynx, at which point it must pass between two small muscular folds called the vocal cords. If the vocal cords are apart, as they normally are when breathing out, the air from the lungs will have a relatively free passage into the larynx and the mouth. But if the vocal cords are adjusted so that there is only a narrow passage between them, the pressure of the airstream will cause them to vibrate. In this process we will find the terms voiced and voiceless. What are they? Voiced is a production of sound when the vocal cords are vibrating. It has opposite term; voiceless is the production of sound in which the vocal cords are apart. To understand easily the differentiation between a voiced and voiceless, we can pronounce the pairs of the words ''fat, vat; thigh, thy; sue, zoo''. The first consonant

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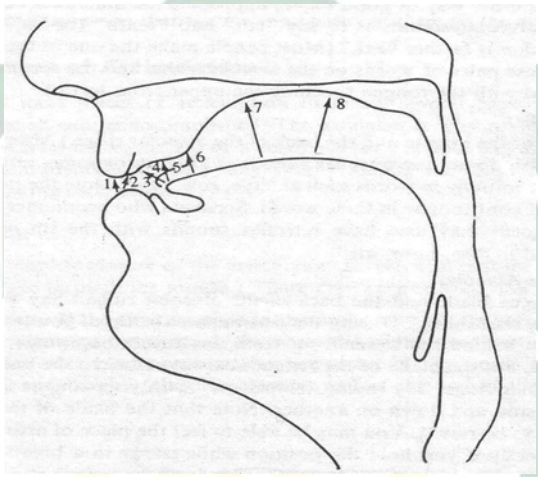
in the first words of each pair is voiceless, whereas in the second word is voiced (Peter, 1982:1-2).

2.3 Place and Manner of Articulation

Consonants can be classified according to the place and manner of this obstruction. Some of the possible places of articulation are indicated by the arrows going from one of the lower articulators to one of the upper articulators; see the picture from Peter (1982:6) below;



1. Bilabial

   We produce the sounds with two lips. In this case, how the lips come together for the first sound in each of the words. It usually appears for the words that have the first sound [m, p, b] such as the words ‘’put, man, but, etc’’.

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2. Labiodental

   We produce the sound with lower lip and upper front teeth. It happens when we say the words that have the first sound [f,v,] for example ‘’fat, vat’’. How do we say it? Raise the lower lip until it nearly touches the upper teeth.

3. Dental

   This process involves the tip of the tongue and upper front teeth. The tip of the tongue touches upper front teeth. We can proof it, when we say the words that have the first sound [θ, ð] such as ‘’thank, than’’.

4. Alveolar

   The process of alveolar is in blade or tongue tip and the alveolar ridge. The symbols of these sounds are [n, t, d, s, z, l]. When we say the words ‘’tie, die, nigh, sigh, ziel, lie’’ which one do you use, using the tip of the tongue or the blade of the tongue. We can answer it after we pronounce the words ‘’ten and tenth’’. The word ‘’ten’’ refers to the alveolar ridge, whereas the word ‘’tenth’’ refers to dental sound with the tongue touching the upper front teeth.

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5. Retroflex

   Native speakers do not have this sounds [r] except for the words ‘’rye, row, ray’’. The retroflex sound appears on the tip of the tongue and the back of the alveolar ridge, for example the words ‘’ire, hour, air ‘’ we pronounce r at the ends of words with the tip of the tongue raised in those words.

6. Palato-Alveolar

   To produce the sounds [ʃ,tʃ,ʒ, dʒ] is in tongue blade and the back of the alveolar ridge for example of the words ‘’ shatter, chatter, seizure, and junk’’. The process of this case is the consonants the tip of the tongue may be down behind the lower front teeth or it may be up near the alveolar ridge, but the blade of the tongue is always close to the back part of the alveolar ridge.

7. Palatal

   When we say the word ‘’you’’, we feel the rush of cold air between the front of the tongue and the hard palate, feel as though consonant at the beginning can be isolated. But, if we say consonant by itself, we feel that the front of the tongue is raised toward the hard palate. In this case, the sound [ʲ] is produced by front of the tongue and hard palate.

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8. Velar

We produce the sounds with back of the tongue and soft palate. When we say the words ‘’ hack, hag, hang’’ we feel that the back of the tongue is raised so that it touches the velum. It can be seen in the words that have in the end of the sounds [ŋ, k, g]. Besides place of articulation, manners of articulation are also important to produce the different meaning in different sounds. There are some kinds of manners of articulation;

1. Stop

The principal manners of articulation are stopping the airstream completely as in stop. There are two kinds of stop, nasal stop and oral stop. Nasal stop will happen when the air stream is stopped in the oral cavity but the soft palate is down, so that it can go out through the nose. It appears in the words that have the first sound /m/ for ‘’map’’ bilabial closure, [n] for ‘’nap’’ alveolar closure and [ŋ] for ‘’sang’’ velar closure.

The process to produce the sounds by oral stop is in additional to the articulatory closure in the mouth, the soft palate is raised so that the nasal tract is block off, and then the air stream will be completely obstructed. When the articulators come apart the airstream will be released in a small burst of sound.

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The oral stop produce the sounds that have consonants in the words ‘’ pin’’ [p], and ‘’bin’’ [b] (bilabial closure), ‘’toe’’ [t], and ‘’doe’’ [d] (alveolar closure), ‘’could’’ [k] and ‘’good’’ [g] (velar closure). The using of the term stop, phonetician usually uses the term stop to indicate an oral stop, and the term nasal to indicate a nasal stop.

2. Fricative

When we say the words that have the sounds at the beginning of ‘’fie’’ [f], and‘’vie’’ [v] (labiodental), ‘’think’’ [θ] and ‘’they’’ [ð] (dental), ‘’sue’’ [s], and‘’zoo’’ [z] (alveolar), and the last ‘’shy’’ [ʃ] are examples of fricative sounds. Those sounds are produce by close approximation of two articulators that the airstream is partially obstructed and turbulent airflow is produced. In this case, we also find the terms sibilants and no sibilants. The narrowing of the vocal tract between the blade of the tongue and the back part of the alveolar ridge is the important thing that refers to the term sibilants. The phonetician usually called sibilants when the higher-pitched sounds with a more obvious hiss, whereas no sibilants are the other.

3. Approximant

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The sounds from the term approximant can be found in the words ‘’yacht’’ [j], ‘’we’’ [w], and ‘’raw’’ [r]. The sounds of approximant appear when an articulation in which one articulator is close to another, but without the vocal tract being narrowed to such an extent that a turbulent airstream is produced. When the front of the tongue is raised toward the palatal area of the roof of the mouth, but it does not come close enough for a fricative sound, we will produce the first sound of the word ‘’yacht’’. How about the consonant in the word ‘’we’’? It can be produced when the approximant between the lips and in the velar region. Whereas, the word ‘’raw’’ is approximant in the alveolar region.

4. Lateral

   The sound lateral will be produced when the airstream passes over each side of the tongue but not over the center. We can proof it, when we say the words that have sound [ʟ] for example ‘’let’’, lay’’. It is usually alveolar lateral approximants.

5. Trill and Flap

   The terms trill and flap are usually used for various languages. Tongue-tip trills occur in some forms of Scottish English, for example the words ‘’ rye’’ and ‘’raw’’. As the tongue tip is tapped to the gum ridge in

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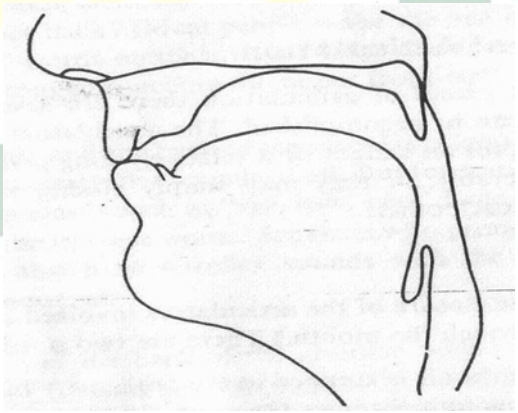
the middle of most North American pronunciation of the word ‘’butter’’ to produce a flab.

From the explanation above, we can conclude that the consonants may be described in terms of five factors: 1). State of the vocal cords (voiced or voiceless), 2) place of articulation, 3) central or lateral articulation, 4) oral sounds or nasal sounds, 5) manner of articulation action. We can give the example of the word ‘’sing’’. The consonant at the beginning of the word ‘’sing’’ is a voiceless, alveolar, central, oral and fricative, and the consonant at the end of the word ‘’sing’’ is a voiced, velar, central, nasal and stop. In point 3 and 4 are usually left out so, in simply we can say that the consonant at the beginning of the word ‘’sing’’ is voiceless alveolar fricative, and the consonant at the end of the word ‘’sing’’ is a voiced velar nasal. See the example picture of manner of articulation (Peter, 1982:8-10) below;

1. 

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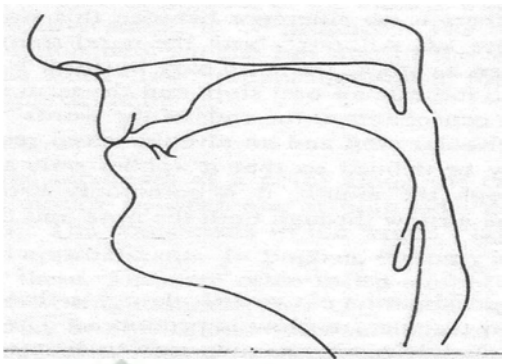
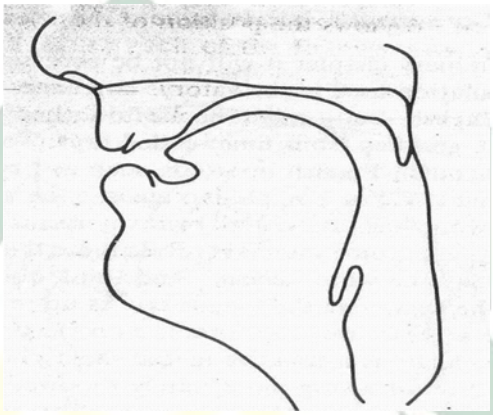
2. 

3. 

From the pictures above, we can see that number 1 and 2 are rather the same, because those pictures belong to stop, for number 1 is nasal stop (the position of the vocal organ during the bilabial nasal, for example the word '*map*'), number 2 is oral stop (the position of the vocal organs in the bilabial stop, for example the word '*bin*'. While the picture number 3 is different from the others, because it belongs to fricative, the position of the lips is opened, such as the word '*shy*'' (the position of the vocal organs in the palato-alveolar fricative).

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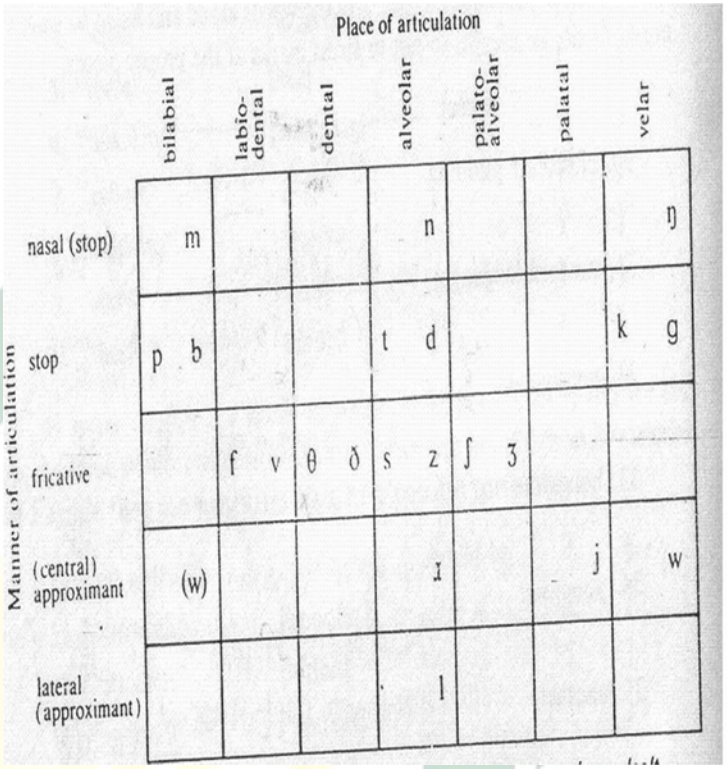
The explanations of consonants above belong to English British. We can see consonants chart that is wrote by Peter (1982:33) below. This chart is formed by combination between place and manner of articulation.



Manner of articulation \ Place of articulation	bilabial	labio-dental	dental	alveolar	palato-alveolar	palatal	velar
nasal (stop)	m			n			ŋ
stop	p b			t d			k g
fricative		f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ		
(central) approximant	(w)			ɹ		j	w
lateral (approximant)				l			

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Whereas, based on International Phonetics Alphabet there are some consonants that used by the other languages in this world, for example palato alveolar sound that is usually used by British linguist,with symbols [ʃ,tʃ,ʒ, dʒ]. It is different from palato alveolar that is used in United Stated, that represent by [š, č, ž, ǰ]. Another case, Roman language, lateral sound is symbolized with [ʎ]. Bilabial fricative [ʙ] is a feature of the sound system of Spanish, and so on. The chart below is place and manner of articulation based on International Phonetics Alphabet;

CONSONANTS (PULMONIC)

	Bilabial	Labiodental	Dental	Alveolar	Postalveolar	Retroflex	Palatal	Velar	Uvular	Pharyngeal	Glottal
Plosive	p b			t d		ʈ ɖ	c ɟ	k g	q ɢ		ʔ
Nasal	m	ɱ		n		ɳ	ɲ	ŋ	N		
Trill	ʙ			r					ʀ		
Tap or Flap				ɾ		ɽ					
Fricative	ɸ β	f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ	ʂ ʐ	ç ʝ	x ɣ	χ ʁ	ħ ʕ	h ɦ
Lateral fricative				ɬ ɮ							
Approximant		ʋ		ɹ		ɻ	j	ɰ			
Lateral approximant				l		ɭ	ʎ	ʟ			

Where symbols appear in pairs, the one to the right represents a voiced consonant. Shaded areas denote articulations judged impossible.

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MANNER		Place of Articulation						
		Labial	Labiodental	Interdental	Alveolar	Alveo-palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stop	*voiceless*	p pill			t till		k kill	ʔ uh-oh
	voiced	b bill			d dill		g gill	
Flap/Tap	*voiceless*				ɾ butter			
Fricative	*voiceless*		f fine	θ thin	s ship	š / ʃ pressure		h hill
	voiced		v vine	ð then	z zip	ž / ʒ pleasure		
Affricate	*voiceless*					č / tʃ choke		
	voiced					ǰ / dʒ joke		
Nasal	*voiced*	m simmer			n sinner		ŋ singer	
Approximant	*voiced*	w wore			r roar	y your		
Lateral	*voiced*				l lore			

http://darkwing.uoregon.edu/~l150web/conson.html

Articulation is not only on consonant, but also on vowel sounds. In the vowel sounds the air stream passage is relatively unobstructed. Vowels include; 1) the height of the body of the tongue (high back vowel and a low back vowel), 2) the front - back position of the tongue (front vowel and back vowel), and 3) the degree of lip rounding (rounded and unrounded). It will easy to understand, if we look the examples as follows; when we say the word ‘’*heed* ‘the highest point of the tongue is in front of the mouth, so it can be called front vowel. Then, the tongue is fairly close to the roof of the mouth.

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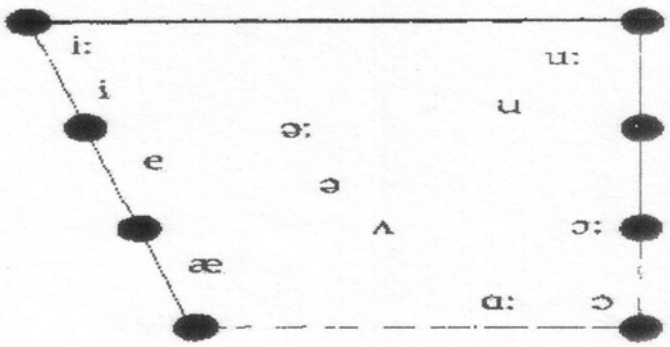
When we say ‘’*heed*’’, slightly less close for the vowel in ‘’*hid*’’. The vowel ‘’*heed*’’ is classified as a high front vowel, and the vowel in ‘’*hid*’’ is a low mid vowel. How about the words *‘’food’’, ‘’father’’* and *‘’good’’*? The word ‘’*food*’’, the body of the tongue is highest, so it is called a high back vowel. The word ‘’*father*’’ has position lowest in the first vowel, so it is called a low back vowel. And the vowel of word ‘’*good*’’ is a mid back vowel. How about the example of the term rounded and unrounded. When we say ‘’*who*’’ the position of our lips are rounded, and when we say ‘’*heed*’’ the position of our lips are unrounded. See the chart of the vowels below;

Hight front *cental* *back*



Low

There are some opinions of vowels writing in English British, for example the use of vowel (i) and (I). It is different from (i) and (i:). The writer uses the vowel symbol that is wrote by Daniel Jones. According to him, there are twelve simple vowels of Standard British English:

/i:/ as in least / ɜ:/ as in learn /u:/ as in Luke

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/i/ as in list	/ ə/ as in the	/u/ as in look
/e/ as in less	/ ʌ/ as in cup	/ ɔ:/ as in lord
/ æ/ as in lass	/ ɑ:/ as in last	/ ɔ/ as in lost

From the examples above, we can see a vowel / ə /. It is unstressed vowel in English. It can be called *schwa*. There are some systems in the use of vowels symbol. The first linguists who have opinions of vowels symbol are Charles C. Fries and Kenneth L. Pike, (Fries-Pike system).

The second opinion is from George L.Trager and Henry Lee Smith, (Trager-Smith system). They have different systems in interpretation of the use vowels symbol, for example, the word ‘’*bet*’’ based on Fries-Pike, we can pronounce it /bɜ/, whereas according to Trager-Smith /bet/ and so on.

Besides consonants and vowels, Standard English British also represents about diphthongs. According to Daniel Jones, there are eight diphthongs in English, for example;

/iə/ as in dear, here, near, hear, gear, etc.
/ei/ as in day, take, cake, case, etc.
/ɛə/ as in care, there, where, etc.
/uə/ as in sure, tour, cure, etc.
/ou/ as in throw, grow, etc.
/ ɔi/ as in toy, boy, joy, employ, noise, etc.
/ai/ as in tie, white, mind, time, find, right, etc.
/au/as in ground, town, snow, hound, etc.

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Summary

Some linguists said that the first language is from spoken not written. The term spoken has relation to sound. Phonology is the study of sound. Sound can be produced by the organ of speech such as speech, such as lips, teeth, tongue, hard palate, velic, velum, pharynx, larynx, glottis, etc. Process of sound production is air from the lungs goes up the windpipe and into the larynx, at which point it must pass between two small muscular folds called the vocal cords. If the vocal cords are apart, as they normally are when breathing out, the air from the lungs will have a relatively free passage into the larynx and the mouth. But if the vocal cords are adjusted so that there is only a narrow passage between them, the pressure of the airstream will cause them to vibrate. In this case we will find the terms voiced and voiceless. Voiced is a production of sound when the vocal cords are vibrating, while voiceless is the production of sound in which the vocal cords are apart.

The next discussion in phonology is place and manner of articulation. Place of articulation is where the sounds are produced. It includes bilabial, laboidental, dental, retrovlex, palato- alveolar, palatal, and velar. While, manner of articulation is the way or process to produce the sound. It includes stop, fricative, approximant, lateral, trill and flap. The last discussion is about vowel and diphthong. Vowel in English consists of /i:/, / ə:/, /u:/ ,/i/,/ ə/,/u/, /e/, / ʌ/, / ɔ:/, / æ/, / ɑ:/, / ɔ/. English is also have diphthongs such as /iə/, /ei/, /ɛə/, /uə/,/ou/, / ɔi/,/ai/, /au/.

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Chapter 3
MORPHOLOGY

3.1 Definition of Morphology

The etymology of the term morphology is from Greek; morph- means shape, form and morphology is the study of forms. In biology, morphology refers to the study of the configuration and evolution of land form or study of the forms of plants and animals, and in geology it refers to the study of the configuration and evolution of land forms. The first time (1859) a linguist from German August Schleicher took morphology into linguistics, it refers to the study of the form of words. In the next development, the term morphology refers to the study of the internal structure of words, and of the systematic form-meaning correspondences between words.

3.2 Words and Grammar; Lexemes, Word Forms and Grammatical Words.

Before we discuss more about a word, we had better know the definition of a word. Word is the basic unit of language. Language has some elements, from word to discourse, so word is the basic element to build a discourse. Another opinion states that words are meaningful building-blocks of language (Carstairs: 2002:4). It means that each word has a meaning. Meaning is the important things in language, because of meaning we can communicate each other. If the words are arranged well, it will have perfect meaning in a sentence. We can communicate each other not only by using sentences but also using

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words, such as *go! Ok!.* Although *go* and *ok* are words, they can be used to communicate because they have meanings.

The other forms of word are lexeme. Lexemes are the vocabulary items that are listed in the dictionary (Di Sciullo and William, 1987).Usually, lexemes will be written in capital letter, for example WOMAN, SING, WRITE, CUT, SELL, GO, WALK, etc. So, when you find the word 'walking' and you look up in the dictionary, you would not find it. Maybe, you will find it, but it is different manifestation. You should look up the word 'WALK' because it is the lexeme of the word form 'walking'. The lexeme WALK has some word forms, there are walks, walked, walking. Word-form is the differences of the word's appearance. All these words contain suffixes; walk-s, walk-ed, and walk-ing are dependent on the grammatical context.

3.3 Morphemes, Morphs and Allomorphs

Morpheme is the smallest difference in the shape of a word that correlates with the smallest difference in word or sentence meaning or in grammatical structure (Katamba, 1993: 24). In simple definition; morphemes are the smallest unit of meaning. A morpheme may consist of a word, such as *walk*, or a meaningful piece of a word, such as the *–ed* of *looked*, that cannot be divided into smaller meaningful parts. In morpheme, we will find the term 'morph'. The term 'morph' is sometimes used to refer specifically to the phonological realization of a morpheme. Whereas, Katamba stated that morph is a physical form representing some morphemes in a language. For example, the

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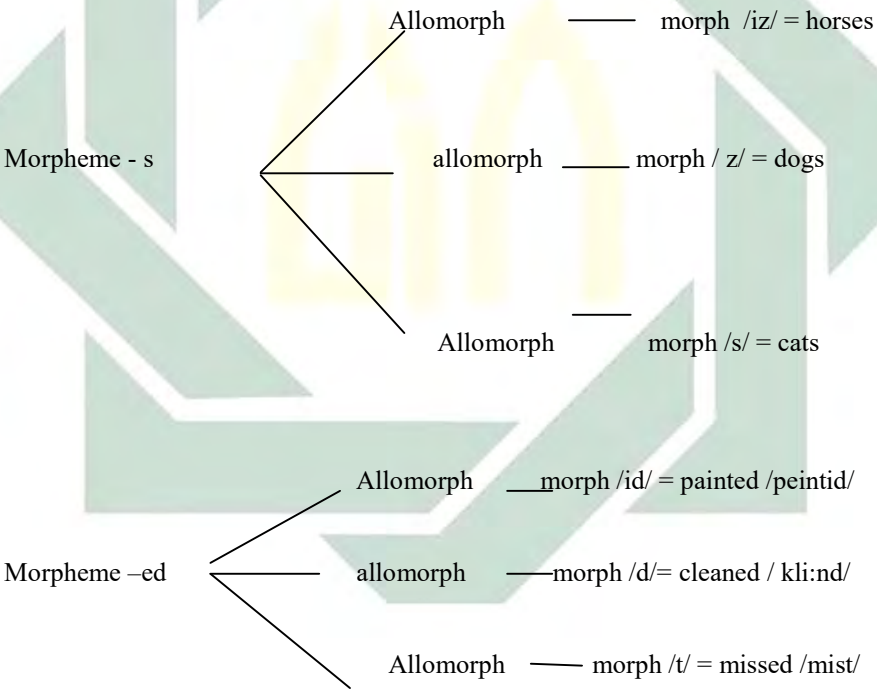
English past tense morpheme that we spell *-ed* has various morphs. It is realized as [t] after the voiceless [p,s] of *jump and miss* (*jumped, missed*), as [d] after the voiced [l,n] of *repel and clean* (*repelled, cleaned*), and as [*i*d] after the voiceless [t] of *pain* or the voiced [d] of *wed* (painted and *wedded*). The examples above refer to verb. How about another morph in part of speech, such as the sentence '' She washes her clothes''. The morph of the morphemes above are /ʃi:/, /wɒʃiz/, /hə/, /kləʊz/. From that example, we found morpheme –es has two morph /iz/ and /z/. We can also call these morphs **allomorphs** or **variants**. Allomorphs are the different morphs that represent the same morpheme, and they are grouped together of that morpheme. The relation between morphemes, allomorphs and morphs can be represented using a diagram in the following way:



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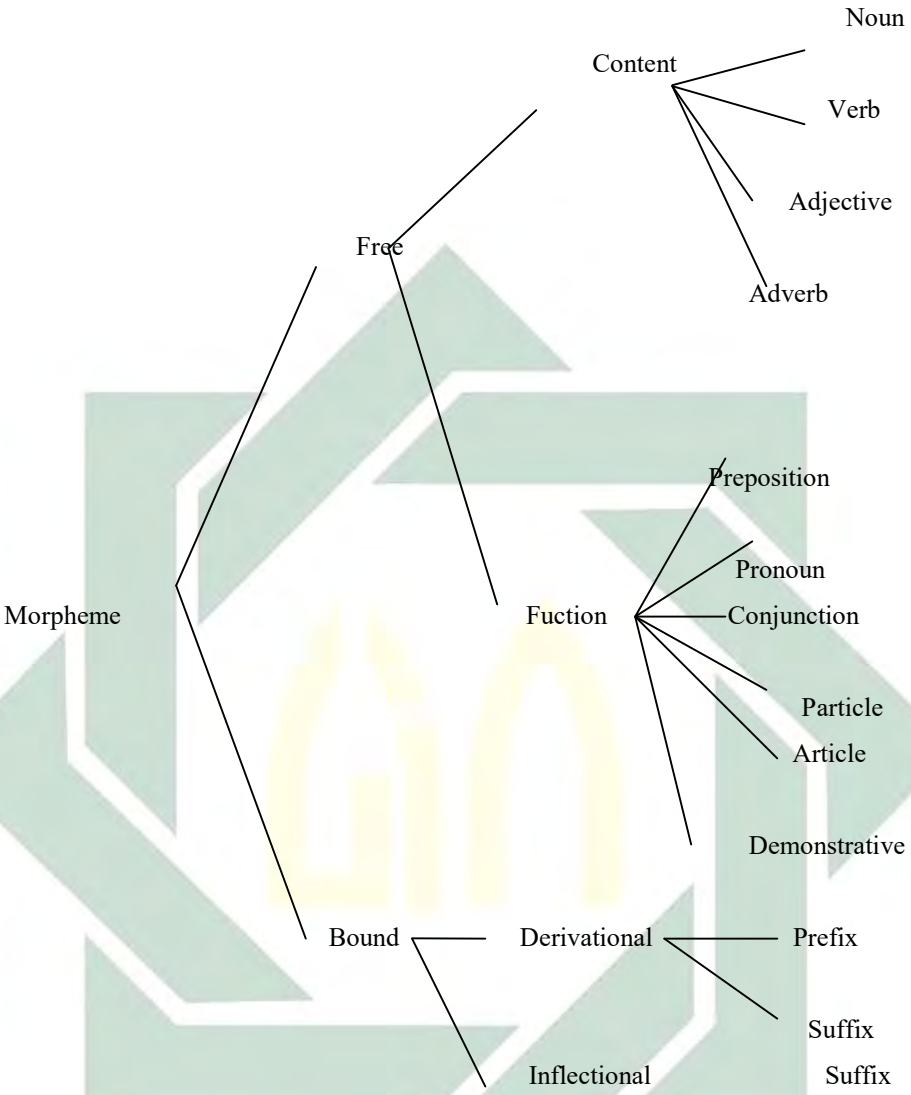
3.4 Diagram of Morpheme



There are two kinds of morpheme, free and bound morpheme. Free morphemes are those which may be uttered in isolation. It can stand on their own or able to stand independently. It always consists of a root. The root is the primary lexical unit of a word or the core of

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word. It cannot be reduced into smaller constituents. For example the word man, girl, table, very, tall, walk, jump, etc.

Free morpheme can be divided into two kinds; content and function morphemes. Content morpheme or we can call it lexical morpheme or open class word is a morpheme that can change according to the grammatical view. It carries most of the content of a sentence and it has a meaning that can be understood fully in and of itself. Content morpheme includes nouns (boy, tree, man, chair, etc), verbs (walk, go, see, sing, etc), adjectives beautiful, lazy, fast, long, etc), and adverbs (in time, quickly, kindly, just, too, etc). Many others of free morphemes are function word or grammatical word or closed class word. Function word expresses syntactic relationships between units in a sentence, generally performs some kind of grammatical role. It has function to build meaningful sentence but, the meaning can be understood completely only when they occur with other words in a sentence. Typical function words include prepositions (in, on, under, at, between, ect), pronouns (he-him, she-her, we-us, etc), conjunctions (but, and, because, etc), articles (a, an, the, etc), quantifier (some, all, etc.) particle (if, then, well, however, etc) and demonstratives (that, these, this, those, etc). The differentiation between lexical and functional can be seen as follows;

	Lexical	**Functional**
Words	Verb, Noun, Adj, Adv	Prep, Pronoun, Conj, Art,

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		quantifier, Demons.
Morphemes	Roots	Affixes

After, we know the differentiation between lexical and functional words, and then we have to know what functions do functional categories have? The answer is; *determiners* (D); *the* tree, *a* tree, *some* trees, *all* trees: Determiners can be said to determine the range of things to which a noun refers *prepositions* (P); the cat *under* the sofa , *under* relates *cat* and *sofa.* a student *of* linguistics, *of* relates *student* and *linguistics*. Prepositions can be said to relate two things to each other, etc. These categories have functions like glue, in that they link other words or groups of words together, or like pointers, which link new information to the context.

Another kind of morpheme is bound morpheme. Bound morphemes never occur in isolation, because it cannot stand in their own. There are two kinds of bound morphemes; derivational and inflectional morphemes. Derivational morpheme covers affixes, which are prefixes and suffixes. Another side of suffixes is covered in inflectional morpheme. Prefixes are added to the beginning of another morpheme; suffixes are added to the end. The differentiation between derivational and inflectional morphemes can be seen in the box below;

Derivational	**Inflectional**

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➢ Listed in the dictionary ; *formal, happiness* ➢ Not required by syntax	➢ Not listed in the dictionary ➢ Required by syntax (subject-verb agreement is very important in syntax, because it is the rule of grammar)eg; she goes * she go
➢ May have an irregular meaning (the meaning of the word can change according the suffixes that are added.	➢ Always have a regular meaning (the meaning of the word is not changed, the changing just based on the tense)
➢ Usually not productive (not every verb can be added by the same prefixes or suffixes; *dislike, *dishate*) ➢ Change the part of speech or the meaning of a word; (V□□□□work□worker□□□ V□□dj□□form□formal,(Adj □Verb)formal□formalize (Adj□Noun)weak □weakness	➢ Very productive (every verb can be added by the same suffixes; *sings-walks, cleaned- talked)* ➢ Do not change part of speech or meaning of a word, just add extra grammatical information; verb:walk;walks, walked, walking Noun:cat; cats, cat's(possessive) Adj :low; lower, lowest

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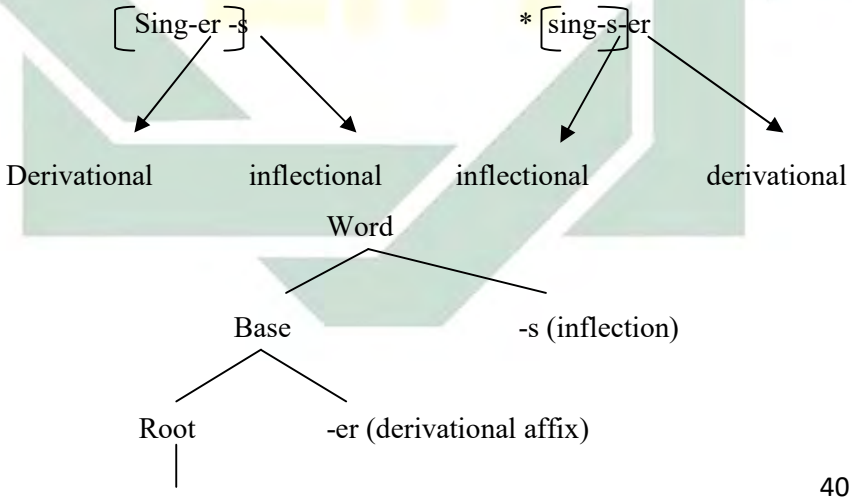
➢ Some derivational affixes; -un, -ful, -ly, -er, -ness, -ship, -al, en-, -able, -ish.	➢ Some inflectional suffixes; Suffix Function Suffix Function *-s* 3rd per. *–s* pl. *-ed* past *-'s* poss. *-ing* prog *-er* comp. *-en* past.partc *-est* super.

The combination between root and inflectional morpheme can be called stem, whereas the combination between root and derivational or inflectional morpheme can be called bases. Bases are called stems only in the context of inflectional morphology. We can take the example; root *boy* can be a base since it can have attached to it inflectional affixes like –s to form the plural *boys* or derivational affixes like *–ish* to turn the noun *boy* into the adjective *boyish*. From the explanation above it can be seen that morphemes according to its function and position are free and bound morpheme, whereas morpheme which according to its process are derivational and inflectional morpheme.



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3.5 Process of Word Formation

a. Immediate Constituent

It is a process of word formation that is begun from the root, stem/base to word. A stem is rarely used in this process because stem refers to the tense. We can see the example of immediate process below;

b. Meaningful Combination

Meaningful combination is a process of word formation that stresses on the word's meaning. In this case, a meaning took important role in word formation, such as the word 'disgraceful'. It is derived from two words '*disgrace* and *ful* or *dis* and *graceful*. These two words above have different meaning, disgrace (cause shame), graceful (showing a pleasing beauty movement).

c. Class Distribution

The process of word formation is based on its part of speech. Usually it consists of more than one part of speech in a word, such us the example below;

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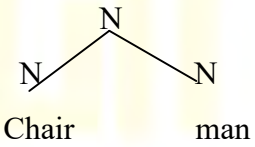
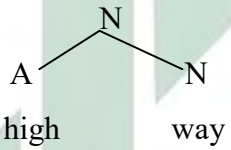
There are three word classes or compound word in this process; endocentric, exocentric and nuclear (root). Endocentric is a word that consists of the same two parts of speech, for example the word *headmaster*. It consists of two word *head* and *master*. These words are nouns. The next kind is exocentric, it is opposite to endocentric. It has different part of speech in a word, for example the word highway; this word has two different parts of speech, high (adjective) and way (noun). The last kind of compound word is nuclear. It is a word that consists of two root, such as the word chairman; chair and man. Compound word not only consists of two root, but also it can consist of two bound root (electrolysis, microscopy, echinoderm, clarity, etc), one bound and one free root (microfilm, electrometer, cranberry, etc). Usually compounds often have a hierarchical structure;

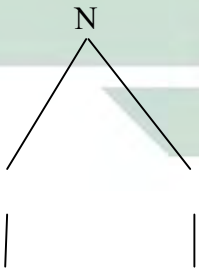
a. N N(chairman)



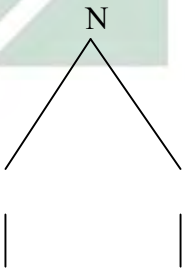
b.A N(highway)



c.N



d. N



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Bound	bound	bound	free
Echio	derm	electro	meter

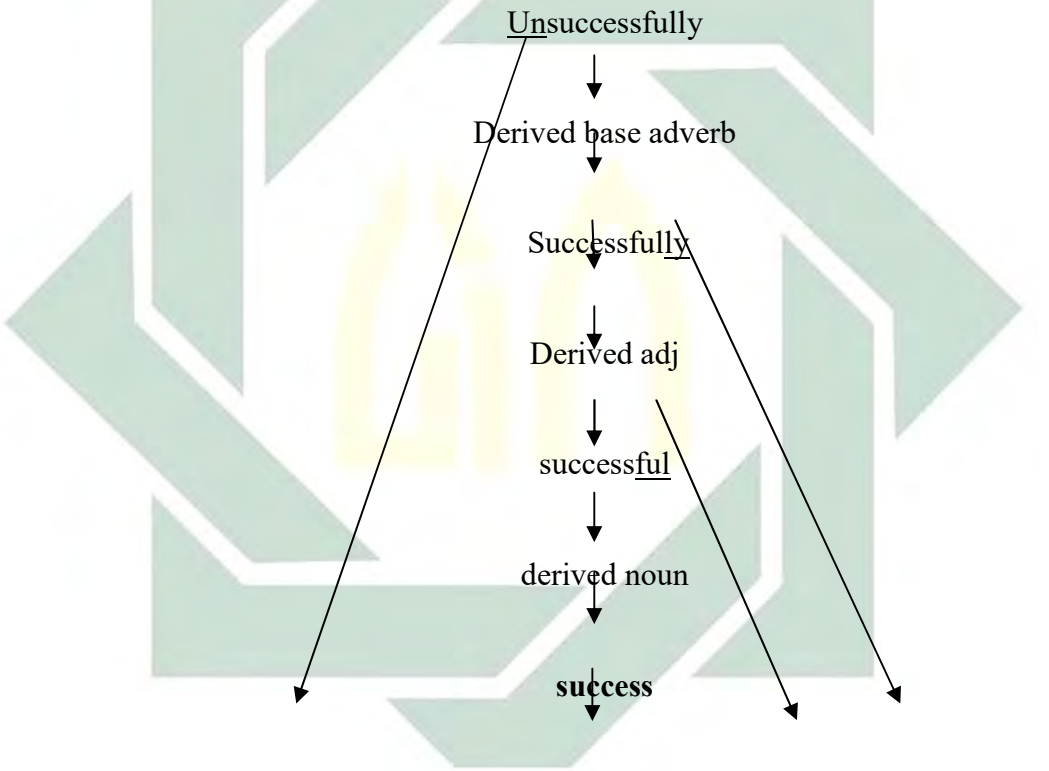
d. Label Bracket

This process is close to syntax. The purpose of this process is to analyze the word and its parts. We can see the example of this process as follows;

N [adv [dis v [agree] v] adv ment] N

e. Branching Structure

As the label bracket, branching structure also analyzes the word based on the elements in that word.



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Summary

Sounds can be combined in a word. Word is the smallest unit of language. It means that we can communicate with others only by a word. Word also has structure. Morphology is the study of word's structure or word's formation. The first point in morphology is word and grammar. It consists of word itself, lexeme word form and grammatical word. The other forms of word are lexeme. Lexemes are the vocabulary items that are listed in the dictionary. Word-form is the differences of the word's appearance. While grammatical word is word that has relation to the tense. The second point is relation among morpheme, morph and allomorph. Morpheme is the smallest unit of meaning. Morph is a physical form representing some morphemes in a language. Allomorph is the different morphs that represent the same morpheme, and they are grouped together of that morpheme.

Morpheme has a wide scope. It can be divided into two kinds; free and bound morpheme. Free morpheme is a morpheme that can stand alone. It is also divided into two kinds; content (noun, adjective, verb, adverb) and function (preposition, conjunction, particle, pronoun, article and demonstrative). While, bound morpheme is a morpheme that cannot stand alone. It consists of derivational (prefix and suffix) and inflectional (suffix). The last point is process of word formation. There are some processes of word formation such as immediate constituent, meaningful combination, class distribution, label bracket and branching structure.

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Chapter 4
SYNTAX

4.1 Definition of Syntax

In chapter 3 we discussed morphology, the structure of word. After we know the structure of word, then we have questions ‘’how do we use the words in a communication? We can use the words in a phrase, clause and sentence. Then the next question is, how words are put together to build phrases, clauses then sentences? These questions will be answered in syntax. Now, what is syntax? Robert (2001: 1) said that syntax deals with how sentences are constructed and user of human language employs a striking variety of possible arrangement of the elements in sentences. In English, for example the subject comes before the verb and the direct object follows the verb.

Another definition states that syntax is the rules of grammar for the arrangement of words into phrases and of phrases into sentences (Oxford Dictionary: 1212). In this case, the arrangement of words is stressed in syntax. Before we arrange the words into phrase, clause and sentence, we have to know the word classes first, then constituent structure and the last clause and sentence.

4.2 Lexical Categories/ Word Classes

Word classes are the basic elements in syntax. Traditionally, word classes are known as part of speech. The word that refers to the name of something around us is noun. Noun can be classified into proper noun (the name of specific person, place or thing; Japan, Taj

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Mahal, William, etc), mass noun (the name of thing that cannot be counted but can be weighted or measured; a cup of tea, a kilo of sugar, etc), common noun (the name of a class of subjects; tree, moon, sun, month, etc), abstract noun (names a quality, idea, condition, activity; kindness, purity, loyalty, etc), and so on. Nouns are generally accompanied by a determiner, something which helps to identify what is being referred to. It has function as noun markers to clarify what the meaning amount of noun. In English, determiners include article (the, a, an), demonstratives (that, this, etc) possessives (my, your, his, her, its, our, their), quantifier (a few, some, much, many, any, etc), number (one, ten, thirty, etc), distributives (all, both, half, neither, every, etc), defining words (which, whose, that).

The next word class is verb. It is a word that expresses action, being, or a state of being. There are some kinds of verbs; transitive verb (a verb that is followed by an object), intransitive verb (a verb that is not followed by an object), and so on. Besides noun and verb, words classes also include adjective (a word that defines or describes a noun; beautiful, tall, smooth, etc), and adverb (a word that modifies a verb, usually consist of adverb of manner, place, frequently, time). In syntax we also find pronoun (a word that can take the position of noun, it can be subject, object, possessive, independent; I, you, we, him, her, us, my, your, its, hers, ours, theirs) that can replace subject and object. We also need preposition to create meaningful sentence. Pronoun is a word that has little meaning in dictionary but has important meaning in a sentence; in, on, under, above, etc. Conjunction also has important role in a sentence. It has function to

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connect words, phrases or clauses in a sentence; and, but, for, or, although, because, etc.

4.3 Phrase, Clause and Sentence

The arrangement of words can be a phrase, clause or sentence. In this case, phrase will be discussed first. Phrase is a group of words without verb. It has some kinds. There are noun phrase, verb phrase, adjective phrase, adverb phrase and prepositional phrase. Noun phrase is made up of a noun and all its modifiers. Its function is as a noun in a sentence.

The structure of noun phrase is determiner + modifier + Head (N). Modifier which occurs before noun is called pre-modifiers, whereas modifier which occurs after noun is called post-modifier. Pre-modifiers can be determiners, adjectives or other nouns. It can function in a sentence as a subject, an object, or a complement and noun phrase can be compound such as these examples; a) Noun phrase as subject ‘’ *a smart student study hard*’’; a (det.), smart (pre-mod.adj), student (head). b). Noun phrase as object ‘’*He is a university student’’*; a (det), university (pre.-mod. Noun) , student (head). c). Noun phrase as complement ‘’ *A broken bridge in Tenggarong is a hot news recently’’*; a (det), hot (pre.mod.adj), news (head), recently (post. Mod Adv.). d). Noun phrase can be compound *‘’ The small sweet manggo’’*; the (det), smal (adj), sweet (adj.), manggo (head); *‘’some beautiful expensive pictures’’*; some (det.), beautiful (adj.), expensive (adj.), pictures (head).

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The second type of phrase is verb phrase. Verb is a word that expresses action, being or state of being. Phrase is a phrase that consists of verbs which can be lexical, auxiliary, or modal. The structure of verb phrase usually the modal comes first, and then the auxiliary or several auxiliaries, and finally the lexical (main) verb, for example *The bag will have been buying by the boy*. There are some optional features in a verb phrase; a modal verb (will), the verb have to express perfect, the verb be to express progressive and the verb be to express passive. But, verb phrase is not always use a modal, but sometime it appears without modal, it has relation to the tense, for example the students have studied hard this week. The verb phrase here is *have* (perfect) *studied* (lexical verb). The function of verb phrase change the meaning of verb based on the tense or the structure of verb phrase itself.

The third type of phrase is adjective phrase. Before we know the definition of verb phrase, we had better to know the term adjective first. Adjective is a word that limits, defines, characterizes, or describes a noun or pronoun. Adjective phrase has function like adjective. It can modify a noun or pronoun (the very handsome boy run quickly), predicate of the sentence (the cakes smell deliciously sweet), and also modify objects and will follow the word they are modifying (my new house makes me very comfortable). The next type of phrase is adverb phrase. The head word is an adverb. Adverb is a word that modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. Adverb phrase is a group of words that function adverbially, for example; *He*

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came to my room very recently. Please..go from here! The words that are underline is adverb phrase.

The last type of phrase is prepositional phrase. Preposition is a word that indicates place, time, manner, direction, possession, purpose, reason, and motion. There are some signal of preposition; after, before, between, to, of, during, with, until, since, opposite, etc. usually the common preposition that indicates the location of things, for example in, on, at, beside, etc. Preposition is placed before a noun or a pronoun. Prepositional phrase is a phrase that consist of a preposition combines with its complement. Another opinion said that a prepositional phrase is a group of words containing a preposition, a noun or pronoun object of the preposition, and any modifiers of the object. We can see some examples as follows; some toys of little boy are in the box. The underline words are preposition phrase.

The next a group of words is clause. A clause is a group of words that consists of subject and predicate. There are two kinds of clause, dependent clause and independent clause. Dependent clause is a clause that cannot stand alone. It must be combined with an independent clause. Independent clause is a clause that can stand alone as a sentence. If we find two independent clauses in a sentence, it can be connected by correlative conjunction (not only …but also), a coordinating conjunction (and), a conjunctive adverb (in fact), and semicolon (;).

Dependent clauses can be used as a noun, adverb and adjective (relative) clauses. Noun clause is a clause that has function as a subject, subject complement, direct object, or object of a complement

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in a sentence. It cannot stand alone and always as a noun. It also begins with a relative pronoun (who, that, which, what, whatsoever, whomever, whoever) and subordinating conjunctions (why, when, where, whether and how). We can see the example of noun clause as follow, what she reads is a popular novel. The words that are underline are a noun clause as a subject.

The next clause is adverb clause. It usually modifies verb. An adverb clause begins with a subordinating conjunction and includes a subject and a predicate. It is classified according to their meaning, for example adverbial clauses of reason (because), time (when), concession (although), manner (as) or condition (if). One of the examples as follow, *when John came home, he saw his dog in front of the door*.

The last of the arrangement of words is a sentence. Sentence is the arrangement of words that at least consists of a subject (noun) and a predicate (verb). There are four types of sentences; simple, compound, complex and compound-complex sentences. Simple sentence or it can be called independent clause is a sentence that consists of subject and predicate and or complement, for example; *The boy walks*; *The children play football at the backyard*. Compound sentence is a sentence that consists of two or more independent clauses. Independent clauses in this sentence need conjunction to make the right sentence. The conjunctions in this case are called coordinating conjunctions in example or, but, nor, and, yet, etc. The example of compound sentences as follow; *Joe is a rich man but his*

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younger brother is a poor man; Ann invited her friends and gave them some gifts.

The next type of sentence is a complex sentence. It contains an independent clause and one or more dependents clauses. A complex sentence needs a conjunction that is called a subordinating conjunction such as *since, because, when, although or after, as long as, since, until, unless* etc. The sentence as follows is a complex sentence *I kept my bag well before it lost*. The last type of sentence is compound-complex sentence. It is a combination of compound sentence and complex sentence. It should contain two or more independent clauses and one or more dependent clauses: *My teacher explained, how language is learned, and we practiced it in our class.*

Resume

From the explanation above, we can take summary that syntax is the study of the arrangement of words in the sentence or we can say the study of sentence's structure. Scope of syntax consist of; first, lexical categories or part of speech. It includes noun, verb, adjective and adverb. The second, phrase (a group of words without verb: noun phrase, verb phrase, adjective phrase, adverb phrase and prepositional phrase), clause (a group of words that consists of subject and predicate; dependent clause and independent clause), and sentence (arrangement of words that at least consists of a subject (noun) and a predicate (verb); simple, compound, complex and compound-complex sentences).

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Chapter 5
GENERATIVE TRANSFORMATIONAL GRAMMAR

5.1 Constituents and Patterns

There are some important terms in constituent and patterns. Before we know the explanation of constituents and patterns, we had better know the structure of constituent. They are head, modifier, complement and adjunct. The first step is what are the definition of head and modifier? What is the relation between them? Usually in a phrase, we find the word that is controlled by the other word and the word that controls the other word. The word that is controlled by the other word is a head, and the word that controls the other word is modifier. We can analyze a phrase in a sentence as follows based on a head and modifier, *I saw a beautiful girl last night*. *A beautiful girl* is a noun phrase. The head word is noun *girl*, so we can say that head is word which is explained. The modifiers here are *a* and *beautiful*. Article ‘’a’’ and the adjective word ‘’ beautiful’’ explained the head girl.

We have to remember that modifiers include determiners (article, demonstrative, possessive, and quantifiers) and adjective. Besides that, modifier can be divided into two kinds, obligatory modifiers (complement) and optional modifiers (adjunct). Complement is a modifier that must appear in a sentence. In English, complement includes transitive verb (*she eats an apple*), intransitive verb (he *run* fastly) and helping verb (*they are students*).

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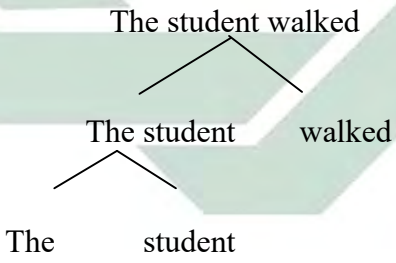
Adjunct is an optional modifier. It means that it may or may not in a sentence because it is a part of a sentence that, when it is removed or it disappeared, it would not affect the structure of its sentence. See the example; *My mother bought some vegetables for her sister* *in the market* *last night*. There are two adjuncts in the sentence above; *in the market* as an adjunct of place, *last night* as an adjunct of time.

After we know the explanation of constituent's structure, now we are going to know what are constituents and patterns. There are some items in constituents and patterns; constituents and constructions, construction types, hierarchies of contractions and sentence patterns.

5.1.1 Constituents and Constructions

According to Wardhaugh (1977:90) Constituent is group of words that appears at the bottom of one of the lines in diagrams. Then, when two constituents are joined together by two lines in a diagram, these constituents are said to be in construction with each other, or we can say that construction is a relationship between constituents. We can see the explanation of constituent and patterns in the example below;



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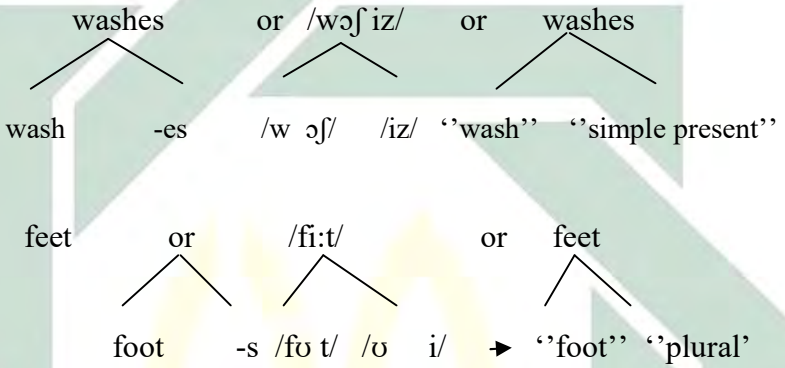
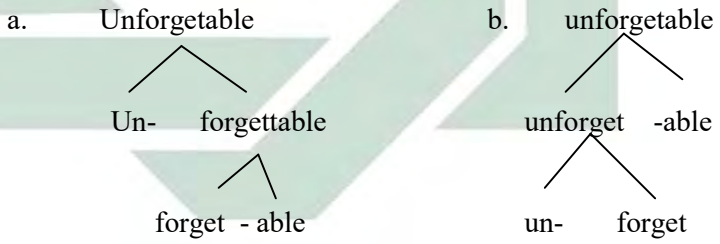
The student walked is an independent constituent. *The student* and *walked* are constituents in construction with each other, *the* and *student* are also constituents in construction with each other.

- **Constituents of words**

There are three ways in construction of words constituents; by their spelling, by their phonemic realization, and by their meaning. Usually it appears as a noun, verb, adjective or adverb. We can see the examples in different diagram below;



Constituents also can be applied in a word that has more than one affixes. It is more complicated because we analyze based on their hierarchical ordering of constructions.



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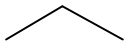
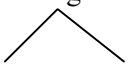
a. Disagreement



Dis- agreement

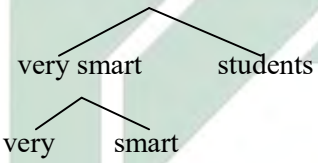
b. disagreement



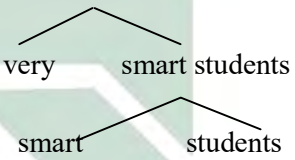
disagree -ment

Some examples above are constituents of a word. How about constituents of words group, let's see the examples below; it can be positive, negative, interrogative statements and also statement with a modal and plural form.

a. very smart students



b. very smart students



The constituents above are constituents of words group in a positive statement. It can be analyzed into two ways and of course it has different meaning. The first interpretation refers to the students who are very smart, and the second interpretation refers to smart students who are very. The second interpretation is quite meaningless. We can compare the analysis of *very smart students* and the plural form *some smart students*. The analysis below is the correct analysis, because in the analysis above lack of the word *some* that show the plural form of *students*, besides the word *students* should be analyzed like *student* and the plural *–s.*

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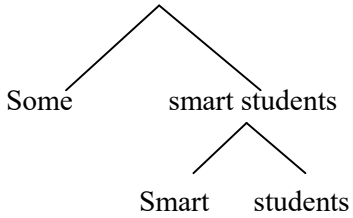
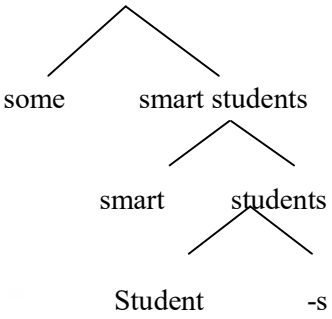
Some smart students

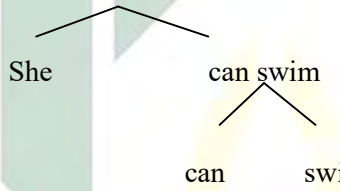


b.Some smart students

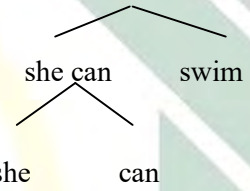


How about group of words with a modal? It also can be analyzed into two ways, but one of them is rejected by English native speaker because its construction is not according to the rule of sentence.

a.She can swim

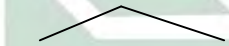


b. she can swim

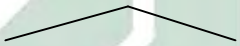


After we see two analyses above, it can be drawn into two diagrams as follows:

a. She can swim



b. She can swim



She	can swim	She can	swim
	Read	he	
	cook	you	
	write	I	
	etc.	etc.	

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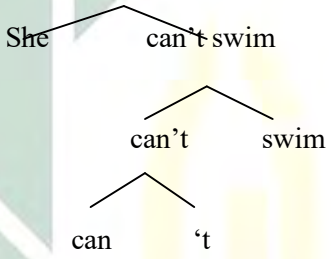
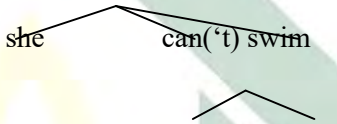
The words *read, cook,* and *write* are like *can swim*. They are all verb or phrases that have function as a predicate in a sentence. Whereas, the words *he, you*, and *I* being all nouns or pronoun, differ from *I can*, which is a pronoun plus modal verb. We can conclude that the positions of the word *she* as a subject, the position of the phrase *can swim* are like *read, cook, write* as a predicate. Then, the position of phrase *she can* is not subject because it consists of noun and modal, so it can not be replaced by another noun or pronoun that has function as a subject. So, the first analysis is better than the second. Constituent of words group is also used in negative and interrogative statement, for example;

a. She can't swim



b. she can't swim



The words group of she can't swim is negation of she can swim, so it can be analyzed such as point *a* and *b.* However, point c shows the constituent of *she can't swim* to be *she can swim* and *'t.* It shows that one constituent 't (negative) appears to be inserted into another constituent she can swim. This analysis is also used in interrogative statement, but something is different from point *c* in the analyses of interrogative statement. It must be changed into positive statement first, see the example below;

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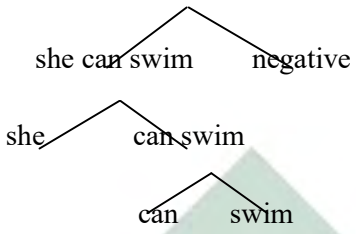
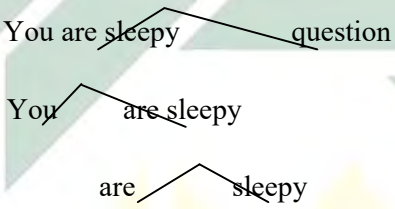
c.She can't swim



d. Are you sleepy?



In an analysis of interrogative statement, the constituents must be changed into positive statement plus another constituent (question).

The first constituent appears *you* and *are ready* is another. Then the constituents *are ready* is also divided into two constituent *are* and *ready*. We see the broken line appears in point *c* and *d*. It means that it represents a more abstract structure than the one which the actual sentence has in its realization in words.

5.1.2 Constructions Types

There are some types in construction; modification, predication, complementation, subordination and coordination. If we analyze a

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phrase or sentence using modification types we have to analyze based on head (H) and modifier (M) of its phrase or sentence. It also can be called an endocentric construction because the total construction (H plus M, or, M plus H). The second type of construction is predication. A structure of predication consists of two constituents. They are a subject (Sb) and a predicate (P), subject refers to the noun that has function as subject, a predicate refers to the verb. The third type is complementation. A structure of complementation contains a verbal (V) and a complement (C). Complements can be noun, object of transitive verb, an adjective, a noun phrase or an infinitive as a verb complement. The next type is subordination. A structure of subordination contains a subordinator (Sub), which is a preposition, a particle, or a subordinating conjunction (a word like because, but, after, before, when, etc), and a dependent unit (D). The last type is coordination. A structure of coordination contains a coordinator and two or more independent units. Independent unit can be words, phrase or sentence. Let's see the examples of the constructions types below;

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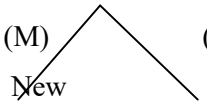
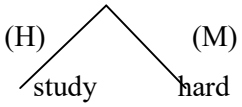
a. Modification

- New car



Study hard



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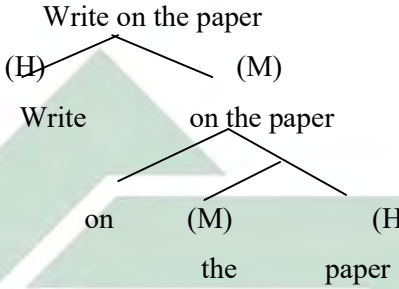

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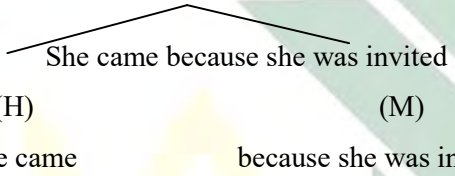
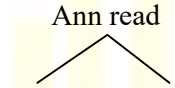
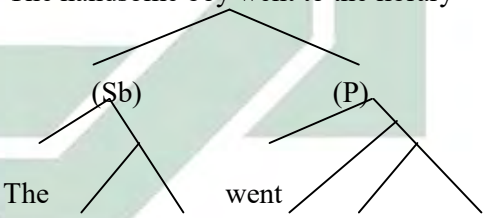


b. Predication



- The handsome boy went to the library



Handsome boy to the library

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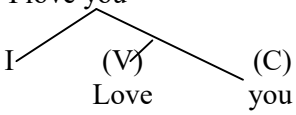
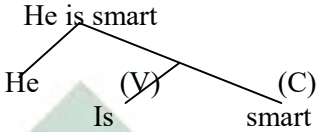
c. Complementation

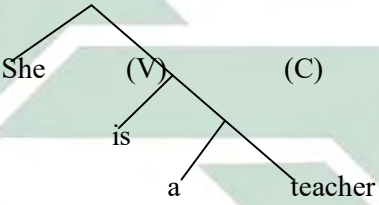
- I love you



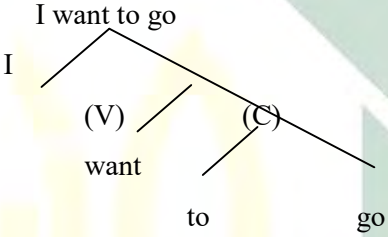
- He is smart



- She is a teacher

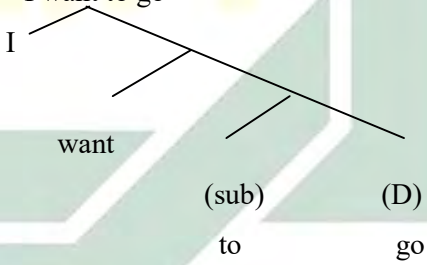


- I want to go



d. Subordination

- I want to go



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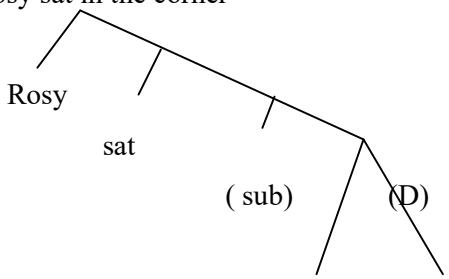
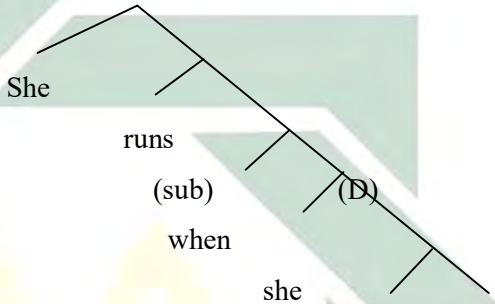
- Rosy sat in the corner



the corner

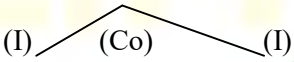
- She runs when she feels afraid



feels afraid

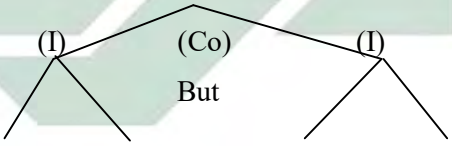
e. Coordination

- You and me



You and me

- She reads but he writes.



She reads he writes

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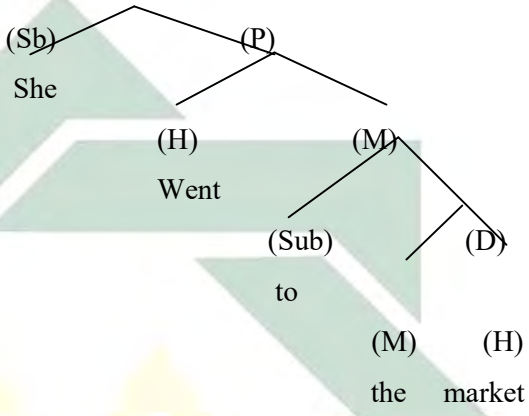
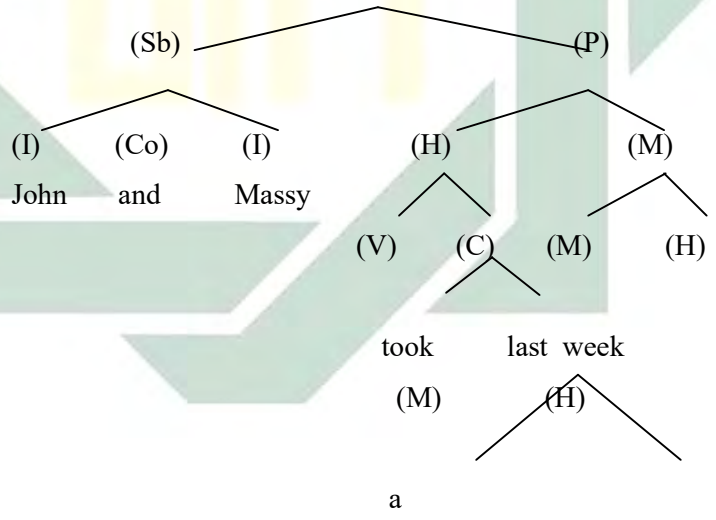
5.1.3 Hierarchies of Contractions

Analyzing a phrase or a sentence does not only show a kind of construction types but it can be combined in one process. This process is called hierarchies of constructions. The elements of construction types can be arranged hierarchically, for example:

- She went to the market



- John and Massy took a heavy box last week.



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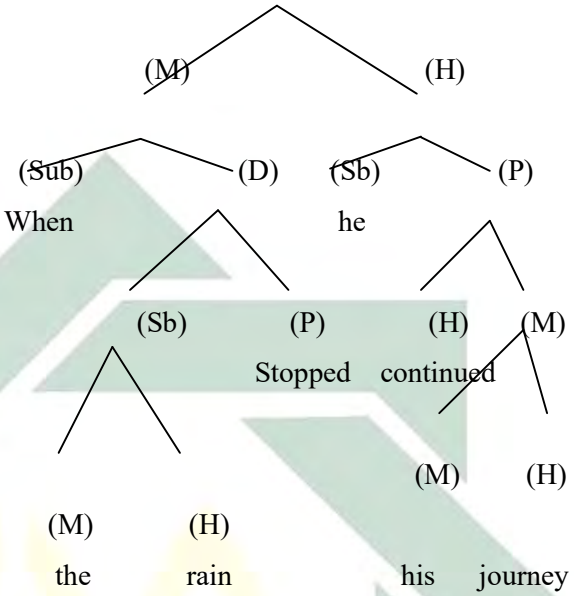
(M) (H)

heavy box

-When the rain stopped, he continued his journey.



Analyzing sentences above enables us to know and distinguish between linguistic forms and linguistic functions. Linguistic form is a structure of coordination that exists in a sentence; nouns, verbs, phrases, clauses, and soon. It can be drawn in good relationship in a tree diagram. Each branching in the tree shows relationship. The relationship is functional one in this case; modification, coordination, predication, and so on**.**

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5.1.4 Sentence Patterns

There are some elements in a sentence such as subject, predicate and complement. The pattern of a sentence at least consists of subject (noun) and predicate (verb). We can add a complement in a sentence conditionally. Each sentence may have different pattern. There are some examples of sentence pattern below;

a. Girls walk. noun + verb
b. Girl hit the boy. noun ^{1} + verb + noun ^{2}
c. Girls are human. Noun^{1} + be + noun^{1}

The pattern of sentence 'a' is noun as a subject + verb agreement as an intransitive predicate. Sentence 'b' is composed noun ^{1} as a subject + verb as a transitive predicate + noun ^{2} as a direct object. Sentence c consists of noun^{1} as a subject + be as a predicate verb be or copula + noun^{1} as a noun complement. We can see the differentiation between sentence b (noun ^{1} and noun ^{2}) and c (noun ^{1} and noun ^{1}). It means that girl (noun ^{1}) is not boy (noun ^{2}) while girls (noun ^{1}) are a human being (noun ^{1}). The others sentence patterns usually describe as follows;

d. Girls are beautiful noun + be + adjective (subject, copula, adjective complement
e. Girls make the boy sad noun 1 + verb + noun 2 + adjective (subject, transitive predicate, direct object, object-adjective complement).

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f. Girl gave a boy a present noun 1 + verb + noun 2 + noun 3 (subject, transitive predicate, direct object, object-noun complement)

g. Girl is here noun + be + adverbial (subject + copula + adverb)

Based on the examples and its explanations above, it can be concluded that there are two ways in sentence patterns ; first according to linguistic forms (noun, verb, adjective, and so on), second according to functions of these forms (subject, transitive predicate, intransitive predicate, adjective complement, and so on.

In a sentence pattern usually appears expansions and transformations. Expansion is an extensive modification of a word in a sentence, for example a sentence ‘*’Students read the books’’*, it can be expanded to be ‘*’Two smart students are reading the old important books’’*. From that sentence can be analyzed as follow; *two smart* modifying students, *are* and *–ing* modifying read, and *old important* modifying books. While, transformations are achieved through transform of a sentence to other forms. It means that transformations do not change one sentence into others but they change one structure into others, for example; *girls buy vegetables*. It can be transformed become some sentences below;

a) Affirmative (Girls buy vegetables)
b) Negative (Girls do not buy vegetables)
c) Passive (Vegetables are bought by girls)
d) Negative-passive (Vegetables are not bought by girls)

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e)	Request	(Buy vegetables!)
f)	Negative – request	(Don't buy vegetables!)
g)	Passive-request	(Be bought by girls!)
h)	Negative-passive-request	(Don't be bought by girls!)
i)	Question	(Do girls buy vegetables?)
j)	Negative – question	(Don't girls buy vegetables?)
k)	Passive-question	(Are vegetables bought by girls?)
l)	Negative-passive-question	(Aren't vegetables bought by girls?)

Based on the sentence forms above, we can see that there is no modifying of word; it just changes to other forms by adding *to be* in the sentence. It appropriates to tense. So, there are some partner forms of sentence, such as positive- negative, active-passive, and so on.

5.2 Generative Transformational Grammar

Generative transformational grammar is an expansion from traditional grammar and structural grammar. The important aspect of generative transformational grammar refers to the syntactic structure. This theory is created by Chomsky, and then he wrote a book with the titled *Aspect of Theory of Syntax* in 1965. A view of generative transformational grammar stated that linguistics theory as a function of grammar. To know the way of linguistics theory work is depend on the grammar. According to generative transformational grammar, the main function of grammar is a sentence, whether it is structural or not. The next function gives a description of sentence's structure. The structures of sentence have a rule that usually we called it as set of rules.

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Set of rules in this case will produce or generate the diagram. The diagram here is used to analyze the sentence. The rule of sentence usually sentence (S) consists of ( ) a noun phrase (NP) and (+) verb phrase (VP). The same process can be used to express the relationship among the verb phrase (VP), intransitive phrase (Vi), and prepositional phrase (PP), for example, verb phrase (VP) consist of ( ) an intransitive verb (Vi) and (+) a prepositional phrase (PP). Total set of rules and its relation each other are called phrase-structure rules. The process above can be drawn in a diagram. The branches of diagram show the relationship each other. We can see two ways to write the set of rules, for example a sentence *The children walk to the garden*;

1) S ⟶ NP + VP
   VP ⟶ Vi + PP
   PP ⟶ Prep + NP
   NP ⟶ D + N
   D ⟶ the
   N ⟶ children, garden
   Vi ⟶ walk
   Prep ⟶ to

Set of rules of sentence *the children walk to the garden* is limited in a variety of ways. It means that the set can be used to produce only a finite number of sentences, for example;

a. The children walk to the garden
b. The children walk to the children
c. The garden walk to the children

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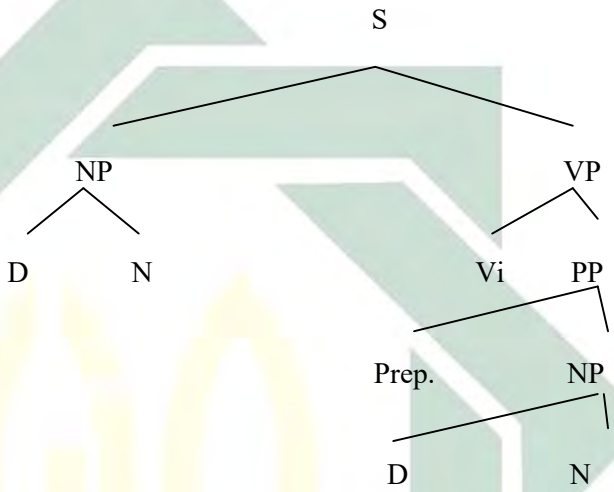
d. The garden walk to the garden

We concede the point that the set can produce some sentences, but don't forget with the terms ''only a finite number''. It means that not all sentences have a good set of rules. We can proof it based on the four examples above, only sentence *a* appropriate with the grammatical rule. It can be called generativeness.

2) Diagram



The diagram above just shows a type of rule; S ⟶ NP + VP, ⟶ VP Vi + PP, and so on. Actually, there are some types of rule in English.

S ⟶ NP + VP
VP ⟶ Vi + PP
VP ⟶ Vi
VP ⟶ Vt + NP
VP ⟶ Vt

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VP → be + Adj

From the rules above can be made some sentence forms

a. S → NP + Vi

The girl slept

b. S → NP + Vi + PP

My sister swims in the swimming pool

c. S → NP + Vt

The students read

d. S → NP + Vt + NP

My mother washes some clothes

e. S → NP + be + adj

The boy is happy

According to the explanation of sentence rule above, it can be resumed as follow;

S NP + VP

$$VP \quad \begin{cases} Vi + (PP) \\ Vt + (NP) \\ Be + Adj \end{cases}$$

There are two symbols that we can see { } and ( ). The first symbol is parentheses. It indicates an option, it means that the unit within the parentheses may or may not be chosen in one place. That is, Vi may

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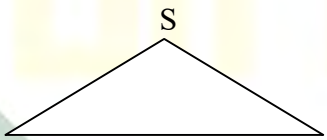
occurs alone or with an PP, and also Vt may occurs alone or with an NP. Then, the second symbol is braces. One unit within braces must be chosen; VP consists of Vi + (PP) or Vt + (NP) or be + adj.

Set of rule above can be expanded into many additional sentences, for example '' *A boy won the competition*, can be expanded into '*'A boy who is smart won the competition''*. The first sentence also can be transform into many kinds of sentence forms, for example '*'A competition was won by the boy''* or *Did the boy win a competition?* and so on. The expansion and transformation here will refer to deep and surface structures. According to Wardaugh, deep structure refers to the abstract structure. It means that, before we produce (spoken or written) sentence, we have thought it in our mind. After that process, we produce (spoken or written) sentence, it is called surface structure. So, surface structure refers to the actually produced structure. They have relationship each other. The term transformational will be used to refer to the relationship. We can see an analysis below.



The boy S won a competition

The boy is smart

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The following set of rules generates a deep structure:

S → NP + VP

VP → { be + adj / Vt + NP }

NP → NP + (S)

NP → D + N

D → the, a

N → boy, competition

Vt → won

Adj → smart

Be → Is

An analysis above can be replaced by the representation of the deep structure below;

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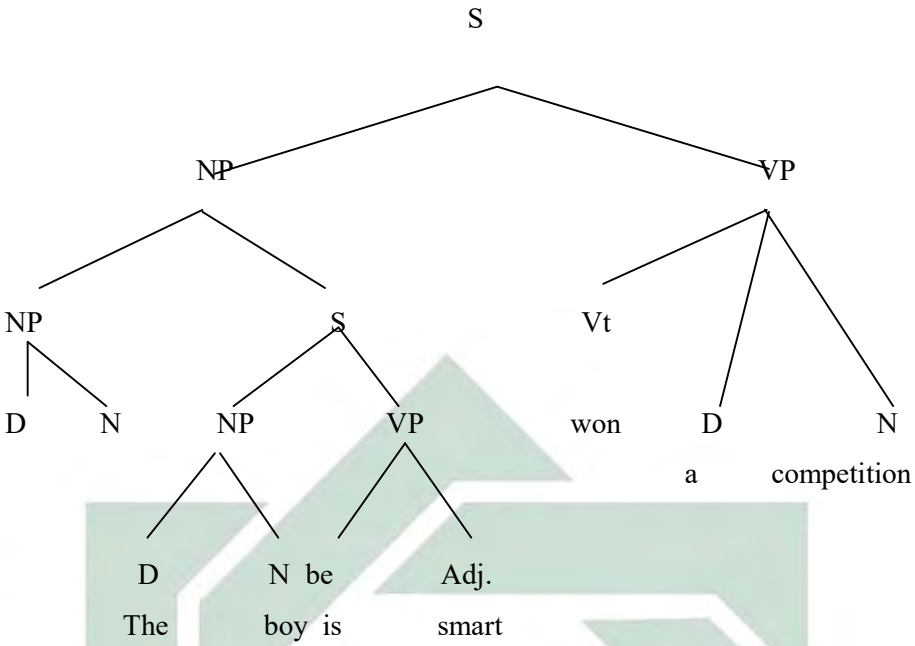

[The boy [the boy is smart] won a competition]

We see that there is a sentence within a sentence. It can be added by relative transformation. Now, what is relative transformation? Before, we answer that question; we have better to know two processes of deriving from deep structure into surface structure below;

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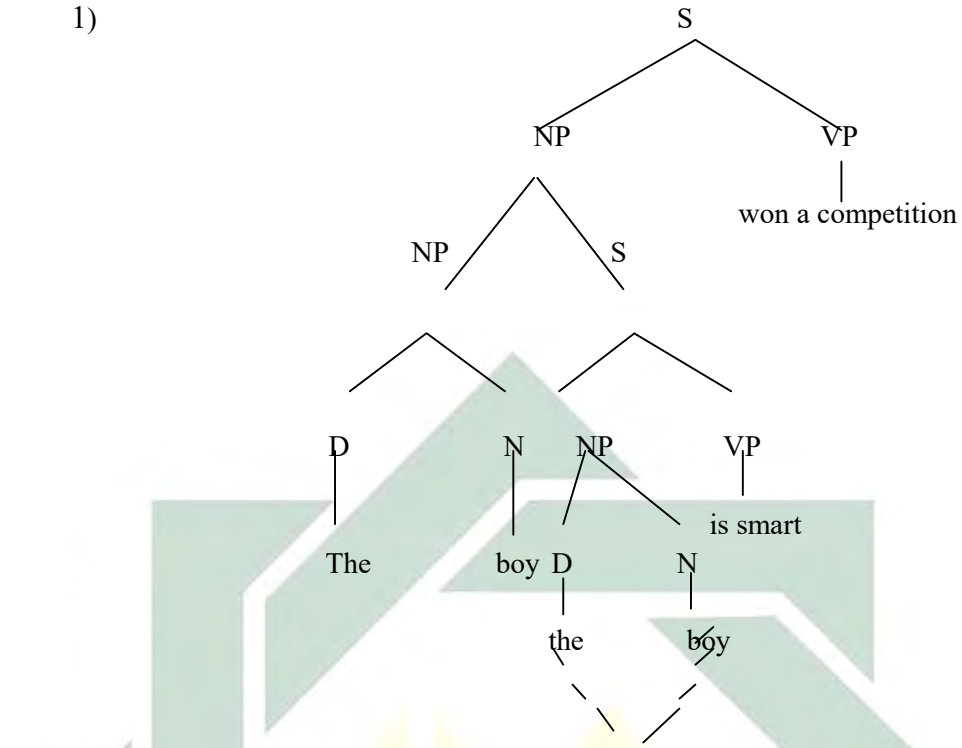
1)



That boy that is smart won a competition

2)

Deep structure [The boy [the boy is smart] won a competition]

relative transformation

The boy who is smart won a competition

be-deletion transformation

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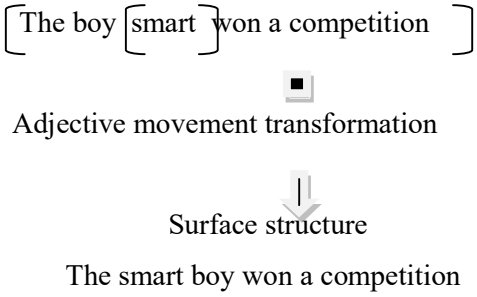

Based on analysis above, we know that relative transformation is a bridge or something that connects from deep into surface structure. In grammar, the signs of relative include *that, which, whom*, etc, While transformation is the changing of structure in the sentence. There are three steps in a process of deep into surface structure; relative transformation, be-deletion transformation and the last step is adjective movement transformation.

Set of rule has relation to the process of deep to surface structure. There are two set of rules in a generative-transformational grammar. First rule is phrase-structure rules. It generates deep structure. Second is transformational rule. It changes the deep structure into surface structure. The term generative-transformational refers to the grammar as a whole. The rule of grammar can be stated in a general way because language is universal. So generative-transformational grammar claims certain conventions such as consist of (→), parentheses and branching, rule-ordering, and so on. The rules of a generative-transformational grammar also define some kinds of grammatical constituents, for example; noun, verb, noun phrase, verb phrase, etc. A generative-transformational grammar has close relation

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to the sentence, because it is grammar of sentence. So, it can be said that sentences are the products of grammar.

Summary

Constituent is a group of words that appear at the bottom of one of the lines in diagrams; constituent of word and constituent of words group, while construction is a relationship between constituents; modification, predication, complementation, subordination and coordination. Then combining some types of construction into one process is called hierarchies of contraction. The third is sentence patterns. It is a rule of sentence. It can be said as a sentence if it consists of subject (noun) + predicate (verb) and complements. There are two terms in sentence patterns; expansions (an extensive modification of a word in a sentence) and transformations (achieved through transform of a sentence to other forms/ change one structure of sentence to the others). The last is generative transformational grammar. It is an expansion from traditional grammar and structural grammar. There are two important point in generative transformational grammar; expansion and transformation. It will refer to deep (abstract structure/in our mind) and surface structures (concrete structure/ spoken or written sentence that we produced).

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Chapter 6
SEMANTICS

6.1 Definition of Semantics

The word semantics is derived from Greek word *semantikos* ("significant"). According to grammar, the word *semantics* refers to noun form while *semantic* is adjective form. Now, what is semantics itself? There some definitions of semantics. Palmer (1981:1) said that semantics is the technical term used to refer to the study of meaning, and, since meaning is a part of language, semantics is a part of linguistics. Another definition noted that semantics is a part of linguistics that refers to the study of meaning, changes in meaning, and the relationship between sentences or words and their meanings. Simpler definition, semantics is the study of the meaning of linguistic units, words and sentences in particular.

There are two subfields of semantics, lexical semantics and conceptual semantics. Lexical semantics is the meaning of a word that involves its context. In this case, contextual relation is the important role to create a meaning. Whereas, conceptual semantics is the meaning of word that correlate it with the syntactic structure. The correlation of internal structure of words is stressed in conceptual semantics.

6.2 The Scope of Semantics

6.2.1 Naming

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The term naming has relation to sign, signified and signifier. Sign is a word (symbol). Words that are said are names for things. Signified is a concept while signifier is an object. We learn some words by process of naming. The children for example, learn to give the name of something by the process from their parent. Usually, their parent will say a word then show the relevant object in real word. The process of getting the name of something is not only based on the show the relevant object, but it has relation to the grammatical identity. For example the word *cat*, it will denote the class of all *cat*, but *that cat* will refer to a particular cat. The difficulty of naming view is also related to part of speech. Definition of noun as the name of person or things, it is easy to give the name or the label of things because it refers to the concrete things. How about the process of naming in adjective, verb, preposition etc? It is difficult to extend the theory of naming to include these other parts of speech.

One possible way out of all our difficulties is to say that only some words actually denote objects. The others have a meaning that is derived from the more basic use. There are two kinds of word, 'object word' and 'dictionary word'. Object words are learnt ostensibly, in example, by pointing at object, while dictionary words have to be defined in term of the object words. The object words thus have ostensive definitions. (Russel in Palmer, 1976:22). Those statements are not the solution for the naming of things, because in order to understand an ostensive definition, we have to understand precisely what is being pointed at. If we point to a table and say'' this is a

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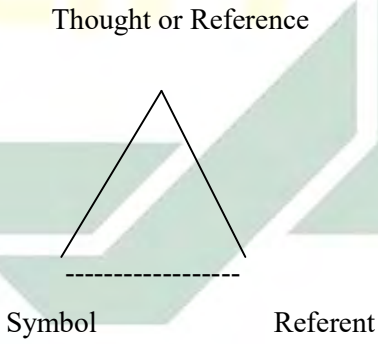
table’’, it means that we realize that we are pointing the whole object; not part of its object. We have to know characteristics of the objects.

In this case, we are not only relating the meaning of words but also, we have to relate the meaning of sentence. The theory of meaning for a sentence is no more satisfactory that one for words. Then, we cannot directly relate the meaning of the sentence to things and events in the world. For example the sentence as follow: *There are three chairs in the class*. The meaning of that sentence stated in terms of the truth condition that only three things (a kind of furniture that has four legs and we can sit on it) in a place where the students usually study together in school.

5.2 Concepts

According to Saussure’s theory, sign consist of signifier and signified. Signified is an idea or concept, while the signifier is a means of expressing the signified. It has relation with Odgen and Richards theory. They saw that the relationship between signifier and signified as a triangle.



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The ‘symbol’ is the element of linguistics, it can be the word or sentence, then the ‘referent’ is the object and thought or reference is concept (the world of experience). According to the theory of triangle above, there is no link between symbol and referent. The link is via thought or reference, (Palmer, 1981:24). It is concept of our mind. Then, what is concept? Concept has relation to psychology of human being. When we think of the name, we think of the concept and vice versa. It means that the meaning consist of our ability to associate something with the other. For example, when we hear the symbol ‘’cat’’, then we have some kind of image about cat (the animal that has four feed, it has long and sometime short tile, it can be as a friend for the human, it likes fish, and so on). Then our image refers to the referent ‘’cat’’. Wherever we have a word there will be a concept, and the concept will be the meaning of that word. So, we can conclude that concept is the step to see meaning in terms of mental entities.

5.3 Sense and reference

In Palmer (1981:29) can be seen that sense relates to the complex system of relationships that hold between the linguistics elements themselves (mostly the words), it is concerned only with intralinguistic relations. Reference deals with the relation between the linguistic elements, words, sentence, etc and the non-linguistic world of experience. The term sense may be used in the same way as connotation, it refers to the properties an entity has, whereas, the term reference may be used in the same way as denotation. The distinction between "sense" and "reference" is comparable to that between

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"connotation" and "denotation". The former refers to the abstract properties of an entity, while the latter refers to the concrete entities having these properties.

Based on the definition of sense and reference, we can see the examples as follow. The example of sense is the words *cat* and *bat.* It has relation to phonetics. Those words have different meaning because it has different consonant in the first word. Sense in not only in words but also we can see in sentences, for example a) *This book is too expensive*; b) *this book is not enough cheep*. Sentence *a* and *b* are synonymous sentence. Another example is *He is going to the bank.* It is an ambiguous sentence. Some examples above have intralinguistic relation. Sense also has relation to each other. Words are in different sense relation with each other. Some words have more similar senses than others. For example the sense of *chair* is more closely related to *settee* than to *table*. On the other hand, we can say that the sense of *chair* is more different from *table* than from *settee*. And the sense of *chair* is included in the sense of furniture, or the sense of furniture includes that of chair. As a result the sense of a word may be seen as the network of its sense relations with others. In other words, sense may be defined as the semantic relations between one word and another, or more generally between one linguistic unit and another. It is concerned with the intra-linguistic relations.

In contrast, reference is concerned with the relation between a word and the thing it refers to, or more generally between a linguistic unit and a non-linguistic entity it refers to. For example the word *cock* and *hen* (involving male and female), *cat* and *kitty*, *pig* and *piglet*

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(involving adult and young), it refers to particular kind of animal and derives the meaning in this way. It is part of the semantics structure of English, but it also relate to the fact that there are male and female chicken, young and adult of cat and pig. From the explanation above can be conclude that every word has sense, but not every word has a reference, for example, grammatical words like *but, if, and*, it has sense but it do not refer to anything.

5.4 The Word

Word is one of the basic units of semantics. The meaning of word is usually found in a dictionary. In the case of meaning here are not all words having the same kind of meaning as others. For example, *They go to the library*, it easy to give the meaning of *they, go* and *library*, but what is the meaning of *to* and *the*? The word *they, go* and *library* can be replaced by the word *students, walk, field*. How about *to* and *the*? It cannot replace by anything. It will have meaning, if it combined with other word. Based on English Grammarian, Henry Sweet (1891:22) drew the distinction between full words and form words. Full word is a word that has a meaning although it stands alone, such as *chair, go, see, girl, father*, etc. whereas, form word is a word that has a meaning if it combined with the other word. Form words belong to the grammar and have only grammar meaning, for example *–s, -ing, -ed, -full, -ness, -al, -berry*, etc. The statements above have relation with Bloomfield's opinion (1933:178). He said that we should look for an element smaller than the word, the unit of meaning, we can call it ''morpheme''.

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In this discussion, we stress on the relation between word and meaning. The meaning of a word is not analyzable whole. It may be seen as a complex of different semantic features. Another opinion said that, there are semantic units that are smaller than the meaning of a word. For example, the meaning of the word *boy* may be analyzed into three components: human, young and male, and *woman* into human, adult and female. In another words, it involve a relation between two entities, for example the words noun *father* = parent(x, y) & male (x), *son* = child(x, y) & male (x).Verbs can also be analyzed in this way, for example, *take* = cause (have) ,*give* = cause (~have), *die* = become , (~alive). It is claimed that by showing the semantic components of a word in this way, we may better account for sense relations.

The next opinion is from Palmer (1976: 35). He said the meaning of a word has relation to the initial cluster of consonant. For example, many words beginning with *sl-* are *slippery,* like the words *slide, slip, slither, slush, sluice*, or else they are merely pejorative, like the words *slattern, slut, slang, sly, sloppy,* etc. The *sk-* words refer to surfaces or superficiality, in words *skate, skimp, skid, skin*, etc. Then, the words which end *–ump*, almost all refer to some kind of roundish mass, e.g *hump, lump, bump, stump, rump.* But not every word with these phonological characteristics will have the meaning suggested, moreover, we cannot separate this part and state the meaning of the remainder, e.g. the meaning of *–ide* in *slide* or *–ate* in *skate*. Sometimes, we interpret the meaning of words based on the meaning each word, example in phrase *good player*, we cannot give the

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meaning *a player who is good*, but exactly its meaning is *one who plays well*. Now, we can say that the word is a natural unit for semantics.

5.5 The Sentence

The basic unit of semantics is not only the word but also the sentence. If words have meaning, it is true because it is derived from their function as parts of sentence. In syntax we describe the structure of sentence. Based on English sentence, a sentence at least consists of noun as a subject and verb as a predicate, and optionally can be added by complements. The meaning of sentence can be derived from the meaning of its words arrangement.

The meaning of sentence in spoken language is influenced by intonation, stress, rhythm, loudness, etc. If we produce different stress in sentences, it also has different meaning. The meaning of a sentence also includes ‘’speech act’’ (the meaning of a sentence that we produced is based on the context of situation) in example ‘’There *is a fierce dog’’*. It means that we have to careful walked along the way. Language also involves social relation. We can produce rude or polite sentence depend on the social relationship with the person to whom we are speaking. For example we say *go out!, could you leave this room please?*, we can use the first or the second statement depend on whether we wish to be rude or not, and the use of those statements relate to the status of the person addressed.

Then, the meaning in sentence distinguishes with the meaning of utterance. According to Lyons (1977:643), he found the distinction

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between sentence meaning and utterance meaning. The sentence meaning being directly predictable from the grammatical and lexical features of the sentence, it means that the meaning of sentence has close relation to the tense. Whereas utterance meaning includes all ''secondary'' aspects of meanings, especially those related to context, it means that the meaning of utterance involves grammatical structure and also context of situation.

Another opinion states that the meaning of utterance is the meaning of the sentence plus the meaning of the circumstances; the time and place, the people involved their backgrounds, their relationship to one another, and what they know about one another (Kreidler, 1998: 27). In linguistics, an utterance usually is found in discourse and pragmatics.

5.6 Lexical semantics

Besides conceptual meaning, we have also lexical meaning in semantics. Lexical meaning is the meaning of a word that involves its context. In this case, contextual relation is the important role to create a meaning. Lexical meaning includes synonym, antonym, hyponym, homonym, homograph and homophone. Synonym is a word or a phrase with the same or nearly the same meaning as another in the same language, or we can say that synonym is the different words that have the same meaning, for example universe and world, table and desk, revealed and to tell, etc. Antonym is a word that is opposite in meaning (Oxford Advanced Learning: 1995: 44).

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There are three kinds of antonym. First is gradable antonym. It is two words that are antonym usually mean pairs of words, for example the words *big* and *small*, *good* and *bad*, *hot* and *cool*, *big* and *thin*, etc. The characteristics of this type are it can be modified by ''very'', such as the phrase very good and very bad. The next characteristic is it can be changed into comparative and superlatives degrees, for example, bigger than …, thinner than …, the biggest; the best…The second kind of antonym is complementary antonym. It is the members of a pair are complementary to each other, i.g. odd and even, boy and girl, male and female, etc. The differentiation between gradable antonym and complementary antonym is gradable antonym has three characteristics, they can be modified by ''very'', can be changed into comparative and superlatives degrees.

The last kind of antonym is converse antonym. It is the members of a pair do not constitute a positive-negative opposition. They show the reversal of a relationship between two entities, for example, parent; child, above; below, before; after, borrow; lend, teacher; student, husband; wife, etc. The explanation of the example, X is a wife of Y, means the same as Y is a husband of X. It is the same relationship seen from two different angles. The next term in lexical semantics is hyponym. It is an inclusive relationship where some lexemes are included in one word. As the word *flower* includes *orchid, rose*, and *jasmine*. The other examples of *chair, table, cupboard, book shelf* are hyponyms for furniture.

The next term of lexical semantics is homonyms. Homonyms are the different lexemes with the same written and spoken, but

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different meaning, for example the word *pen,* it can be a tool that we use to write or it can be a place or home for animal. Besides homonyms, we also see homophones. Homophones are the pronunciations of the lexemes are the same, but standard spelling differs, and it also has different meaning, for example the lexemes *ring* and wring. *Ring* is make a bell is ringing; *wring* is the process of washing the clothes. The last term of lexical semantics is homograph. Homographs are the standard spellings of the lexemes are the same, but the pronunciation differs and it also has different meaning, such as the word *minute* [minit] ; for a clock' and *minute* [mainiut] ; very small.

Summary

Semantics cannot be separated from linguistics; elements of linguistics (phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, and discourse) and the other fields of linguistics (sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, etc.). There are some scope of semantics; first is naming. It is the process of giving the name of things. Second is concept. It has relation to symbol and object. Concept is in our mind. The next Third is sense and reference. Sense relates to the complex system of relationships that hold between the linguistics elements themselves (mostly the words), it is concerned only with intralinguistic relations. Reference deals with the relation between the linguistic elements, words, sentence, etc and the non-linguistic world of experience. Lexical meaning includes synonym, antonym, hyponym, homonym, homograph and homophone.

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Chapter 7
PRAGMATICS

7.1 Definition of Pragmatics

Definition of pragmatics is not simple as the study of speaker meaning, but it has relation to its background, as George Yule (1997:3) said. Definition above is concerned with the study of meaning as communicated by a speaker (or writer) and interpreted by a listener (or reader). It has consequently, more to do with the analysis of what the people mean by their utterances that what the words or phrases in those utterances might mean by themselves.

This type of study necessarily involves the interpretation of what people mean in a particular context and how the context influences what is said. It requires a consideration of how speakers organize what they want to say in accordance with who they are talking to, where, when, and under what circumstances. So, pragmatics also refers to the study of contextual meaning.

This approach also necessarily explores how listeners can make inferences about what is said in order to arrive at an interpretation of the speaker's intended meaning. This type of study explores how a great deal of what is unsaid is recognized as part of what is communicated. We might say that it is the investigation of invisible meaning. Pragmatics relates to the study of how more gets communicated than is said.

This perspective then raises the question of what determines the choice between the said and the unsaid. The basic answer is tied to

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the notion of distance. Closeness, whether it is physical, social, conceptual, implies shared experience. On the assumption of how close or distant the listener is, speakers determine how much needs to be said. It can be concluded that pragmatics is the study of the expression of relative distance.

The advantage of studying language via pragmatics that one can talk about people's intended meaning, their assumptions, their purposes or goals, and the kinds of actions (for example, requests)that they are performing when they speak. The big advantage is that all these very human concepts are extremely difficult to analyze in a consistent and objective way.

From the explanation above, we know that pragmatics has wide scope. There are some points in pragmatics such as deixis, inference, presupposition, implicature, speech acts, politeness, and so on. But in this chapter, I just want to describe deixis and speech act, because it is just introduction.

7.2 Deixis

Before we know, the explanation of deixis and its example, it is better we see the picture below

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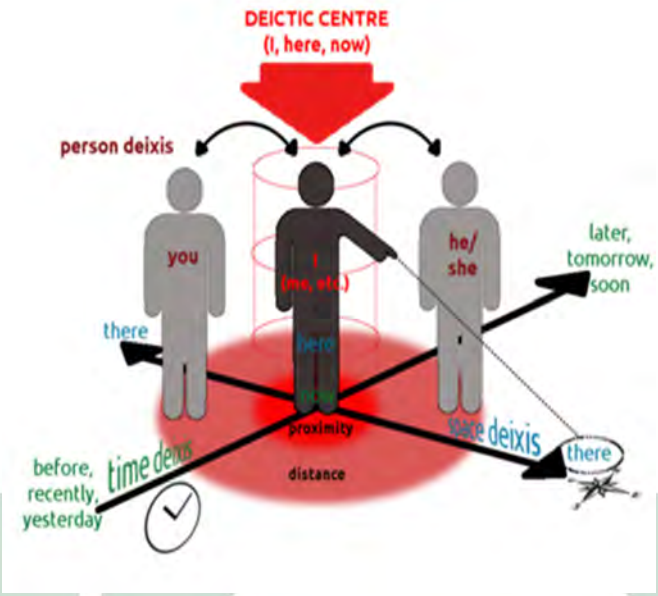

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The term deixis is derived from Greek: δείξις *deixis* "display, demonstration, or reference". Deixis is certain function word that refers to parts of the physical – social- temporal context of the speaker or writer and their referents can only be known that context (it can only be interpreted through their contexts). Any function words used to accomplish the ‘’pointing’’ is called deitic expression. There three kinds of deixis; person deixis, spatial deixis and temporal deixis.

First is person deixis. It concerns itself with the grammatical persons involved in an utterance, (1) those directly involved (e.g. the speaker, the addressee), (2) those not directly involved (e.g. over hearers—those who hear the utterance but who are not being directly addressed), and (3) those mentioned in the utterance. It refers to pronoun. It consists of three-part division; first person (I), second person (you) and third person (he, she, it). See some examples below;

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a. *I* am going to the library.
b. Would *you* like to have breakfast?
c. *They* tried to make *me* happy.

Second is spatial deixis is the form word that can be used to indicate location. It refers to adverb ‘’here’’ and ‘’ there’’, and the demonstratives ‘’this’’ and ‘’that’’.

a. ’James hasn’t been *here* yet’’. Is he *there* with you?
b. I like *this* cake.
c. She was sitting over *there*.

Third is temporal deixis. It is the form word that can be used to indicate the time, such as *now, then, yesterday, today, tomorrow, last week*, and so on, for example; It is raining *now*, but I hope *when* you read this it will be sunny.

7.3 Speech Act

The utterance can be used to perform the act. The actions performed via utterances are generally called speech act. Based on Austin (1962), there are three things in speech act; locution, illocution and perlocution. What is said, the utterance, can be called the locution. What the speaker intends to communicate to the addressee is the illocution. The message that the addressee gets, his interpretation of what the speaker says, is the perlocution. We can see the example as follow:

‘’This room is too dark’’.

The appearance of utterance (*’This room is too dark’’)* is locution. Illocution is the intention of the speaker that he or she wants someone

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to turn the lamp on, whereas perlocution of that utterance is the result that the lamp was on.

Summary

Pragmatics is the study of meaning as communicated by a speaker (or writer) and interpreted by a listener (or reader). As an introduction of pragmatics, there are two points; deixis and speech act. Deixis is certain function word that refers to parts of the physical – social- temporal context of the speaker or writer and their referents can only be known that context (it can only be interpreted through their contexts). There three kinds of deixis; person deixis, spatial deixis and temporal deixis. First, Person deixis is the form word that can be used to indicate people. Second is spatial deixis. It is the form word that can be used to indicate location. Third is temporal deixis. It is the form word that can be used to indicate the time.

The next point is speech act. The actions performed via utterances are generally called speech act. There are three things in speech act; locution, illocution and perlocution. What is said, the utterance, can be called the locution. What the speaker intends to communicate to the addressee is the illocution. The message that the addressee gets, his interpretation of what the speaker says, is the perlocution.

The advantage of studying language via pragmatics that one can talk about people's intended meaning, their assumptions, their purposes or goals, and the kinds of actions (for example, requests)that they are performing when they speak.

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Chapter 8
DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

8.1 Definition of Discourse

The term discourse has various meanings. It is not only used in linguistics, but also in sociology, psychology, communication, and anthropology. Originally the word 'discourse' comes from Latin '*discursus*'. It means 'conversation or speech'.

Crystal (1992:25) said that "discourse as a continuous stretch of (especially spoken) language larger than a sentence, often constituting a coherent unit such as a sermon, argument, joke, or narrative". On the other hand, Dakowska (2001:81) noted that the differences between kinds of discourses indicate the unity of communicative intentions as a vital element of each of them. The complete definition is given by Beaugrande (1981) discourse is very large field of study but for linguistic it could be summarized, that there are seven criteria which have to be fulfilled to qualify, a written or a spoken text.

- Cohesion , grammatical relationship between parts of a sentence essential for its interpretation.
- Coherence, the order of statements relates one another by sense.
- Intentionality, the message has to be conveyed deliberately and consciously.

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- Acceptability, indicates that the communicative product needs to be satisfactory in that the audience approves it.
- Informativeness, some new information has to be included in the discourse
- Situationality, circumstances in which the remark is made are important
- Intertextuality, reference to the world outside the text or the interpreters' schemata.

All of the above mentioned criteria are internal linguistics factor. So, we can say that discourse is something in the text that has internal linguistics factor.

8.2 Discourse and Text

Discourse cannot be separated with the text because text is the main term in discourse or it can be said that text is the representation of discourse. Then, what is a text exactly? Text in linguistics refers to any passage, spoken or written. Text is a unit of language in use. It can be dialogue, monologue, speech, prose, etc. A text is not only has a grammatical unit like a clause or a sentence, but also it sometimes in ungrammatical unit. It usually appears in spoken text.

George and Yule (1983:6) had another opinion about text. They said that text as a technical term; to refer to the verbal record of a communicative act requires at least two hedges;

(i) The presentation of a text which is presented for discussion may in part, particularly where the written

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representation of a spoken text is involved, consist of a prior analysis (hence interpretation) of a fragment of discourse by the discourse analyst presenting the text for consideration.

(ii) Features of the original production of the language, for example shaky handwriting or quavering speech, are somewhat arbitrarily considered as features of the context in which the language is produced.

Text is the result of communicative act; it can be written or spoken. Discourse and text have been noted by some linguists that those two terms have been treated as synonyms, while in others the distinction between discourse and text has been taken to apply to units of spoken versus written communication.

The definitions of those terms do not refer to different domains (speech and writing) but reflect a different in focus. Discourse is the umbrella term for either spoken or written communication beyond the sentence. Text is the basic means of this communication, be it spoken or written, a monologue or an interaction (Georgakopoulou,19974). So, text is a part of discourse.

8.3 Spoken and Written Text

The expression of human being is not only looked at written products, but also at their spoken. Written and spoken is the way that is used by the human being to communicate each other. Written text is a text that is wrote by the writer. It is as a printed record. It is different with spoken text. Spoken text is as verbal record of communicative

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act. The statement mentioned is almost the same with the definition of text which consider that text tend to spoken than to written.

There are some differences between spoken and written. Spoken develops in time in that the speaker says directly due to the intention and the topic discussion. Even if it may not be appropriate for the listener. Sometime it is possible to repeat utterance. Moreover, talking might be spontaneous which results in mistakes, repetition, sometimes less coherent sentences where even grunts, stutters or pauses might be meaningful. Employment of nonsense vocabulary, slang and contracted forms is one of the features of oral discourse. Among other significant features of speech there are rhythms, intonation, speed of uttering and inability to conceal mistakes made while speaking (Crystal 1995:291, Dakowska 2001:07).

In contrast, writing develops in space in that it needs a means to carry the information. The author of the text does not often know who is going to read the text. The writer is frequently able to consider the content of his work for almost unlimited period of time which makes it more coherent, having complex syntax. Additionally, owing to the lack of context expressions such as 'now' or 'here' are omitted, since they would be ambiguous as texts might be read at different times and places. One other feature typical of writing, but never of oral discourse, is the organization of tables, formulas, or charts which can be portrayed only in written form (Crystal 1995:291).

Both spoken and written discourse was expressed in formal and informal. Formal discourse is more strictly in that it requires the use of passive voice, lack of contracted forms together with

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impersonality, complex sentence structure and, in the case of the English language, vocabulary derived from Latin. That is why formal spoken language has many features very similar to written texts, particularly absence of vernacular vocabulary and slang, as well as the employment of rhetorical devices to make literary-like impact on the listener.

Informal discourse, on the other hand, makes use of active voice mainly, with personal pronouns and verbs which show feelings such as 'I think', 'we believe'. In addition, contractions are frequent in informal discourse, no matter if it is written or spoken. Consequently it may be said that informal communicative products are casual and loose, while formal ones are more solemn and governed by strict rules as they are meant to be used in official and serious circumstances.

The main differences between spoken and written based on the fact that spoken is essentially transitory and written is designated to be permanent. In daily life, spoken and written are largely for the establishment and maintenance of human relationship.

8.4 Link within Discourse

Links in discourse studies are divided into two groups: formal (it refers to facts that are present in the analyzed text), and contextual (it refers to the outside world, the knowledge (or schemata) which is not included in the communicative product itself (Cook 1990:14). Since it is difficult to describe the processing of contextual links without referring to particular psychological inquiries, therefore, this section is devoted to representation of formal links.

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By and large five types of cohesive devices are distinguished, some of which might be subdivided:

- Substitution: in order to avoid repeating the same word several times in one paragraph it is replaced, most often by *one*, *do* or *so. So* and *do* in its all forms might also substitute whole phrases or clauses (e.g. "Tom has created the best web directory. I told you so long time ago".)
- Ellipsis: it is very similar to substitution; however, it replaces a phrase by a gap. In other words, it is omission of noun, verb, or a clause on the assumption that it is understood from the linguistic context.
- Reference: the use of words which do not have meanings of their own, such as pronouns and articles. To infer their meaning the reader has to refer them to something else that appears in the text (Tom: "How do you like my new Mercedes Vito?" - Marry: "It is a nice van, which I'm also thinking of buying".).
- Conjunction: specifies the relationship between clauses, or sentences. Most frequent relations of sentences are: addition (*and, moreover e.g. "Moreover, the chocolate fountains* are not just regular fountains, they more like rivers full of chocolate and sweets."), temporality (*afterwards*, *next* e.g. "He bought her perfume at a local perfume shop and afterwards moved

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toward a jewelry store.") and causality (*because*, *since*).

- Lexical cohesion: denotes links between words which carry meaning: verbs, nouns, adjectives. Two types of lexical cohesion are differentiated, namely: reiteration and collocation. Reiteration adopts various forms, particularly synonymy, repetition, hyponymy or antonymy. Collocation is the way in which certain words occur together, which is why it is easy to make out what will follow the first item.

It is clear from the analysis of written language that when people produce discourse they focus not only on the correctness of a single sentence, but also on the general outcome of their production. That is why the approach to teaching a foreign language which concentrates on creating grammatically correct sentences, yet does not pay sufficient attention to regularities on more global level of discourse, might not be the best one (Cook 1990, McCarthy 1991, Salkie 1995).

8.5 Definition of Discourse Analysis

To answer the question above, let's see starting point of discourse as follows; Zellig Harris (Cook, 1990:13) was the first modern linguist who commenced the study of relation of sentences and coined the name 'discourse analysis', which afterwards denoted a branch of applied linguistics. He added that it was not to be treated as

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a separate branch of study; Harris proposed extension of grammatical examination which reminded syntactic investigations.

The emergence of this study is a result of not only linguistic research, but also of researchers engaged in other fields of inquiry, particularly sociology, psychology, anthropology and psychotherapy (Trappes-Lomax 2004:133). In 1960s and 1970s other scholars that are philosophers of language or those dealing with pragmatics enormously influenced the development of this study as well. Among other contributors to this field the Prague School of Linguists, whose focusing on organization of information in communicative products indicated the connection of grammar and discourse, along with text grammarians are worth mentioning (McCarthy 1991:6).

He wrote that a significant contribution to the evolution of discourse analysis has been made by British and American scholars. He also noted that research conveyed at the University of Birmingham fruited in creating a thorough account of communication in various situations such as debates, interviews, doctor-patient relations, paying close attention to the intonation of people participating in talks as well as manners particular to circumstances. Analysis of the factors essential for succession of decently made communication products on the grounds of structural-linguistic criteria was another concern of British scholars. Americans, on the other hand, focused on examining small communities of people and their discourse in genuine circumstances. Apart from that, they concentrated on conversation analysis inspecting narratives in addition to talks and the behavior of speakers as well as patterns repeating in given situations.

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From the explanation above, we can conclude that discourse analysis is a linguistic study that examines the using of language which fulfilled some criteria of internal linguistic. The major concern is investigating language functions along with its forms, produced both spoken and written. Moreover, identification toward cultural and social aspects is also the domain of discourse analysis, especially in critical discourse analysis.

8.6 Text and Context in Discourse Analysis

Based on Brown and Yule's opinion, discourse analysis is fundamentally concerned with the 'general principles of interpretation by which people normally make sense of what they hear and read' (Brown and Yule 1983). What they hear and read is the text of discourse. Then, text has relation to the context. Context is a world filled with people producing utterances: people who have social, cultural, and personal identities, knowledge, beliefs, goals, and wants, and who interact with one another in various socially and culturally defines situation (Schiffrin, 1994:364).

Context is also defined as the background knowledge that is understood by the speaker and hearer or writer and reader to interpret the utterance's meaning. Context that refers to the physical utterance is called co-text, whereas context that refers to social environment of the utterance is context. There are some types of context:

- Context of situation

  (Who is speaking to whom, when, where, and for what purpose; the physical setting, the social scene in which the

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discourse occurs; the roles and status of the participants involved).

- Context of culture

  (The speech community; what is possible for, or normally done by, members of the community; the speech events participated in, the speech act performed, the topics talked about).

- Context as co-text

  (The prior and upcoming text; what has just been said. What was earlier said, what comes next)

- Cognitive context

  (Knowledge as a set of recognizable conventions, rules, norms and shares assumptions; the process of inference tied to current activity and general expectations) (Georgakopoulo, 1997:18).

According to the types of context above, context of situation is the best codification of context elements that closed to speech event. Hymes said that speech events are the largest units of language activity, which occur in a non-verbal context, the speech situation. There are some important elements in speech events, which is usually called concept of SPEAKING;

S (Setting or scene/ time and place)

P (Participants and their roles)

E (Ends or purposes)

A (Act sequence including the message form, medium and content)

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K (Manner or mood of communication; formal, informal, casual, relaxed, etc.

I (Instrumentalities; verbal or non verbal channel)

N (Norms of interaction)

G (Genre).

The context of the text in discourse is the product of the writer or speaker. Then, the reader or the listener interprets the text based on their background knowledge. Discourse analysis is interested in the analysis of context mainly because text and context provide evidence for indispensable for each other. Now, we can see that context is a part of the text; text is a part of discourse analysis.

8.7 Levels of Discourse Analysis

From the linguistic point of view discourse analysis can be divided into three levels. According to Crystal, the fundamentals of discourse analysis is in the first level which heavily depends on the choice of the type of discourse, more particularly written or spoken (1997:16). Spoken discourse is widely recognized as phonetics that deals with vocal performance of human beings. Crystal adds that these disciplines form the first level of discourse analysis.

The second level studies transcripts from the phonological point of view. It means that it focuses on "punctuation, capitalization, spacing etc". The third level "studies the outcome of graphological and phonological organization" (Crystal 1997: 18). It means that this level could be assumed to be more complex and thus very broad. Crystal further comments on this level of analysis and two different

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fields have been distinguished. It is grammar and vocabulary. The former mentioned term studies words (morphology) and word's position in the sentence (syntax). The analysis of vocabulary should provide information about the choice of "specific lexical items"(Crystal 1997: 19) which means that it can be differentiated whether a word, used by a participant in a particular context and in a specific sentence structure, is of an individual or general use.

Summary

Discourse is a written or spoken text that has some criteria which have to be fulfilled to qualify such as cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativeness, and intertextuality. Discourse has relation to the text. Text is the result of communicative act; it can be written or spoken, while discourse is the umbrella term for either spoken or written communication beyond the sentence. There are two kind of text; written text (a text that is wrote by the writer and spoken text (verbal record of communicative act). Discourse can be seen in two ways; formal discourse (more strictly in that it requires the use of passive voice, lack of contracted forms together with impersonality, complex sentence structure) and informal discourse (makes use of active voice mainly). Links in discourse studies are divided into two groups: formal (it refers to facts that are present in the analyzed text) and contextual (it refers to the outside world, the knowledge which is not included in the communicative product itself).

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Discourse analysis is a linguistic study that examines the using of language which fulfilled some criteria of internal linguistic. Discourse also has relation to context. Context is the background knowledge that is understood by the speaker and hearer or writer and reader to interpret the utterance's meaning. Context that refers to the physical utterance is called co-text and context that refers to social environment of the utterance is context. There are some kinds of context; context of situation, context of culture, context as co-text, cognitive context. Dell Hymes has different view in context of situation. He mentioned some points in concept of situation such as SPEAKING; S (Setting or scene/ time and place), P (Participants and their roles), E (Ends or purposes), A (Act sequence including the message form, medium and content), K (Manner or mood of communication; formal, informal, casual, relaxed, etc., I (Instrumentalities; verbal or non verbal channel), N (Norms of interaction), and G (Genre).

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Chapter 9
SOCIOLINGUISTICS

9.1 Definition of Sociolinguistics

The term language cannot be separated from society because they have relation each other. Language is a medium for communication, whereas society is the people who use it, or we can say the user of language. In linguistics, the relation between language and society refer to the science that we know as sociolinguistics. There some opinions about sociolinguistics, such as Janet Holmes (1992: 1), he said that sociolinguistics is the study of the relationship between language and society.

Dell Hymes (1974: vii), also stated that sociolinguistics could be taken to refer to use of linguistic data and analysis in other discipline concerned with social life and conversely, to use of social data and analysis in linguistics. From Hymes' definition we can take an example; in social life we find two different registers in a language. Then we relate it to the social phenomenon such as different sex, for example register A is used by woman and register B is used by the man. So we can analyze, which register that is used by the woman and which one that is used by the man.

The next definition is fromTrudgill (1974), he said that sociolinguistics is that part of linguistics which is connected with language as a social and cultural phenomenon. It means that language is not only social phenomenon but also cultural phenomenon; each society has their own culture. Then, we think that society as the user of language has local custom and culture in their life. In this case, language is a part of culture (language in culture), language cannot stand alone (language and culture).

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Whatever linguists said about sociolinguistics, there are three important points in sociolinguistics; language, society and the relation between language and society.

9.2 Dialects

All human being can communicate each other, but only speakers can do it. In this case, all English speakers use language to make the other understand what they said. In a communication usually appear some differences of the language use. The difference is caused by some factors, such as age, social situation, sex, and so on. For the first factor, we can see that different age has different language use. For example, children have different pronunciation or unperfected grammatical rule because they are still in learning or in a process of language acquisition.

Of course it is different with the adult because they acquired the language. Another example, we can see in social situation, when the situation is formal such as at office or school, people use formal language, but when the situation is in informal, of course, people will use informal language, such as at home or a meeting with friends. The difference above is reflected in word choices, words pronunciation and grammatical rules. The language of an individual speaker with its unique characteristics is called idiolect. So, there are some idiolects in each a language.

We can see the fact that each group of people has different ways of systematic with the other group in the same language. We can say that each group speaks a dialect of that language. It is according to Victoria's opinion (2011 ; 430 and 433), she said that dialects are mutually intelligible forms of a language that differ in systematic ways. It can be said a dialect if a dialect that we used is understood by the other dialect user.

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A dialect is used by a group of people; rich or poor, high education or not, regardless of region or racial origin and just as each individual speaks an idiolect. If a dialect is happened because of the geographical region and it has own characteristics, it is called regional dialect, for example the origin of many regional dialects of American English can be traced to the people who settled in North America in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Because they came from different parts of England, these early settlers already spoke different dialects of English, and these differences were carried to the original thirteen American colonies.

By the time of the American Revolution, there were three major dialects areas in the British colonies; the northern dialect spoken in New England and around the Hudson River; the Midland dialect spoken in Pennsylvania; and the Southern dialect. These dialects differ from one to another and from the English spoken in England in systematic ways.

Dialects are not only happened because of the region but also it is happened because of social status. People can be grouped together on the basis of similar social and economic factors such us socioeconomic status, castes, religious, ethnic differences, etc. For example; people in different social classes speak differently. It can be associated with different social prestige, wealth and education, for example in England, people from high class uses the word *sitting room*, while low class used the word *longue*. We see also in Javanese, Indonesia, people who have high education say *kursi* for chair, while people from low education say *kathil* or *dinglik* for chair.

Social dialect which is happened because of castes, we can see in Bali particularly, there are caste systems determined by birth, and strict social rules govern such matters as the kind of job a person can have, who they can marry, how they should behave in a range of social situation. A person's dialect reflects their social background, such as in Indian language,

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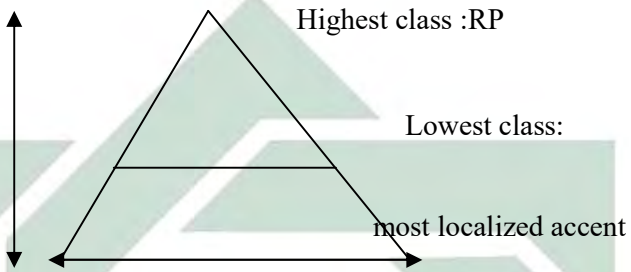
Brahmins caste pronounce the word ‘’milk’’ is *haalu*, while non Brahmins says *aalu*. In Bagdad the Christian, Muslim, and Jewish groups all speak different varieties of Arabic. Another example is group of people that have different ethnic will speak differently with the other ethnic, such as *madurese* ethnic and *Javanese* ethnic, they have different language.



Regional variation

(taken from Holmes, 1992:143).

From the picture above, we can see that there are two lines, vertical line is social variation or social dialect and horizontal line is regional variation or regional dialect. Then, on the top of the triangle is high class use RP. RP tend to receive pronunciation. It refers to the accent of the best educated and most prestigious members of English society, like the Queens’s English and it was promoted by the BBC for decades. So, RP is only used by the highest class, while lowest class used local accent.

In the last explanation we can conclude that accents are distinguished from each other by pronunciation alone, while dialects are generally distinguishable in pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar. Regional dialects involve features of pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar which differ

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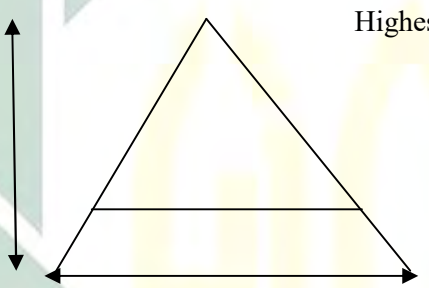
according to the geographical area of speakers come from. While social dialect is distinguished by features of pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar according to the social group of speakers.

9.3 Standard of Language

Although there some dialects in a language, of course only one dialect that can be called a standard dialect. In British for example, just RP (receive pronunciation) that is called Standard English because it was received by royal court and it is the dialect used by well-educated English speakers throughout the world. So, in Standard English a limited amount of grammatical variation is acceptable. Standard language is also can be drawn in a triangle as follow;



(taken from Holmes, 1992:145).

English British Standard is different with Standard American English. There are some dialects in America such as African American English, Chicago dialect, Philadelphia dialects, and so on. But, only America Standard American English that is judged as idealization dialect where many

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speakers are should be spoken. In fact, no one uses this dialect because if someone did, we should not know, Standard American English is not defined precisely.

The language standard is used by highest class, while lower class uses non-standard language. Non-standard language is associated with the speech of less prestigious groups but it has no negative connotation. Some sociolinguists changed the terms non-standard became vernacular. Vernacular language contrast with standard language, but it has refine meaning. Vernacular forms tend to be learned at home used in informal context.

9.4 Lingua Franca

Lingua franca appears as the fact in a language in this world. Each people can communicate with the other people that have different language by lingua franca. It can be called as a bridge for two or more of different language. Lingua franca is used as common agreement. It is according to Holmes (1992:87), he stated that a lingua franca is a language used for communication between people whose first language differs. Between the Colombian Indians, Tukano is the main lingua franca, and it can be used with Indians who live in the Vaupes area of the northwest Amazon on both sides of the border between Colombia and Brazil. If Indians want to communicate with non-Indians in the area they need a second lingua franca, since non-Indians rarely learn Tukano. Colombia use Spanish and Brazilians use Portugese.

In this world, English as a lingua franca that is used by the world's speaker and is standard used at business meeting, academic conferences, trade, and politics and so on. For example, in a particular situation, some people whose came from various state in the world such as India, Ireland,

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Dutch, Africa, Indonesia, America, and so on held a politics meeting, then they used English as the lingua franca. Because they have different language each other, so lingua franca is used to make their communication running well, in this case, lingua franca as the political language. Some students who come from various state, continue their education to Egypt, they will use Arabic as lingua franca because Arabic is national language in Egypt. The most lingua Franca is used as trade language, it influence of economic factors. In multilingual communities, lingua franca is so useful they may eventually displace the languages. It is happened when people from different ethnic group marry with another ethnic. They will use lingua franca in their area as language at home because their children learn little of their father's and mother's language.

9.5 Pidgins and Creoles

According to the History of language, pidgins develop during the seventeenth, eighteenth, and nineteenth century, in trade colonies along the coasts of China, Africa, and the new world. These pidgins arose through contact between speakers of colonial European languages such as English, French, Portuguese, and Dutch and the indigenous, non-European languages. In nineteenth century, pidgin is used by the Caribbean slavery in United Stated. At the time in on slave plantation, people were deliberately separated from others who used the same tribal language so as to reduce the risk of their plotting to rebel or escape. In order to communicate with each other, they developed pidgins based on the language of the plantation bosses as well as their own languages.

In another context, pidgins is used by the traders in the worlds who used a colonial language such as Spanish or Portugese or English, and African, Chinese, Indians, or American Indian that they were trading with.

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The word pidgin is appropriate with language of trade, may be because of the word pidgin is derived from the word business as pronounced in the pidgin English which develop in China, or may be from the word *pidjom* (trade or exchange) as in Hebrew.

A pidgin is a language that has no native speaker because it is created by the people who do not have a common language. It is also created from the combined efforts of people who speak different languages. It is not used for prestige; it is just simplification of language that is included sound, vocabulary and grammatical feature. It can be called as the new language that is simpler than the genuinely language. The process of simplification is called pidginization.

The pidgin language usually tend to reduce grammatical signals to a minimum even in lack of grammatical signal such as auxiliary verbs, prepositions, articles and inflectional morphology including tense and case endings, for examples; *She is a pretty girl* in pidgin language became *she pretty girl*, *I do not have money*, became *I no money*. Another example is also in affixed morphology; in English pidgin have the word *sus* from the English *shoes*, but the word *sus* just refers to the singular form.

Pidgin can be called as a lingua franca because it is only used for certain requirement, such as trade, education and so on. It will appear, when that function appears. From the explanation above, we can make summary that there are three characteristics of a pidgin language; 1) it is used in restricted domains and function, 2) it generally has low prestige; 3) it has a simplified structure than the source languages. Generally pidgin has a short live, may be because the user of pidgin or the speakers of pidgin change to common language or maybe there is a social pressure for speakers to learn a standard language. In a trading pidgin usually disappears when the trade

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between the groups dies out. But, if the trade grows, the pidgin usually will develop to the other language or will become Creole.

Pidgin has contrary term, it is a Creole. Creole is an expansion of pidgin. It is a language that has developed by the people as a native language of speakers' generation. It is learned by the children as the first language and used in all domains in daily life. In contrast to pidgin, Creole has expanded in structure and vocabulary, inflectional morphology, plurality and so on, to show the range meaning and functions required of a first language. Creole languages also stress on the tense, for example the changing from present into past tense '' *he plays the guitar*'' became '' *he played the guitar''*. The past tense is signaled by the particle –ed. Of course, it has influence to the meaning of a sentence. The process of expansion in a structure of language is called creolization.

Pidgins and creoles show the crucial role of social factors in the development of languages, since it is the meanings which motivate the structural changes, and the functional demands which lead to linguistic elaboration. The pidgin developed into a Creole. A Creole has developed as a language in fact and it can be used for all the function of any language such as administrations, politics, education, and so on. Creoles also can be accepted to a standard language and official language. The long explanation of it, will be discuss in the deep sociolinguistics.

Summary

Sociolinguistics is the study of the relationship between language and society. There are some points in sociolinguistics. First is dialect. It is a language that is used by a group of people; the language of an individual speaker with its unique characteristics is called idiolect, If a dialect is

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happened because of the geographical region and it has own character, it is called regional dialect. Second is standard language is language variety that need process of standardization from the grammarians and government. It is usually used by well-educated speakers. Third is lingua franca. It is a language used for communication between people whose first language differs. It is usually used in business meeting, academic conferences, trade, and politics and so on.

Fourth is pidgin **(**language that has no native speaker because it is created by the people who do not have a common language). It is also created from the combined efforts of people who speak different language. Its characteristics are 1) it is used in restricted domains and function, 2) it generally has low prestige; 3) it has a simplified structure than the source languages. The last point is creole is an expansion of pidgin. It is a language that has developed by the people as a native language of speakers' generation. It is learned by the children as the first language and used in all domains in daily life. Creole has expanded in structure and vocabulary, inflectional morphology, plurality and so on.

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Chapter 10
PSYCHOLINGUISTICS

10.1 Definition of Psycholinguistics

Language is not only has relation to the society, but also to the mind. In the mind, we will know where language is produced, which part of our brain that take important role in language and how is language acquitted by the human being. All the cases above has relation to the mind, so it refers to the science ‘’psychology’’.

The word psycholinguistics is derived from the terms linguistics psychology or psychology of language. Then, psycholinguist combines those terms into psycholinguistics. From the statements above, we can define that psycholinguistics is the study of language and psychology combination. Because psychology has relation to the brain, so we also define that psycholinguistics is the study of language and the brain; how it functions in the production, perception and acquisition of language.

10.2 Language and Brain

Each human being has brain. It is the most complex organ of our body because it controls the activity of our body. The average weight of human adult’s brain is 1 to 1,5 kg. It consists of some parts that will explain next. At the first time, a study of the combination between brain and language is called neurolinguistics. Neurolinguistics research is often based on data from a typical or impaired language

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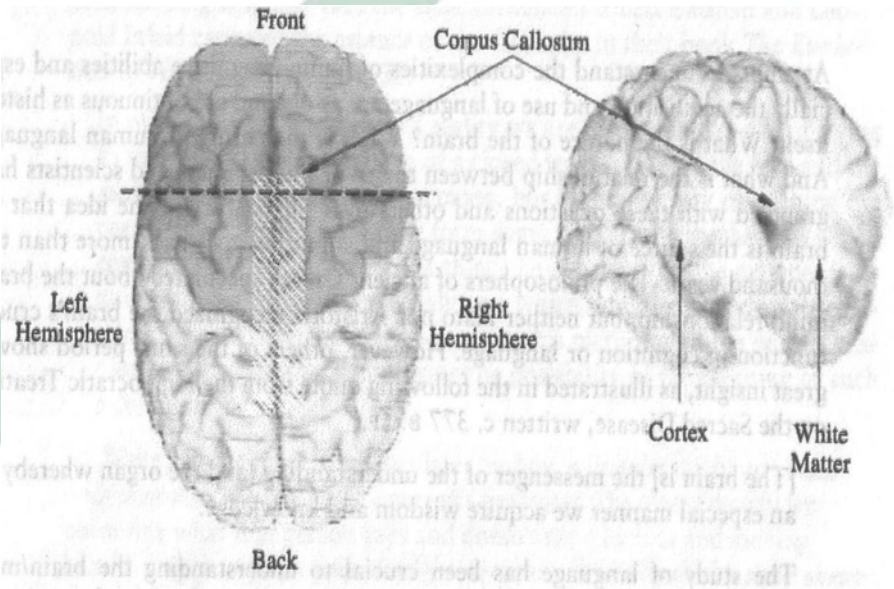
and uses such data to understand properties of human language in general. As the development of language, linguists include neurolinguistics into psycholinguistics. They considered that neurolinguistics is a part of psycholinguistics.

Language and brain cannot be separated because language is produced in the brain. The brain has some important parts, see the picture below; the first picture is taken from Fromkin, 2011 : 45, and the second from Steinberg, 2001:310.



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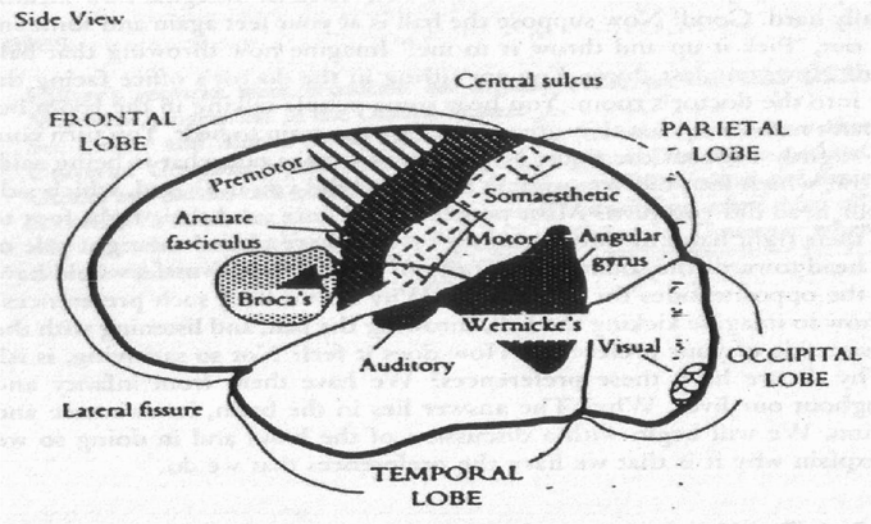

From the picture above, we can see that the brain is consisted of two hemispheres; left hemisphere and right hemisphere. The left hemisphere controls the right side of the body (the right hand, the right arm, and the right side of the face) while the right hemisphere controls the left side of the body. It is similarly with the statement that sensory information from the left side of the body is received by the right hemisphere of the brain, and sensory input to the right side of the body is received by the left hemisphere. But the left hemisphere dominated the right hemisphere. It can be proved by fact that most people tend to use the right parts of their body, particularly right hand and right foot. Then, there is a bundle of fibres that is called the corpus callosum between left cerebral hemisphere and right cerebral hemisphere. It is a network of more than 200 million fibres. It has function to connect the two hemispheres each other.

Each hemisphere is covered by the cortex, which is a furrowed outer layer of cell matter. It is the cortex that is concern with higher

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brain functions in both humans and animals. Each hemisphere is divided into four parts or lobes: from front to back there are the *frontal, temporal, parietal* (located above the temporal), and *the occipital*. General functions such as cognition occur in the frontal lobe, hearing occurs in the temporal lobe, general somaesthetic sensing (feeling in the arm, legs, face, and so on) in the parietal lobe, and vision in the occipital lobes The Corpus callosum not only serves to connect the hemispheres but is itself a principal integrator and coordinator of the mental processes carried out in the two hemispheres (Steinberg, 2001:311).

Besides, the hemispheres have general functions, it also have specialized structures and functions. Some functions occur in one hemisphere while other functions occur in another hemisphere. The separations of the hemisphere functions are called lateralization. In this case, language is in the left hemisphere, while in recognizing faces, recognizing emotions are in right hemisphere. Based on the research there are two opinions in lateralization. The first opinion said that the specialization of the hemisphere function according to the lateralization; language is in the left hemisphere, while in recognizing faces, recognizing emotions are in right hemisphere. Another opinion stated that although the two hemispheres have different functions, they still have relation each other. It can be seen in some cases; when the person had damaged in his right hemisphere, he can produce language but he cannot tell the narration of the events that was happened to him. The next case is when the child before his age 11, then he had damaged in his left hemisphere, he is still able to produce language in

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despite of as the normal children. It means that the right hemisphere also have a role in language although it is not perfect as left hemisphere.

Relation between language and the brain is found by Pierre Paul Broca (1824 – 1880). He is a pathologist and neurosurgeon from French. He made the great discovery regarding brain and language. The part of the cortex that is involved with the production of the speech is called broca's area. The term broca is taken from his name Broca. He stated that the speech area is contiguous to the region of the motor cortex which controls the movement of the muscles of the articulators of speech such as lips, tongue, jaw, soft palate, hard palate, and so on. So, speech is formulated in Bronca's area then, articulated through the motor area.

The next name of the brain's organ is given by Carl Wernicke (1848 – 1905), so his discovered is given name *Wernikce's area*. He is a neurologist from German. He discovered that near the part of the cortex in the temporal lobe which receives auditory stimuli, an area which is involved in the understanding of speech. According to him, when a word is read, the information goes from the eyes to the visual area of the cortex in the occipital lobe, from there to the angular gyrus, then to wernicke's area and then to Broca's area, which causes the auditory form of the word to be activated (Steinberg, 2001:323).

10.3 Language Acquisition.

The uniqueness of human being is not only on their ability to think but also to speak. The ability to speak is in language

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competence. Language competence cannot be separated from the terms acquisition and learning. Then, what is acquisition? And what is learning? Acquisition is a process of the children who has learned to acquire their mother language, while learning is a process which is done in a formal education. The use of terms above made contravention between the linguists.

There are two differences theory in a mechanism of language acquisition. They are rationalism and empirism. The pioneer of the rationalism ideology is Noam Chomsky. He said that language competence is innate. It means that each human being that was born has the brain as a language acquisition device, so the language will be acquire naturally. He also stated that the children have natural ability to evolve language, this natural ability works automatically when the children exposure the language.

The second theory is given by B.F. Skinner. His theory is known as empirism or behaviorism. This theory stated that language is a function of reinforcement. It means that parents teach their children by reinforcement in each verbal behavior. By the reinforcement, the children learn to give the name of things, so naming that they see every day are saved in their memory, and then they do observation in their environment. From this theory can be concluded that the children acquire language by learning and experiencing process that they get from the environment.

If it is true that language acquisition is by the learning process, the process of language acquisition is not instantaneously. It needs long process. The first step begins by the babbling. The children

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around seventh month begin to babble, try to produce a repeated syllables such as '*papa', 'momo', 'tata'*, ect. Most of the syllables are the basic consonants and vowels. Then, they acquire their first words, and in just a few months they begin to put words together into sentences.

The explanation above is a process of the language acquisition, especially for first language acquisition. First language is a language that is acquired for the first time, or it can be called mother tongue, while second language acquisition is a language that is acquired after the first language. According to Steinberg, 2001:169, there are some factors that is involved in second language acquisition. It can be divided into three categories; psychological, social situation and other psychological variables.

1. Psychological. In this section, we shall consider;
   - Intellectual processing which is involved in an individual's analytical determination of grammatical structures and rules,
   - Memory which is essential if language learning is to occur and remain,
   - Motor skills which concern the pronunciation of the sounds involved in the second language, for example the use of the articulators of speech (tongue, lips, mouth, vocal cord, etc.)
2. Social Situation

   The types of situations, settings, and interactions which an individual experiences can affect the learning of a second

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language. Thus, we will be concerned with where and with whom exposure to the second language occurs. In particular, the natural situation such as, family, play or workplace in contrast to the classroom situation will be focused on.

3. Other Psychological Variables

   In the last factor, we shall see the effect of other individual factors such as what the person's first language is, and how motivation, attitude, and other individual factors may affect learning.

First language is very influence in a learning of second language. Relationship between first and second language will determine the rate of learning, for example, English is our first language, then we learn French as the second language, it will not difficult because there is small differences between English and French. We will find some difficulties, if our first language is English, then we learn Indonesian. It happens because there some differentiation each other, such as vocabulary, pronunciation, morphology and so on.

Based on the explanation above it can be concluded that second language acquisition is more difficult than the first language acquisition, because there are some differences between second language and first language. How about, if we have question, is the first language more difficult than the others? Some linguists answer that none language is more difficult than any other languages, and none language is easier to learn than any other languages.

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Summary

Psycholinguistics is the study of language and brain; how it functions in the production, perception and acquisition of language. Language cannot be separated from the brain, because language is produced in our brain. The brain is consisted of two hemispheres; right hemisphere and left hemisphere. Left hemisphere dominated the right hemisphere. Language is in the left hemisphere, while in recognizing faces, recognizing emotions are in right hemisphere. Brain also takes role in language acquisition. Acquisition is a process of the children who has learned to acquire their mother language.

There are two theories of language acquisition. First is from Noam Chomsky. He said that language competence is innate. It means that each human being that was born has the brain as a language acquisition device, so the language will be acquire naturally. Second is from Skinner. According to him, the children acquire language by the learning process and the experienced that they got from the environment. Both of them are true because each human being has language acquisition device naturally, and he/she must learn to develop his/her language.

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Chapter 11
HISTORICAL LINGUISTICS

11.1 Introduction of Historical Linguistics

Historical linguistics is the study of language change. Commonly, it is known as diachronic linguistics. The term diachronic is derived from Greek *dia-* ''through'' + *chronos* ''time'' + *-ic.* Diachronic linguistics concerned to language change or language over time, for example we study linguistics changes from Old English to Modern English. While synchronic linguistics refers to a language at a one point in time, for example, we write an English grammar at present-day as a spoken in some particular speech community.

Why historical linguistics is very important? because it contributes significantly to other sub-areas of linguistics (the reconstruction of earlier stages of languages) and to linguistics theory (phonological, grammatical, and semantic changes, etc.). So, historical linguistic can be said as the foundation in studying linguistics. Diachronic linguistics become a theory in seeing language and has two assumptions. The first assumption related to the changes in language and the second assumption of these theories was that languages evolved from common sources are genetically related.

11.2 Kinds of Linguistic Changes

According to the first assumption that historical linguistics related to the changes in language, there are some kinds of linguistic changes (sound change, grammatical change, lexical change,

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semantics change, borrowing and so on.).These changes appeared in each period. There are four periods of linguistic changes, Old English, Middle English, Early of Modern English and Modern English. If we want to see the linguistic changes in each period, we can see the changes in translation of the Bible below, as a small sample from various stages of English.

1. Old English (The West-Saxon Gospels, c. 1050):
   *Þ*a æfter lytlum fyrste genēalæton *Þ*a ðe *Þ*ær stodon, cwædon to petre. Soðlice *Þ*u aert of hym, *Þ*yn spræc gesweotolað.
   (Literally: then after little first approached they that there stood, said to peter. Truly thou art of them, thy speech thee makes clear.)
2. Middle English (The Wycliff Bible, fourteen century):
   And a litil aftir, thei that stooden camen, and seiden to Petir, treuli thou art of hem; for thi speche makith thee knowun.
3. Early Modern English (The King James Bible, 1611):
   And after a while came vnto him they that stood by, and siade to Peter, Surely thou also art one of them, for thy speech bewrayeth thee.
4. Modern English (The New English Bible, 1961):
   Shortly afterwards the bystanders came up and said to Peter, ‘surely you are another of them; you accent gives you away!’ (Campbell, 1998: 7).

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Based on the translation in each period above, we can compare the linguistic changes. There are some significant changes between Old English (c.450-1066) and Modern English. The first changes are about sound change; English has undergone many changes in pronunciation since Old English times, we can see in example above. The loss of final *–n* in certain circumstances such as the word *þyn* 'thy' (modern 'your'), in *þ*yn *spræc* 'thy speech' (modern 'your accent). The lost of *r* from *spræc* 'speech' (compare with German *Sprache* 'language,speech', where the *r* is retained). The changes also found in vowels; Great Vowel Shift, in which essentially long vowels raised (and long high vowels /i:/ and /u:/ became diphthongs, /ai/ and /au/, respectively). It can be seen in the comparison of some Old English words with their Modern English equivalents:

Soðlice /so:θ-/	soothly /suθ-/ ('soothly, truly')
*Þ*u / θu:/	thou /ðau/
*Þ*yn / θi:n/	thy/ðai/
*Þ*e/ θe:/	thee/ði/

The second change is lexical change. There are some loss of vocabulary items represented by words in the translation above, such as *genēalæton* 'approached', *cwædon* 'said', *Soðlice* 'truly', and *gesweotolað* 'show', reveal'. The third change is grammatical change. In grammatical change, we found the loss of the subject-verb inversion when other material preceded in the clause. It can be seen in a comparison of *genēalæton þa* 'approaced they' in modern 'they approached'. The loss of case endings, such as in a word *æfter lytlum*, where the *–um* 'dative plural' is lost and no longer required after

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prepositions such as after. the change in Middle English is the loss of the *–n* 'third person plural' verbal agreement marker in *genēalæton* '(they) approached', *stodon* '(they) stood' and *cwædon* '(they) said'. Another change is the loss of the prefix *ge-* of *genēalæton* 'approached' and *gesweotolað* 'shows'. This was reduced in time from [je] to [j] to [i] and finally lost, so that many perfect forms ('has done', 'had done') were no longer distinct from the simple past ('did'); that is, in the case of *sing/sang /have sung*, these remain distinct, but in the case of *bring/brought/have brought* they are not distinct, though formerly the have brought form would have borne the *ge-* prefix, distinguishing it from the *brought* ('past') without the prefix, which is now lost from the language. The last change is about orthographic. In Old English we found the sound *þ* 'thorn' and ð 'eth' have been dropped and are spelled today with th for both the voiceless (θ) and voiced (ð) dental fricatives. The æ (called 'ash', from Old English *æsc,* its name in the runic alphabet) is also no longer used.

Beside we compare of two periods, Old English and Modern English, we can compare between Middle English and Modern English also. The first, we can see the sound change from the Middle English words *stooden, camen*, and *seiden* equivalents with Modern English words *stood, came* and *said*, so the final *–n* was lost by regular sound change (not in past participle, such as written). It has relation to the grammatical change. When final *–n* was lost by sound change, the grammatical change was brought about that verbs no longer had this agreement marker (*-n*) for the plural persons. The last change is borrowing. Most of the words in Middle English were

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influenced by Scandinavian, for example the word *hem* is the original third person plural object pronoun, became *them* in Modern English.

How about the linguistic change, from Early Modern English to Modern English? There are no many changes in Early Modern English to Modern English. The first change is sound change. In Early Modern English was not pronounced in exactly the same way as Modern English. The second change is lexical. The word *bewrayeth* in Early Modern English has been replaced by the word 'speak evil of, to expose (a deception) in Modern English. Based on this context, it means that Peter's way of speaking, his accent. The third change is about grammatical (syntactic and morphological change). In syntactic change, the words *came vnto* (unto) *him they*, equivalent with the words *they came to him*, in Modern English. The rule of Early Modern English was influenced by Germanic language, but that rule has been lost in Modern English, such as *came they* (Early Modern English) change to *they came* (Modern English).

Another grammatical change can be seen in the distinction of the words *thou…. art* and *you are*. Formerly, the word *thou* were 'you (singular familiar)' and contrasted with ye/you 'you (plural or singular formal) but the distinction was lost. The –eth of *bewrayeth* was the 'third person singular', verb agreement suffix; it was replaced in time by –(e)s (giveth > gives). The next linguistic change is borrowing: (the word *accent* in Modern English is a loanword from Old French *accent*) and orthography (spelling convention; from *vnto* to *unto*) Campbell, 1998: 8-9).

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The explanation above is examples of linguistic change. We knew that English Modern was influenced by some other languages. Language also change because the community in which it is spoken change. Different cultures come into contact, one may be dominating another. New discoveries and invention have to be named. In English case, linguistic change was happened because of some colonizer came to England, such as Roman, German, Scandinavian, France, and so on. Of course, when new people and new language had came to a country, the amalgamation between two peoples and also two languages appeared between them and it will influence to the native language.

We can take the history of other countries, when they came to England. Roman as the first colonizer, conquered some districts in England, then brought Christian religion to England, whereas at that time the People of England as paganism. In this case, Roman used Latin as the language in the church and also in the Bible. Of course, people of England learned Latin, and automatically two languages mixed in England.

The second new comer was German. German (Anglo and Saxon) came to England not for conquered, but they came to England because of an appeal for help of Celt (one of the district in England that was conquered by Roman). Celt proposed to German to face Pick and Scott (the districts that could not be conquered by Roman). Celt allowed German to live in England. They lived in England side by side, of course two languages mixed between them. English was influenced by Germanic. We can see in Old English, there some words that almost the same with Germanic, for example English

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open—German *offen;* English *water* German *wasser;* English *pound*—German *pfund;* English *tongue*—German *zunge*, and so on. Besides that German also influenced the noun of Old English; feminine, masculine and neutral and grouped it into four cases, nominative, genitive, dative, and accusative.

The third of new comer in England was Scandinavian (Denmark). When Scandinavian came to England, the amalgamation of two peoples appeared between them. Of course, it had impact to the English, for example: Scandinavian countries it retained its hard *sk* sound. Consequently, while native words like *ship, shall, fish* have *sh* in Modern English, words borrowed from the Scandinavians are generally still pronounced with *sk: sky, skin, skill, scrape, scrub, bask, whisk*. The Old English *scyrte* has become *shirt,* while the corresponding Old Norse(Scandinavian's language) form *skyrta* gives us *skirt*. In the same way the retention of the hard pronunciation of *k* and *g* in such words as *kid, dike*, the Following pairs between English and Scandinavian (the English word is given first): *no—nay, whole—hale, rear—raise, from—fro, craft—skill, hide—skin,* and so on.

The next of colonizer was Norman (the people from French; Normandy). When Norman came to England, English was used for the lower class and middle class, whereas French was used for the upper class and middle class. In this period, two languages also mixed in England's society. The middle class should learn two languages (English and French) because their position as a bridge, that was to connect between lower class and upper class. The lower class also learned French because they had married with the Norman. The

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influence of the foreign languages to English was not only in words form but also pronunciation, grammatical gender, adjective, definite article, syntax and so on. All of them gave impact to the linguistic change.

The process of linguistic change through the borrowing, it was not only words but also any linguistics material such as sounds, phonological rules, grammatical morphemes, syntactic patterns, and so on such as in examples above. It is common for one language to take words from another language and make them part of its own language (loanwords), and the process of it is called borrowing. In borrowing, of course, there are two or more languages that mixed up with the borrowing; the language which borrows or recipient language and the language which is borrowed from or donor languages.

There are some matters that we have to know in borrowing. The first is about loanword. Loanword is a word which has been 'borrowed' from another language. A word that originally was not part of the vocabulary of the recipient language but was adopted from some other and made a part of the borrowing language's vocabulary, for example, Old English did not have the word *pork*; this became an English word only after it was adopted from French *porc* 'pig, pork',borrowed in the late Middle English period, so the word *pork* is a French loanword in English. French has also borrowed words from English, for example *bifteck* 'beefsteak', and see the example of English's words that was borrowed from another language;

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English's words	**Donor words and its country**
ketchup	from Malay *kechap*, taken by Dutch as *ketjap*
chocolate	from Spanish *chocolate*
Flour	from French *fleur*
tomato	from Spanish *tomate*
Juice	from French *jus*
Pantry	from Old Frech *paneterie*
pepper	from Germanic people via Latin *piper*
and so on	……

There are two reasons, why do languages borrow from another language? It is because of need and prestige. When speakers of a language acquire some new concept from abroad, they need terms to go along with the new acquisition; often a foreign name is borrowed along with the new concept. So, that's why many languges have similar words, for example the words: *tobacco*' (Finnish *tupakka*, Indonesian *tembakau*, Japanese *tabako*, Arabic t*ā*baq), 'coffee' (Russian kofe, Finnish kahvi, Japanese kōhii) and the other words.

The next reason is for prestige because the foreign term for some reason is highly esteemed. Usually, the borrowing for prestige is called 'luxury' loan. For example, English had the words '*pig meat'* or *'cow meat'*, but for reasons of prestise, those words are replaced by the loanword *pork* (from French *porc*) and beef (from French *boeuf*), another words such as '*kitchen'*, borrowed from French '*cuisine*'. Some of English's loanwords are from French because French had

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more social status and was considered more prestigious than English during the period of Norman (French) dominance in England.

11.3 Language Family

As in second assumption that of these theories was that languages evolved from common sources are genetically related. These languages were once dialects of the same language. Dialect means only a variety of a language, which is mutually intelligible with other dialects of the same language. Dialect usually use in sociolinguistics as a minority language, but in this case, dialect is used to refer to a daughter language of a language family. Language means any district linguistics variety which is mutually unintelligible with other such varieties. A language family is a group of genetically related languages, that is, languages which share a linguistic kinship by virtue of having developed from a common ancestor.

Many linguistics families are designated with the suffix –an, as in, for example, Algonquian, Austronesian, Indo-European, Sino-Tibetan, and so on. Language families can be of different magnitudes; that is, they can involve different time depths, so that some larger-scale families may include smaller-scale families among their members or branches (Campbell, 1998:165). Branch is used to refer to a group of language within a language family which are more closely related to each other than to other languages of that family. As a proto language, for example proto Indo-European develops daughter languages proto Celtic, proto Germanic, proto Italic and so on. Then proto Germanic develops daughter languages of its own such as

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German, English, Swedish, and so on. While earlier forms of Romance languages, such as Spanish, French, and Italian were from proto Latin. Furthermore, earlier forms of Proto-Germanic and Latin were once dialects of Indo-European. See the Indo-European family tree below:

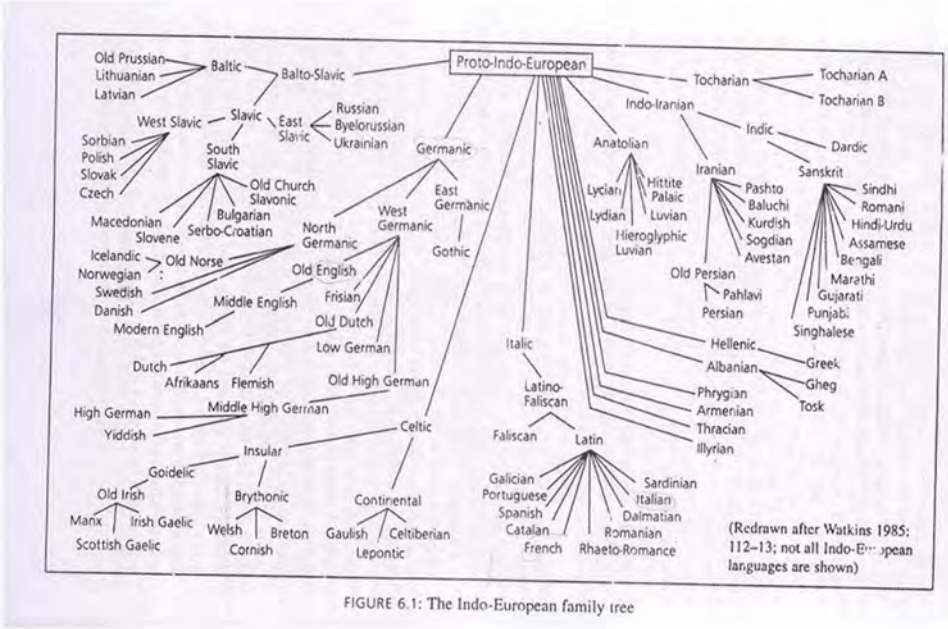

FIGURE 6.1: The Indo-European family tree

From the family tree above, we can see that Modern English has relation to other languages. Modern English is the result of the development of the English periods before. Each period of English was influenced by the other languages that had the same proto with English, Old Norse for example; this language is used by Scandinavian. Scandinavian is one of the new comer or colonizer which came to England before Modern English. Then it had great influence to English at that time. Exactly, the position of Old Norse is

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the same with English. It means that Old Norse and English came from one proto Germanic. So, each language has relation to the other languages.

Summary

Historical linguistics is the study of language change or it can be called diachronic linguistics (study of language in more than one period of time). There are two assumptions in diachronic linguistics; the first assumption related to the changes in language and the second assumption of these theories was that languages evolved from common sources are genetically related. Based on the first assumption that historical linguistics related to the changes in language, there are some kinds of linguistic changes (sound change, grammatical change, lexical change, semantics change, borrowing and so on.).These changes appeared in each period. There are four periods of linguistic changes, Old English, Middle English, Early of Modern English and Modern English.

Linguistic change was happened because of some colonizer came to England, such as Roman, German, Scandinavian, France, and so on. Of course, when new people and new language had came to a country, the amalgamation between two peoples and also two languages appeared between them and it will influence to the native language. According to second assumption, language genetically has relation to the other languages. We learn it in a language family. A language family is a group of genetically related languages, that is, languages which share a linguistic kinship by virtue of having developed from a common ancestor.

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Chapter 12
LINGUISTS AND THEIR THEORIES

12.1 Introduction of Linguists and their Theories

There are some modern linguists in the world. Each of them develops their theories and concepts in different ways. Nevertheless they could be classified into several groups in which they were a pioneer. Leonard Bloomfield, Ferdinand de Saussure and Noam Chomsky were linguists who became the first men in introducing theory and concept differently in linguistics.

Leonard Bloomfield introduced "the discovery of the phoneme". Ferdinand de Saussure offered structuralism in studying linguistic, and Noam Chomsky proposed generative grammar as new perspective in analyzing language.

Moreover, their theories are not only used in linguistics but also in other disciplines. It means that there are some scientists that use linguistics as foundation to build their theories. For example Levi Strauss, He is an anthropologist. He uses linguistics theory from Ferdinand de Saussure to analyze social phenomenon.

12.2 Biography of Linguists and their Theories

12.2.1 Leonard Bloomfield

Leonard Bloomfield was born on April 1, 1887, in Chicago, Illinois. He was the son of Juden Sigmund and Carola Buber Bloomfield. At the age of 19, he graduated from Harvard College.

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Then, he finished his graduate studies at the University of Wisconsin. Bloomfield received his Ph.D. from the University of Chicago in 1909. His interest in linguistics grew after hearing lectures by Eduard Prokosch (1876–1938), a philologist in the German Department

In 1909, Bloomfield became instructor of German language at the University of Cincinnati. He stayed there only for a year. Release from Cincinnati, he accepted the position of German instructor at the University of Illinois. In this university, he became assistant professor of comparative philology and German in 1913, and remained there until 1921. He published his first main book in 1914, *Introduction to the Study of Language,* dealing with the overall aspects of language.

During 1913-1914, Bloomfield spent more than a year in Germany. He was studying at the universities of Leipzig and Gottingen under neo-grammarian scholars Karl Brugmann (1849-1919) and August Leskien (1840-19160). He also completed his studies of Indian and Iranian languages. During the First World War he turned to a study of Tagalog, a Malayo-Polynesian language spoken mostly in the Philippines. In 1917, he published his second major book *Tagalog Texts with Grammatical Analysis*.

In 1917, he became interested in the Algonquian languages. He spent several years studying this family of languages. In 1921, Bloomfield became professor of German and linguistics at the Ohio State University. In this university, he met behaviorist psychologist Albert P. Weiss, with whom he established a long cooperation. They both applied the logical positivist approach to science, and agreed that

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linguistics needed a more mechanistic and less mentality approach to qualify as a scientific discipline.

What is Bloomfield's contribution to linguistics? It can be summed up very briefly. It is often with the phrase "the discovery of the phoneme". He is the first linguist that explicitly state if the object of linguistic study is the smallest unit of sound and what may be directly built upon that.

In this principle, the student of language is concerned only with the speech. It means that our studies are focus on speakers' situations and hearers' responses. This study is equivalent to the sum total of human knowledge. If we knew an accurate knowledge of every speaker's situation and of every hearer's response, we could register these two facts as the *meaning* of utterance.

Bloomfield says that linguistics would consist of two main investigations. The first investigation was *phonetics*. Here, we studied the speech event without reference to its meaning. We only investigate to sound-producing movements of the speaker, the sound-waves, and the action of the hearer's ear-drum. The second one was *semantics*. In this part, we studied the relation of these features to the features of meaning. We must show that a certain type of speech-sound was uttered in certain types of situations and led the hearer to perform certain types of response. (Bloomfield, 1933:74)

Through *phonetic* and *semantic*, Bloomfield offered a complete methodology. In his methodology, he used phoneme as the basic unit in analyzing language. Bloomfield defined the phoneme as "*a minimum unit of distinctive sound-feature*." (Bloomfield, 1933:79).

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There were a finite set of phonemes in any language. And the task of linguist is to detail in the field. They have to find minimal pairs from all phrases and all spoken utterances that would be composed and strung together serially. The words such as *cat* and *bat* are two distinct words in English showing that English speakers make a distinction between the phonemes /c/ and /b/.

The example above indicates that a linguist has to transcribe a speech utterance into a series of phones. Then, it would be analyzed for distinguishing and collecting into classes of phonemes. At each step of analysis there was a prescribed set of "discovery procedures" which would give data for a new level of analysis. Then, the raw phonetic data would be analyzed into phonemes. The result of this step can be used in the next level of analysis, morphology.

At the morphological level, the morphemes are lined up. Here, a linguist would be able to make certain inferences on clause or phrase structure based on regularities in function. At this step, it also possible to determine the morpheme class based on function, presumably nouns, verbs, and adjectives.

In addition to the concept of *phoneme*, Bloomfield also proposed *emic* units that are built data from a lower level of analysis. Bloomfield's structuralism requires basic elements to be defined before structure can be analyzed. He defines many more "emic" terms besides phoneme and morpheme, but in practice these two were the core of structural elements in his methodology. Bloomfield defined the term "sememe" as "the meaning of a morpheme" followed by the statement that "the linguist assumes that every sememe is a constant

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and definite unit of meaning ... but he cannot go beyond this." (Bloomfield, 1933:162) One wonders why Bloomfield even went *that* far since it seems to define his conception of meaning as being as rigidly objective as his study of form.

It was assumed that the complexities of syntax would keep linguists busy for a very long time. Further, semantics or meaning was not the next step. Bloomfield never proposed that linguistics could one day take data from a syntactical analysis and use it on a semantic level of analysis. It means that Bloomfield's theory and methodology is a series of steps from raw phonetic data, to phonemic, to morphological, to syntactic.

12.2.2 Ferdinand de Saussure

Each linguist has great contribution to linguistics. Ferdinand Mongin de Saussure, people usually called with Ferdinand de Saussure (1857-1913). He is one of the linguists who had great influence to linguistic work. He is a France linguist. His work in linguistics is generally known as the origin of structuralism.

He obtained his Ph.D. from the University of Leipzig, where he studied Indo-European languages. In the last two years of pursuing his doctorate, Ferdinand de Saussure also took study at the University of Berlin. In addition, he also studied physics and chemistry at the University of Geneva before Ferdinand de Saussure started his doctoral degree.

His interest in the nature of language grew at fifteen. At the age, Ferdinand de Saussure was familiar with French, German,

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English, Latin, Greek and Sanskrit. At the time he also already attempted to develop a 'general system of language.

At the age of 21, Ferdinand de Saussure wrote *Memoire sur la systeme primitif de voyelles dans les langues indo-européens* (Memoir on the primitive system of vowels in the Indo-European languages). Although at the time the conclusions were speculative, archaeological evidence was discovered in 1925 that supported Ferdinand de Saussure's claims. This early work marked a period of great productivity.

The contemporaries of Ferdinand de Saussure considered him a neo-grammarian. But although Ferdinand de Saussure was well respected some thought, he was destined for the obscured reputation of provincial life. Ferdinand de Saussure feared that he would never effectively disseminate his belief. However, his reputation and influence in the field of linguistics is same with Charles Levi-Strauss and Emile Durkheim. Ferdinand de Saussure laid the framework for structuralism.

What is structuralism? Structuralism is an approach to the human sciences that attempts to analyze a specific field as a complex system of interrelated parts. It was introduced to academia in university in the second half of the 20th century. Then, it becomes one of the most popular approaches, not only in analyzing language but also in culture and society.

According to this theory, human language is understood as a system of signs. More specifically, the focus is on examining how the elements of language relate to each other in the present. It means that

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this theory is synchronically rather than diachronically. Hence, the focus of linguistic is on the contemporary fact.

For Saussure, the linguistic sign is composed of two parts, a signifier and the signified. In “Course in General Linguistics”, Saussure refused all prior approaches which focused on the relationship between words and things that was introduced by Bloomfield.

What does structuralism do? They analyzes at the units of a system and the rules that make that system work. In language, the units are words and the rules are the forms of grammar which order words. In different languages the grammar rules are different but the structure is still the same in all languages. The words are put together within a grammatical system to make meaning.

In a simple way, it can use literature to describe structuralism. In “Cinderella” and “Snow White”, there are three dominant characters: princess, stepmother, and prince. From a structuralist point of view, ‘Cinderella’ is the same story as ‘Snow White’. A princess is persecuted by a stepmother and rescued then married by a prince. The "units" here are the characters, and the "rules" are: stepmothers are evil, princesses are victims, and princes and princesses have to marry. Whatever details or added elements is supplied, the basic structure of this story is always the same.

Structuralists believe that the underlying structures which organize units and rules into meaningful systems are generated by the human mind itself. It is not produced by sense perception. The mind is itself a structuring mechanism which looks through units and files

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them according to rules. This view is important for structuralist because it means that the order that we perceive in the world is not inherent in the world, but is a product of our minds. It is not that there is no "reality out there," but rather that there is too much "reality" to be perceived coherently without some kind of "grammar" or system to organize and limit them.

Structuralism sees itself as a science of humankind. They have task to uncover all the structures that underlie all the things that humans do, think, perceive, and feel. It covers all human science from mathematics, biology, linguistics, religion, psychology, until literature.

Structuralist analysis places these systems as universal. Every human mind in every culture at every point in history has used some sort of structuring principle to organize and understand cultural phenomena. For instance, every human culture has some sort of language, which has the basic structure of all language: words/phonemes are combined according to a grammar of rules to produce meaning.

Every human culture similarly has some sort of social organization such as a kind of government, some sort of system for who can marry whom that usually referred to as a kinship system, and some sort of system for exchanging goods that usually referred to as an economic system. According to structuralism, all of these organizations are governed by structures which are universal.

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a. Signifier and Signified

Language is based on a naming process. It means that things get associated with a word or name by language process. Saussure says this is a naive or elementary view of language. But it is a useful one because it gets across the idea that the basic linguistic unit has two parts.

Those two parts Saussure calls as "concept" and "sound image". The sound image is not the physical sound like what your mouth makes and your ear hears. But it is rather the psychological imprint of the sound. An illustration of this is when you are talking to yourself. You don't make a sound but you have an image toward what you are saying.

The linguistic sign (a key word) is made of the union of a concept and a sound image. The union is a close to each other. One part will instantly cause the other. Saussure's example is the concept "tree" and the various words for tree in different languages. When you are a speaker of a certain language, the sound image for tree in your language will automatically relate to the concept "tree." The meaning of any sign is found in the association create between the sound image and the concept. Hence, the sounds "tree" in English means the thing "tree." Meanings can (and do) vary widely, but only those meanings which are agreed upon and sanctioned within a particular language will appear to name reality.

A common way to define a linguistic sign is that a sign is the combination of “a signifier” and “a signified”. Saussure says the sound image is *the signifier* and the concept *the signified*.

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The bond between the signifier and signified is arbitrary. There is no manual book in which signifier and signified go together. It means that there is no logical relation between a particular sound image and a concept. An example of this is the fact that there are different words, in different languages, for the same thing. Dog is "dog" in English, "perro" in Spanish, "chien" in French, "Hund" in German.

This principle dominates all ideas about the structure of language. It makes it possible to separate the signifier and signified or to change the relation between them. This makes possible the idea of a single signifier which could be associated with more than one signified, or vice-versa.

b. Parole and Langue

According to Saussure, thought is a shapeless mass and is ordered by language. For philosopher, thought becomes one of the puzzling questions. Is it true ideas can exist at all without language? For Saussure, there is no ideas pre-exist language. Language gives shape to ideas and makes them expressible. In other words, from Saussure's point of view, thought cannot exist without language.

Sound is no more fixed than thought. Though, sounds can be distinguished from each other and associated with ideas. Sounds serve as signifiers for the ideas which are their signified. In this view, signs are both material/physical (like sound) and intellectual (like ideas). This is important to Saussure because he wants to insist that language is not a thing or a substance. Language is a form, a structure and a

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system. For him, thought and sound is like the front and back of a piece of paper. You can distinguish between the two but you can't separate them. Structuralist linguistics is more interested in the langue than in any parole talks.

The arbitrary nature of the sign explains why language as a system langue can only arise in social relations. It takes a community to set up the relations between any particular sound image and any particular concept. You could make up your own private language, but no one else would understand it; to communicate, two or more people have to agree on what signifiers go with what signified.

Language is the object of linguistics, so we have to differentiate between parole, langue and language. Parole is the concrete object of linguistics. We usually use it in our life to communicate with each other. Langue is a system in certain language. Langage is a common language.

c. **Syntagmatic and Associative Relations**

In this section, Saussure says more about how he thinks the structure of language operates. Everything in the system is based on the relations that can occur between the units in the system. These relations consist mainly of relations of difference. In this section Saussure talks more about the rules that may connect units together.

According to Saussure, the most important kind of relation between units in a signifying system is a syntagmatic relation. It has a linear relation. In spoken or written language, words come out one by

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one. Because language is linear, it forms a chain, by which one unit is linked to the next.

An example of this is the fact that, in English, word order governs meaning. "The cat sat on the mat" has different means than "The mat sat on the cat". It is caused by word order contributes to meaning. The sentences also differ in meaning because "mat" and "cat" are not the same words within the system.

Combinations or relations within a chain are called syntagms. Examples of syntagms can be any phrase or sentence that makes a linear relation between two or more units. In discourse, where the ideas of time, linearity, and syntactical meaning are important, syntagmatic relations are most crucial in written and spoken language. It means that there are other kinds of relations that exist outside of discourse.

Signs are stored in your memory. It is not in syntagmatic links or sentences but in associative groups. For example, the word "education" may get linked, not to verbs and adjectives, but to other words that end in "-tion": education, relation, association, deification. You may store the word education" with other words that have similar associations: education, teacher, textbook, college, expensive. Associative relations are only in your head, not in the structure of language itself, whereas syntagmatic relations are a product of linguistic structure.

Syntagmatic relations are important because they allow for new words to arise and be recognized and accepted into a linguistic community. For example, "to office," has meaning because the noun

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"office" can be moved to the position of verb, and take on a new syntagmatic position and relation to other words.

12.2.3 Noam Chomsky

Noam Chomsky was born in 1928. He was American linguist, educator, and political activist. Chomsky is the founder of transformational-generative grammar, a system that revolutionized modern linguistics.

Avram Noam Chomsky was born and raised in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, and was educated at the University of Pennsylvania, where he earned a Ph.D. degree in linguistics in 1955 under the direction of American linguist Zellig Harris. While still a graduate student, Chomsky held an appointment from 1951 to 1955 as a junior fellow at Harvard University. He joined the faculty at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) in 1955 to teach French and German. In 1976, he became Institute Professor of Linguistics at MIT.

Chomsky created and established a new field of linguistics, generative grammar. In 1957 he published this theory and called as transformational-generative grammar thorough his book, *Syntactic Structures.* Chomsky made a distinction between the innate and the way in which they use the language in reality. For Chomsky, innate is often unconscious knowledge of people where they have of their own language. Chomsky described innate with *competence.* It enables people to generate all possible grammatical sentences. And language

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in reality is called *performance.* It is the transformation of this competence into everyday speech.

Prior to Chomsky, most theories about the structure of language described performance. Due to the fact, Chomsky proposed that linguistic theory also should explain the mental processes that underlie the use of language. In other word, it describes the nature of language itself or generative grammar.

Chomsky placed linguistics at the core of studies of the mind. He claimed that linguistic theory must write universal similarities between all languages. He also noted that children are able to learn language fluently at an early age. These Chomsky's arguments were serious theory of mental processes that should replace empiricism that belief that experience is the source of knowledge, as the dominant model in American science.

Chomsky wrote on politics early in his life. He began to publish the subject during the 1960s as response to United States policies in Southeast Asia. He scaled back his work on linguistics to dedicate more time to writing about the role of the media and academic communities in "manufacturing" the consent of the general public for U.S. policies. Chomsky also addressed the effects of U.S. foreign policy, and he felt that intellectuals have a responsibility to use scientific method in criticizing government policies that they find immoral and to develop practical strategies to combat these policies.

Chomsky's linguistic publications, in addition to *Syntactic Structures,* include *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* (1965), *Language and Mind* (1968; enlarged edition, 1972), and *Language and Thought*

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(1992). His political writings include *American Power and the New Mandarins* (1967); *Peace in the Middle East* (1974); *The Fateful Triangle: The United States, Israel and the Palestinians* (1983; updated edition, 1999); *Deterring Democracy* (1991); *Hegemony or Survival: America's Quest for Global Dominance* (2003); and *Failed States: The Abuse of Power and the Assault on Democracy* (2006). *Hegemony or Survival* hit the top of the Amazon.com bestseller list in 2006 after Venezuelan president Hugo Chávez, during a visit to the United States, recommended that Americans read it.

Why one should be interested in studying language? Noam Chomsky's answer to this question in part characterizes the importance of his linguistic theories to modern thought. In his view, the study language is to study a part of human nature that is manifested in the human mind.

According to Chomsky, one of the fundamental aspects of human language is its creative nature. So, we do not seem to learn or to speak language by purely imitating other people. How are we able to judge whether a sentence sounds is okay? Can we have a list of sentences in our mind against which we check each new sentence we hear? Chomsky argues not, since our brains are finite but English is potentially infinite.

Can we process each new sentence by analogy with ones that we have heard before? Chomsky argues that this is not possible either. He claims, analogies are too loose to explain our understanding of complex sentences. For instance, if we remove the last two words of the simple sentence "John is baking vegan muffins" we get a sentence

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that means he is baking *something* (maybe muffins, maybe not). But if we remove the same words from the complex sentence "John is too tasteful to pour gravy on vegan muffins" we get "John is too tasteful to pour gravy on," which should (by the analogy) mean he doesn't pour gravy on *something*, but instead means that no one should pour gravy on *him*. In contrast to these alternate theories, Chomsky argues that we can make judgments because we possess an abstract system of unconscious knowledge about our language.

This system of knowledge includes knowledge about sentence structure and word order. We know that "Bites the dog man" is not the way to express the meaning that the dog is biting a man. It also includes knowledge about meaning. In another side, we know knowledge about sounds when someone is speaking with an accent not our own. Chomsky argues that this knowledge of language is separate from other types of knowledge that we have. We don't just use general-purpose strategies (like analogy) to make the judgments that we do. To possess this kind of knowledge, says Chomsky, is what it means to "know English"

How do we learn our native language? It's not likely that parents explicitly teach kids these rules in the cradle. And, because of both the abstractness of the rules and the complexity of the samples of languages that even infants hear, Chomsky doesn't think that general smarts can do the job either. Children with otherwise severe learning difficulties often learn language easily. Instead, he argues that something specifically about human language must be innate specified somehow in our genetic makeup. Chomsky is not saying that humans

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are born with English or Vietnamese or any other language 'hardwired-in'. These innate properties must be properties available to all human languages.

According to one theory, these properties are composed of principles and parameters principles being universal to all human languages, with cross-language variation accounted for by parameters each of which can be set in any of a small number of ways, like a light switch that can be turned on or off. In this view, learning a language means setting parameter values; setting the switches in a particular way.

So, how do Chomsky's theories of knowledge of language and how do we know it relate to the study of human nature? He rejects the view of the human mind as a blank slate at birth and filled in by experience. Chomsky suggests that components of the mind are largely innately determined. Experience does not fill a blank slate. It interacts with innate properties to form 'competence'. All these components interact with each other, or are linked in unknown ways to form the object of vast complexity that is the human mind.

Chomsky's theory of language and mind has been influential on scholars in many different fields, cognitive psychology, philosophy, some branches of mathematics. Even in the U.S. where his theories have perhaps been the most influential, there are many competing models of language and the mind. While some who object to Chomsky's arguments seem to misunderstand his theories, naturally many have genuine disagreements with some of his assumptions. But most, perhaps, would recognize some of his general contributions to

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the modern study of the mind. Chomsky has shown that the study of the mind cannot limit itself to the examination of behavior. The concept of an unconscious 'knowledge state' is not unscientific, as some other modern theorists of mind have assumed. Instead, such concepts are essential in order to account for the complexity and creativity exhibited by the normal human mind.

Chomsky, whose theories evolved during the late 1950s through 1970s to replace the previous structuralist and behaviorist models of language, believes the structure of language is determined by an innate, autonomous formal system of rules. This formal system of rules, called "universal grammar" (UG), is inherent within the human brain at birth and is largely devoid of any association with "meaning." This UG is also independent of other human cognitive faculties. It operates on its own within the brain, independent of any other non-linguistic cognitive processes.

On the other hand, cognitive linguists believe the structure of language is a direct reflection of human cognitive processes. There is no independent language faculty like UG in the brain. If there is, cognitive linguists believe it will be found to be ultimately rooted in the general processes of human cognition itself.

They believe that the grammatical structures of language are directly associated with the way people conceptualize any given situation in the world. Syntax, morphology, even phonology are conceptual in nature. They are merely input and output of those cognitive processes within the human mind that govern speaking and understanding.

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Summary

Linguist is someone who expert in linguistics. There are some famous linguists such as Leonard Bloomfield, Ferdinand de Saussure, Noam Chomsky, etc. Each of them has contribution toward linguistics. Leonard Bloomfield is the discoverer of phoneme. Ferdinand de Saussure is the pioneer of structuralism. Structuralism is an approach to the human sciences that attempts to analyze a specific field as a complex system of interrelated parts. He had some works such as signified (the sound pattern /the sound image of a word) and signifier (the concept or meaning of the word), parole (the concrete object of linguistics), langue (a system in certain language), syntagmatic (a combinations or relations within a chain) and associative relation (associative groups of things or words in our memory). Noam Chomsky is the founder of transformational-generative grammar and also competence and performance concept.

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