

SCIENTIFIC STUDY OF LANGUAGE

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KATA PENGANTAR

Dengan mengucapkan puji syukur kehadiran Allah SWT, atas limpahan rahmat dan hidayahNya, maka Penulisan Buku dengan judul Scientific Study Of Language dapat diselesaikan dengan kerjasama tim penulis. Scientific Study Of Language merupakan buku yang berisikan bahasan mengenai, yaitu origins of language, development of writing, the properties of language, the sounds of language, word formation, morphology, phrases and sentences, syntax, semantics and pragmatics, language and brain, first language acquisition, second language acquisition, language varieties, language, society, and culture, dan language in communication.

Buku ini masih banyak kekurangan dalam penyusunannya. Oleh karena itu, kami sangat mengharapkan kritik dan saran demi perbaikan dan kesempurnaan buku ini selanjutnya. Kami mengucapkan terima kasih kepada berbagai pihak yang telah membantu dalam proses penyelesaian Buku ini. Semoga Buku ini dapat menjadi sumber referensi dan literatur yang mudah dipahami.

Padang, Mei 2024
Penulis

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BAB 1

ORIGINS OF LANGUAGE

Oleh Andi Sadapotto

On species man has become topic expert debate during a number of century. Although I see, no There is agreement general about when and age Language man in a way Certain. One of problems that create topic this is very difficult studied is lack of proof direct. As a result, experts want to research origin Language must interesting conclusion based on other evidence such as notes fossil or evidence archaeology, diversity Language contemporary, studies acquisition language, and comparison between Language man with system communication animals, esp system communication primates other. By general There is agreement that origin Language man related tightly with origin behavior modern humans, however there is difference opinion about implications and directions connection both of them.

It's rare proof empirical make Lots expert consider topic This No can made study important. In 1866, *the Société de Linguistique de Paris* even forbid debate about it. Prohibition the still influential in many western countries to end 20th century. Now there Lots hypothesis about how, why, when and where of language Possible first appeared. It seems No so Lots agreement at the time This compared to one hundred year then, when theory evolution Charles Darwin past selection its nature give rise to Lots speculation about topic This. Since early 1990s, a number of expert linguistics, archaeologists, psychologists, anthropologists, and scientists professional other has try For examine with method new what are they start consider as *problem hardest in science*.

Approach to origin Language can shared based on assumption basically. "Sustainability Theory" is theories based on ideas that language is very complex so that No can imagined arise so just from absence in form end like now: language what we can be certain of is develop from system pre-linguistics early in between ancestors primates We. Temporary that," theory Unsustainability" is based on the opposite idea — that Language is something unique properties so that No can compared to with whatever is found in the species besides human and because That Language Certain appear in a way suddenly during journey evolution man. Difference other that is between viewing theory. Language as default coded birth in a way genetic, and they who saw it as A system that is general nature cultural studied past interaction social.

Noam Chomsky is supporter main theory unsustainability. "Noam Chomsky's views on characteristic base Universal Grammar (TU, outer universal grammar) has long been dominant in field linguistics, but TU itself has experience change big from decade to decades" (Christiansen, 59). He argued that A mutation happened to one of them individual in span 100,000 years ago, which resulted appearance ability language (a component in brain) "instantly" in "perfect" or "near-perfect" form. Argumentation in a way his philosophy sounds as following: first, from what is known about evolution, every change biological in something species arise from change genetic in a way random on one individual, which spreads in One crossbreed group. Second, based on corner look computing in theory language: the only one needed changes is ability cognitive For forming and processing recursive data structure in mind (property from "infinity discrete", which appears only in humans). Chomsky reasoned that change genetic this, which delivers brain man something property infinity discrete, sequentially essential is jump that causes can count from number N , where N is number sure, arrived capable count until number infinite (e. g., if N can be formed so does $N+1$). Based on the above statement, evolution ability language in humans is saltation Because in a way logical No Possible There is transition in a way graded from capable brain counting on

numbers certain become capable brain think about infinity. As image, formation ability language in humans similar with formation crystal ; infinity discrete appear in brain primates worthy seeds added crystals in supersaturated solution.

Sustainability theory Now supported by the majority scientist, but there is various type variations. Between those who see Language as default born, some are famous that is Steven Pinker avoid speculation about pioneer language in non- human primates, and stress in a way simple that ability Language it should evolved in a way gradually. Group other famous ones that is Ib Ulbaek consider that Language develop No from communication primates But from awareness primates, which are far away more complex. For those who consider Language as tool studied communication in a way social, like Michael Tomasello, language develop from aspect communication primate, which is inclined to communication past signal than past vocal. Related predecessor vocals, lots of them supporter theory continuity imagine Language develop from ability man ancient in sing.

Outside theory sustainability and unsustainability, there are those who see appearance Language as consequence from something form transformation social ones, with produce level trust general who has not Once happen before, let go potency genetic For creativity previous linguistics left hidden. The 'ritual/ speech coevolution theory 'is one example from approach This. Scientists in group intellectual This pointing to fact that even chimpanzees and bonobos own ability hidden ones, deep ones Wild environment, rare used. The argument is If something mutation that will appear in a way suddenly possible ability language at a time individual primates, mutation the No will give profit adaptive except If system social in a way radical changed. Something structure very specific social A structure that can with outside normal uphold tall accountability and public trust must be develop before or simultaneously with Language so dependence on 'signals cheap '(word) to be A stable strategy evolutionary.

Because of emergence Language occurred in pre-historic times, related developments No leave footsteps history direct ; and no there is a comparison process that can be done in the present. Therefore that, emergence Language signs in the modern era of Sign Language Nicaragua , for example — maybe potential show description levels development and creative processes involved, Approach other that is with research fossil man beginning, see possibility exists footsteps adaptation physique to use Language. In some case, when DNA from humans who have extinct can restored, there or absence of the necessary genes related with FOXP2 Language as for example Possible can give information more carry on. Approach another, this time in a way archaeological, is with bring behavior symbolic (like ritual activities) are possible potential leave footsteps in a way archaeological like collection and modification of the ocher pigment used For body painting can build argumentation theoretical For give conclusion from symbolism in a way general to Language in a way special.

Range time for evolution language and/ or precondition anatomical happened, at least in a way basic, since farewell phylogenetics in *Homo* (2. 3 to 2. 4 million year then) of *Pan* (5 to 6 million year then) arrived appearance behavior modernity around 150,000 - 50,000 years Then. Some people argue that *Australopithecus* possibility No own system more communication advanced than Great Apes in general general, but experts own different opinions to development since appearance *Homo* around 2. 5 million last year. A number of expert assume development system language-like primitive (proto- language) during the time of *Homo habilis* , while expert other put development communication symbol primitive only in *Homo erectus* (1. 8 million years ago) or *Homo heidelbergensis* (0. 6 million years ago) and developments language in *Homo sapiens* not enough than 200,000 years past.

With use method statistics For estimate time required For know distribution and differences in modern languages today now, Johanna Nichols a expert Language from the University of California, Berkeley awarded argument in 1998 that Language vocal what we can be certain of is has diversify across species us

at least about 100,000 years Then. Use diversity phonemic, a analysis latest give support linguistics direct to the same time. Estimation sort of This in a way independent supported by evidence genetics, archaeology, paleontology and evidence others show that Language Possible appeared somewhere places in sub-Saharan Africa during the middle stone age, ca contemporary with development species *Homo sapiens*.

The experts Language Now agree that, besides pidgin, no There is " primitive " modern languages : all population modern man speaks almost language. The same complex and expressive, though study latest has show How complexity linguistics varies between and within something Language throughout History. This matter is debate Serious in knowledge Language contemporary, and got opposition until beginning century to 21 (Everett 2005). Consensus Now that No There is primitive modern language is change biggest in approach linguistics to Language.

1. 1 Hypothesis Origin Language

Speculation beginning i do not can doubtful that Language originate from imitation and modification, aided by gestures and movements, towards various voice nature, sound animal others, and screams instinctive man Alone.

Charles Darwin, 1871. The Descent of Man, and Selection in Relation to Sex.

In 1861, expert history language Max Müller published a list of theories origin speculative language :

- **Bow-wow.** *Bow-wow* theory or *cuckoo*, to which Muller relates with German philosopher Johann Gottfried Herder , considers words to have originated as imitation from scream wild animals or bird.
- **Pooh-pooh.** *Pooh-Pooh* Theory consider first words as shouts and interjections emotions triggered by pain, pleasure, surprise, and others.
- **Ding-dong.** Müller suggested what is he call with theory *Ding-Dong*, which states that all creature own A

vibration resonance natural, which is echoed by humans in words initially with something method.

- **Yo -he-ho.** *Yo -he- ho* theory believes Language appear from activity Work the same as orderly and effortful For synchronize muscles, so produce something alternating 'sighing 'sounds like *ho*.
- **System.** This theory No There is on Max Müller's list, but proposed by Sir Richard Paget in 1930, According to theory *ta-ta*, human make words First with move imitating tongue manual movement, make it heard make a sound.

Many scientists moment This consider all theory the No completely wrong because sometimes give inspiration ; however, theories This considered naive comical or not relevant. Problem in theories the is very mechanistic in nature. Theories the assume that very ancestors We realize genius *mechanism* For connect voice with meaning, language in a way automatic develop and change.

1. 2 Problem Reliability And Fraud

From perspective modern science Darwin, obstacles main from evolution communication language-like in nature it's not mechanism. Rather, facts that symbols association random between sound, or something visible form, with meaning is No can reliable and capable just wrong. Like proverb, 'Speak That easy '. Problem reliability No recognized by Darwin, Müller or by experts theory evolution beginning.

Signal vocal animals in general in a way intrinsic can reliable. When one cat purr, signal the signify proof direct that animal is in a state like. We can 'trust 'it signal the No Because cat That honest, but Because voice That No can faked. Exclamation vocal primates Can just more can manipulated, but they still can reliable For several reasons Because they difficult For faked. Intelligence social primates called *Machiavellian* serve self alone or not limited by morals. Monkeys and apes sometimes try cheat One each other, while at the moment simultaneously still just in case it doesn't become a victim of fraud That Alone. Paradoxically, actually resistance from

primates to fraud hinder evolution system signal they together with language- like communication. Language rejected Because method best For prevent from Tricked is with ignore all signal except for reliability can checked direct. Speak in a way automatic fail in test this.

Words are very easy faked. If the words are shaped lies, listeners will adapt with ignore they so that profitable signal or more instructions hard to fake. So language can work, listeners must be Certain that speakers who they are invite speak in a way general tend said Honest. Features no familiar with language is 'reference abandoned ', which means reference to off topic current situation experienced. Property This prevent sayings become something truth 'here 'and 'now 'direct. Because reasons the language assume level each other high trust so become formed throughout time as something stable strategy evolutionary . Stability This born from each other believe in long and supportive time mastery Language. Theory of origin Language must explain Why man can start trust signs weak with something method temporary other animals do not can (see theory signaling).

1. 3 Hypothesis 'Language Mother '

Hypothesis 'language mother 'filed in 2004 as possible solution from problem This. W. Tecumseh Fitch state that principle of 'selection brothers 'interests convergence genetic between relatives Can So is part from answer. Fitch suggested that Language started of 'language Mother '. If language evolved at first For communication between mother and offspring its biology itself, which develops more go ahead and follow relatives adults too, interest between speaker and listener what we can be certain of is is something as it happens. Fitch reasoned that interest the same genetics cause sufficient trust and cooperation. For signal that is intrinsic No can trusted words so can accepted as something trusted and started develop For First time.

Criticism of theory This refers to selection relatives No only unique to humans. Ape mothers also share genes with derivatives, as animal other, then Why only human speaking ? More Next, it's very difficult For trusted that man beginning limit communication linguistics only to you genetics : taboo about incest Certain force men and women interact and communicate with those who are not you. " Species sometimes depending on shape verbal and non-verbal communication, such as screams ; voice overflow non- vocal emotions, such as fan tail dolphins in the water; *bioluminescence* ; marking smell ; instruction chemistry or tactile ; visual signals and gestures body " (Toothman). So, although We accept premise Fitch's first, cause from relations 'language mother 'of relatives to non-relatives still No can explained. Fitch reasoned, however, period long from maturity physical in children humans, and development *extrauterine* in *encephalization* man give connection human-child A period intergenerational dependencies that are different and longer than those found in species other.

1. 4 The 'Reciprocal Altruism 'Hypothesis Must '

Ib Ulbæk mentioned Another Darwinian principle of 'reciprocal altruism 'for explain level honesty the height required by the language For develop. 'Reciprocal altruism 'can expressed as *the if principle You scratch back I, I will scratch your back too*. In terms linguistics, ia can means *If You said be honest with me, I am will be honest with you too*. Ulbæk pointed out that Darwinian reciprocal altruism in general is A existing relationship between interaction frequent individuals happen. So language control all over community, after all, a exchange required in a way forced universally no only left as choice individual. Ulbæk concluded that so Language can developing, society beginning in a way whole what we can be certain of is is subject from moral regulation. Evolution from reciprocal altruism, and problems dilemma prisoner linked with problem free passengers and fraud, have used For explain fast

enhancement *encephalization* connected with transition from *Australopithecus* to *Homo sapiens* ancient.

Critics point out that theory This fail explain when, how, why or by whom 'reciprocal altruism mandatory 'can Possible enforced. Various proposals have been made submitted For repair lack This. Criticism more carry on is that Language No Work based on reciprocal altruism. Man in conversation group No keep all information except listener Want to give information valuable as reply. By opposite, they are looks want to displays to the world of access they to related information in a way social, spread it to Who whoever wants to listen without want return.

1. 5 Hypothesis Gossip And Grooming

Gossip, according to Robin Dunbar , performed group man whereas nurse applies to primates other. He allow individual For serve connection them and look after them fellowship they with principle basic, *If you scratch back I, I will scratch your back too*. When human start live in a group increasingly social great, job nurse all friends and acquaintances become eat time and no affordable. Respond problem this, human creating 'cheap and highly efficient care '-- *care vocal*. For make Friend happy, now You just 'take care 'of them with voice low, serving vowel a number ally in a way simultaneously temporary make second hand free For work other. Maintenance vocal Then develop in a way gradually become vocal language. initially in form of 'gossip '.

Criticism of theory This refers to efficiency of 'care vowel '. fact that talk That easy will damage its capacity For signal kind commitment conveyed with valuable and consuming manual maintenance time. Criticism more carry on is that theory This No explain transition crucial from vocal production maintenance soothing voice But No means to complexity cognitive from speak in a way syntax. This criticism assume that from maintenance vocal to Language vocal there is a number of step complex. Previous criticism is also apparent assume No so it looks like superiority from maintenance physique to maintenance vocal in other words he own lack form the same capacity to commitment

signaling. As for example, research that has show proximity a child to voice her mother Can recommend that manual maintenance does not own profit hierarchy still more from maintenance vocal.

1. 6 Ritual/ Speech Coevolution

Ritual/ speech coevolution theory initially proposed by anthropologists social Roy Rappaport before described by anthropologists such as Chris Knight, Jerome Lewis, Nick Enfield, Camilla Power and Ian Watts. Scientist cognitive and engineering Luc Steels robotics is supporter important from approach this, as is also anthropological / neuroscientific biological Terrence Deacon .

Scientist the reasoned that No there is such a thing as 'theory origin Language '. This matter because Language it's not A adaptation separated But A more internal aspects wide called, symbolic culture man in a way whole. Scientist the say that try explain Language in a way independent in broad context This fail Because they handle problem without solution. Can We imagine a expert history try explain appearance card credit in a way separately in system wide temporary He is A part ? Use card credit enter sense If You own bank account that is institutional known in something public capitalist proceed something system with technology communication electronics, digital computers, and prevention embezzlement. In the same way, language No will work outside arrangement institutions and mechanisms social. As for example, he No will Work for one communicating apes with other apes in the wild world. Even monkey not even the smartest can make Language Work in lower condition the.

Lies and their types are revealed in Language give problem to structure of society constructed by language, which is named all public man. Therefore That I reasoned that If all those words There is so required form *Word*, and that Word formed by Eq liturgy.

Supporter thinking This refer that speak That easy. Like digital hallucinations, they are in a way intrinsic No can reliable. If monkeys are very clever, or even One group monkey clever,

try For using words in the wild, they No will bring something confidence. Vocalization *a* primate indeed bring confidence namely their ones truly use No like words, them expressed in a way emotional, meaningful in a way intrinsic and able trusted Because they relatively valuable and difficult faked.

Language consists from digital contrast that costs in a way essential zero. As convention social pure, signal type This No can develop in a Darwinian social world theory, ia is A impossibility. Because it does not can trusted in a way intrinsic, language Work only If You can make something reputation For can trusted in something the form of society is also called, one place facts cultural symbolic (sometimes called with 'fact institutional') can built and maintained past support collective social. In society hunter-gatherer, mechanism base For build trust in fact cultural symbolic is *ritual* together. Therefore that is, the work facing researchers in origin Language is more to multidisciplinary than usually. He relate with see development the emergence of symbolic culture man in a way whole, with Language as one of the main ones But component addition.

Criticism regarding theory This from Noam Chomsky, who named it with the 'non-existence' hypothesis -- a rejection from existence Language as something object study for knowledge nature. Chomsky's own theory is that Language appear in a way instant and deep form perfect, encouraging his criticism as answer that only something that doesn't There is A construction theoretical or fiction easy social that can be appear in a way wonderful. Controversy Still still Not yet resolved.

1. 7 Tower Of Babel Hypothesis

It has been suggested that Language Possible just develop part For close communication, for arrange so ethnic group Alone separated from other contamination. This matter related with paradox code-talker, tale Tower of Babel, and no contradictory with mother tongue, care in terms, and hypotheses prevention incest described above.

1. 8 Gestural Theory

Gestural theory states that Language can develop from gestures used as communication simple. Two types of proof support this theory.

1. Sign language and languages oral system dependent on the same nerve. The part of the cortex that is responsible for movement of mouth and hands.
2. Primates besides man use gesture or symbol at least. For communication primitive, and some from gesture the similar with those used in humans, such as "posture ask", with hand stretched out, the human one has own similarity with chimpanzee.

Study has found proof strong to the idea that Language oral and language signal depending on the structure of the same nerve. Patients who use Language cue, and who suffers *left-hemisphere lesion*, showing the same disturbance with Language signal as patient vocal with Language the oral. Other researchers found part *left-hemisphere* active brain moment do Language signal. The same with moment use Language vocal or writing.

Question important for theory gestural that is Why happen transition to use vocalization. There is three possible explanation :

1. Grandmother ancestors We start use more tools a lot, meaning second hand they currently used and not can used For do gesture
2. Use Manual gestures require two individuals communicating can see One each other. On many situation, they need communicate, even without visual contact for example moment Evening day or moment foliage obstruct view.
3. Based on hypothesis combined, language beginning use part gestures and parts vocal mimemes (imitate 'song -and-dance'), combine modalities Because all signals (as in apes and monkeys) still required For cost so in a way intrinsic convincing. Because of that, every multi-media appearance is required No only For remove ambiguous from its true meaning but also for inspiring trust in reliability signal.

This matter show that only moment understanding community appear so in a way automatic assumed trust in effort communicative, at least allow *Homo sapiens* move to a more standard format efficient. Because of features difference vowel (contrast sound) matches For objective this, then just on point the moment Language body that is intrinsic persuasive No Again needed For convey every message — that election displacement from the gesture manual to Language *saying* happen.

Man Still use hands and gestures face moment talking, esp moment somebody meet with other different people Language. And there are, too, already sure, a number Language still signal there is, usually related with community deaf ; it's also important to know that Language signal own complexity, sophistication, and power the same expressiveness with Language existing verbal function cognitive equal and part the brain used is also the same the difference are " phonemes " produced by the body part outer, articulated with hands, body and expression face, no with part in articulated body with tongue, teeth, lips, and breathing.

Criticism of theory gestural state that is very difficult For mention reason Serious Why communication vocal -tone- based (used in primates) was abandoned in favor of less communication effective besides voice, communication gestural. However, Michael Corballis has showing that communication vocal primates (eg scream warning) no Can controlled in a way aware, no like movement hand, and then He No credible as precursor for Language man ; vocalization primates somewhat homologous to and on continuously in involuntary reflex (connected with base emotion human) like scream or laughter (fact that matter the can faked No argue fact that response original accidentally moment Afraid or surprised still There is). Also, gesture instead in a way general not enough effective, and depends on the situation Can So profitable, as for example in something noisy environment or moment need For silent, like moment hunt. Another challenge for the " gesture-first " theory has stated by researchers in psycholinguistics, incl David McNeill.

1. 9 Mirror Neurons And Their Origins Language

In humans, research MRI function has report find the same area with system nerve mirrors in monkeys in the cortex part front down, close with the Broca region, one of the hypothesized ones as a language area of the brain. This matter give instruction that Language man develop from A system understanding signals embedded in the nerves mirror. Nerves mirror said own potency For provide something mechanism For understand action, learning imitate, and simulate other people's behavior. Hypothesis. This supported by several homology *Cytoarchitectonics* between the monkey premotor region F5 and Broca's region in humans. Expansion rate vocabulary related with ability child For copy voice not - word and also in learn pronunciation of new words. Things like repetition talk happen in a way automatically, quickly and automatically separate from the brain For perception talk . More carry on imitation voice the can happen without understanding like in imagination speech and echolalia .

More proof carry on from linkages This come from study latest, with measure activity brain from two participants using fMRI when they do signal words between One each other uses signal hand through something game guess the word a several modalities expert recommend Possible represent precursor in a way evolution from Language man. Data analysis using Granger Causality show that system nerve mirror from observer of course reflect pattern from activity from inside activities si motor system sender, supports that idea motorbike related concept with words indeed transmitted from One brain to other brains use system mirror.

Need is known that system nerve mirror looks basically No adequate For play role in syntax , as long as property important Language applied humans in structure recursive hierarchical This flattened become the linear sequence of phonemes that make up structure recursive No can accessed by detection sensory.

1. 10 Putting Theory Child Below

According to theory 'put child under him Dean Falk , interaction vocal between early hominin mother with his son bring up words beginning ancestors We. The basic idea is Mother evolved humans, no like monkeys and apes, no can move place and search food moment his son hanging behind they. Disappearance feathers on the case man cause child No means No Want to hanging. Often, therefore, si Mother must put baby they are below. The result, babies the must convinced that they No ignored. The mother respond with developed 'motherese '-- system communication direct to stressed baby expression face, language body, touching, patting, caressing, laughing, tickling and screaming calling expressive in a way emotional. The argument is that Language Can just develop Because things the.

Critics stated that when theory This Possible explain a number type of 'protolanguage 'towards infants - is known Now as 'motherese '- ia only give A little For answer more problems complicated, that is emergence among adults words with syntax.

However, in *The Mental and Social Life of Babies* , psychologist Kenneth Kaye write that No There is language used Now can develop without communication interactive between children young with adults. "There isn't any system symbolic that can be endure from One generation to generation furthermore If He No can in a way easy caught by children in their normal conditions of life social. "

1. 11 Grammatization Theory

'Grammaticalization 'is a historical process sustainable when the words stand Alone develop become grammatical addition, temporary matter the Then become more specialized and structured. The beginning form 'wrong 'usage, to be accepted, leads to the consequences are not unimaginable, triggering effect hit and extend in sequence change. By paradox, grammar develop because, in analysis the end, man more care to understandability than the beauty of grammar. If this is

method how about grammar develop now, according Genre thinking that, we can in a way legitimate opinion the same principle work in between ancestors Far us, when grammar That Alone For First time formed.

For reconstruct repeat transition evolution from beginning Language to Language with grammar complex, we need know order Which hypotheses are possible and which are not possible. For convey abstract ideas, path go out First from speaker is with return in a way straight to the picture recognizable concrete, often developing rooted metaphors in experience the same body. Typical example is use term concrete such as 'stomach 'or 'back 'for convey meaning abstract such as 'inside 'or 'behind '. The same thing in a way metaphor is an inside strategy represent pattern while in the spatial model. So in context Language English often it says 'It is going to rain', modeled from 'I am going to London'. We can shorten This in Language daily to 'It's gonna rain'. Even at times in a hurry, we are No saying 'I'm gonna London '-- contraction limited to a certain time work. From example the We No see Why grammaticalization in a way consistency one way from meaning concrete to abstract, no on the contrary.

Supporters theory grammaticalization imagine Language beginning as simple, perhaps only consists from nouns. Even with assumption extreme This, however, is very difficult For imagine obstacle cognitive what exactly realistic prevent people from use let's say -- 'spear 'as it were as a verb, as used in Language England ('Let's spear this pig!'). Regardless from the beauty of grammar that experts Language understand, people in the real world will use nouns they as a verb or verb as a noun moment desired. By short, if Language with nouns - only Possible looks in a way theory possible, theory grammaticalization indicated that He No can still constant in the situation the For long time.

Creativity control grammatical changes. View This assume behavior particular to the listener. It's not punish deviation from proper use, listener must prioritize imagination mind-reading. We should No take so just attitude cognitive. Creativity imagination — heed sign danger tiger spotted moment No There

is tiger spotted, as for example — it's not something behavior which vervet monkeys would appreciate it or punish, Creativity and reliability is conflicting desires ; for 'Machiavellian 'primates as in animals in a way generally, pressure mainly is For showing reliability. If human leave limitations that, that because in the case us, the listeners more interested with mental state.

Centering attention to the situation thought The same with accept fiction — residents imagination — as potential and interesting information. For example is use metaphor. By literal, metaphorical is A wrong statement. Imagine Romeo's statement, 'Juliet is sun !'. Juliet is a women, no a ball of hot gas in space, but the listener (usually) doesn't insist to truth in fact. They want to know what is the speaker have in his mind. Grammaticalization basically based on metaphor. Forbid its use will hinders grammar for develop and dissolve disclosure thinking abstract.

Something criticism to matter This is when theory grammaticalization Possible explain change language at the moment now, he No in a way satisfying answer more challenge complicated explain transition beginning from communication primate-style to our language know Now. But, theory the assume that Language has There is. As confirmed by Bernd Heine and Tania Kuteva : *Grammaticalization need A system frequent linguistics used in something community speaker and delivered from One group speaker to the others.* Outside modern man, circumstances the No applies.

1. 12 Domesticated Ape Theory

According to research that investigates difference voice between white- rumped Munia with its caged counterpart (Bengalese finch) , the wild munia uses order voice typical height, while the maintained emit voice forced height. In wild finches, syntax from voice is so favored by females - selection sexually -and sexually relatively No changed. However, in the Bengalese finch, selection natural replaced by the process of descent, in case This For pattern color on the feathers, so

separated from pressure selective, syntax distinctive sound left disappear. He replaced, over 1000 generations, by a variables and stages learning. Wild finches, more further, no capable learn order voice from other finches. In the field vocalization bird , part the brain that produces only voice default born own a simple neural pathway : the primary motor forebrain center, is known with a robust nucleus of arcopallium , connected to part middle producer vocal tract, which projects to the brainstem motor nuclei. By opposite, part capable brain learn sound, the arcopallium receives input from a number part forebrain, incl from parts involved in learning and experience social. Control in produce voice become not enough limited, more scattered, and more flexible.

If compared with primates another, the system the communication limited to stereotypes voice high pitched whoops and hollers, humans have very little vocalization default born, as example laugh and cry . More Next, vocalization default born This produced by limited neuronal pathways, with Language generated by a highly distributed system follow a number of regions in the brain man.

Salient language features is when ability language derived, language That Alone transmitted through culture. Which is transmitted through culture and understanding, such as technology in ways do something, which is wrapped in explanationbased Language. Therefore somebody will get trajectory powerful evolution between ability language and culture: capable proto - humans use Language first, and assumed Not yet perfect, will own access understanding more cultural good, and understanding cultural, delivered in proto-language that can understood by the brain children, will more easy transmitted, so give benefits that can be obtained obtained.

Because it was proto- human Still carry out, and continue carry out, what is called niche construction, creating niche culture that provides key understanding to continuity life, and change evolutionary continuous optimization his abilities For decorate the niche. Pressure operational selection For sustain the instinct required For endure live in the previous niche will expected slack off Because man become

depend to the cultural niche created alone, as long as facilitating innovations adaptation cultural in case This is innovation in Language competency will more develop.

One of method For think about about evolution man is We This like domesticated ape. Like case taming relax selection For stereotype sounds on selected finches partner replaced with choices made by sensitivity aesthetic from breeder birds and their customers Can just domestication from cultural We has relax selection in Lots matter from characteristic behavior primates we, cause the old path becomes degenerate and form repeat. Consider that brain mammals develop in a way No Certain brain develop in a "bottom up" manner, with One group neuronal interactions prepare step For interaction furthermore track degradation more inclined For seek and find chance new For connected synaptic. Difference derivative from track brain like That Can just contribute to complexity characterizing function Language man. And, as happens with finches, de-differentiation the can happen in fast time.

1. 13 Speech And Language For Communication

See also: Communication animals , animal languages , and origins talk

There is difference between speech and language . Language doesn't must always pronounced : ia Can just written or hinted. Talk is one of the in- between method a number method different in translate and transmit information linguistics, though Can arguably the most natural.

A number of expert looking Language as beginning from development cognitive, its 'externalization 'For serve objective communicative taking place then on evolution man. According to something Genre thoughts, characteristics important distinction Language man is recursion . in context This is an iterative process embed sentence inside sentence. Another famous scientist Daniel Everett reject that recursion That is universal, quoting a number of Language certain (ie Pirahã) allegedly own lack feature This.

A number of experts consider that ability for submit question differentiate Language man from system communication creature other. A number of primates in confinement (esp bonobos and chimpanzees) who have learn use Language signal base for communicate with coach man they capable respond complex questions and requests with true, but fail for submit A simple question. On the contrary, child man capable ask the question for first time (only use intonation question) in period babble from development they are far away before they can use structured syntax. Although babies from different cultures absorb Language the original from environment, everyone language in a world without except tonal, non-tonal, intonation and accent use " intonation asked "the same one for question Yes No . This fact is proof strong universality intonation ask .

1. 14 Development Cognitive And Language

One of interesting capabilities possessed by the user Language is reference high-level, or ability for pointing to object or circumstances something that doesn't happen in a way direct for speaker. Ability This sometimes relate to theory mind, or A concern from others as creature life like himself with passion and attention Alone. According to Chomsky, Hauser and Fitch (2002), there is six aspect from system reference high level :

- Theory of mind
- Capacity for get representation non- linguist conceptual, such as differences in objects / properties
- Recognize signal vocal
- Imitation as a rational, purposeful, deliberate system.
- By volunteer arrange production signal as proof from intentional communication
- Cognition number

1. 15 Theory Of Mind

Main article : Theory of mind

Simon Baron-Cohen (1999) argues that theory thought Certain precede use language, based on proof use from characteristics following about 40,000 years ago : communication, improvement failed communication, teaching, persuasion, deliberate deception, making goals and plans together, divide focus or topic in a way intentionally, and pretending. More further, Baron-Cohen argued that Lots primates own ability this, but No everything. Call and Tomasello's research on chimpanzee support argument this, with one chimpanzee looks understand that other chimpanzees have concern, knowledge, and purpose, but No understand fraud. Lots of primates show tendency to direction theory mind, but No fully The same with what you have man. By Overall, there is a number consensus that theory thought required For use Language. So, progress from theory mind in humans required as something precursor important For use Language in a way full.

1. 16 Introduction to Numbers

In one research, mice and pigeons needed For push knob several times for get food : animals show accuracy difference For small number from four, but after number is increased, the error rate increases (Chomsky, Hauser & Fitch, 2002). Matsuzawa (1985) tried teaching number Arabic. Difference between primates and humans in matter This very big, moment chimpanzee need thousand test For study numbers 1-9 with every number need time almost training The same ; and, after learn meaning of 1, 2 and 3 (and sometimes 4), children with easy understand highest integer value with use function derivatives (for example, 2 more big of 1, 3 is 1 lift more big of 2, 4 more 1 digit large than 3; after reach number 4 apparently almost all child own "a-ha!" moment and understand mark all integers n is more big 1 of number previously). By simple, other primates learn the meaning of number One one by one with use the same approach with refers to symbols temporary

children First Enough study the list of symbols (1,2,3,4...) and then later they will learn its true meaning. This result can be seen as proof from application from "open-ended generative properties" from Language in introduction numbers in humans.

1. 17 Structure Linguistics

➤ Principle lexical-phonological

Hocket (1966) provides a detailed list of important features for explaining Language man. In the realm of principles lexical-phonological, two features from this list are the most important ones are :

- Productivity : users can create and understand very strange messages.
 - Messages new in a way free created by mixing, analyzing from, or changing the old one.
 - There isn't any element new or a long time free become semantics new Because environment and context. This matter says that in every language, new idioms in a way constantly created.
- Duality (in pattern): a number of elements that have meaning are results of creation from a number of small missing elements means in a way separate and different - meaning.

System voice from Language formed from a number of phonological items simple. With rule phonotactics something language, these items can be combined, repeated and united, giving birth to morphology and vocabulary open. Key features from Language is a limited number of simple phonological items give birth to system vocabulary that is not limited with determining rules from each item, and its meaning related with the shape. Syntax phonology is combination simple from existing phonological units There is. Related with matter these, features main other than Language man are : syntax lexical (vocabulary), with existing units There is combined, producing a new item in a way semantics (meaning) or different in a way vocabulary.

A number of elements from principle lexical-phonological is known is outside man. If all (or almost all) have documented in something form in the natural world, only few exist in One the same species. Song birds, monkeys, and whales all sound show syntax phonology, combination of sound units become structure big without increase or gives new meaning. A number of species primates own system phonology simple with the units pointing to some entity in the world. However, there is a difference with system humans, units in the system primates the usually happen in isolation. There is a proof just stated that Campbell's monkeys also show syntax lexical, combining two screams (scream warning the presence of a predator with a "boom", a combined states reduced danger), however Still Not yet clear is That is lexical or phenomenon morphology.

➤ Pidgins and creoles

Main articles : Creole languages and Pidgin languages

Pijin is language that is significant simplified with only grammar is missing perfect and limited vocabulary. In the early days its development pidgin only consists from nouns, verbs, and adverbs with A little or without clause, preposition, conjunction or auxiliary words Work. The grammar No own word order and words No There is tone of voice .

If communication happen between group that uses it pidgin For a long time, Pijin will become complex in a number of generation. If child in One generation use pidgin as Language native so He will develop become Language creole , which is increasingly orderly and use more grammar complicated, with regular phonology, syntax, morphology, and usage syntactic. Syntax and morphology from Language That Can just own innovation local myself who doesn't lowered from his parents 'language.

Study to Language creole all over the world have explain that they own extraordinary similarities normal in grammar and developmen in a way uniform from pidgin in One generation. Similarity This clear visible although creole No own the same source. As addition, creole own similarity although formed in different isolation One with others. Similarity syntax including

word order in Subject -Verb -Object (SKO). Even when creole originate from Language with different word order they often develop become SKO sequence. Creole inclined own similarity pattern use For definite and indefinite clauses definitely, and have rule change For structure sentence even in language origin No There is.

1. 18 Range Time Evolutionary

➤ Primate Language

Field expert primatology can give We description about method Great Apes communicate in the wild. Invention mainly that is primates non-humans, incl monkey big, productive sounds that are graded and not differentiated in a way categorical, with listener try For evaluate gradation smooth in parts emotions and circumstances body from si giver signal. Apes are very difficult produce vocalization without exists related circumstances with emotion. In captivity, apes has taught forms base from Language cue and have persuaded For use lexigram — symbols that are graphic No describe the word—on the keyboard computer. A number of apes, like Kanzi, has learn and use hundreds of lexigrams.

Broca's area and Wernicke's area of the brain primates responsible answer For control muscle from face, tongue, mouth, and larynx, and also for recognize voice. Primates known make a " scream vocals ", and screams This created by the circuit in brainstem and systems limbic . Apparently, modern scanning of the brains of young chimpanzees babble prove that they using Broca's area to babbling. and there is proof that the monkeys heard another monkey chattered use the same brain region like man listen conversation.

In the wild, communication vervet monkey has Lots studied. They known Because make ten different vocalizations. Lots of them used For commemorate member from group when a predator approaches. They including " leopard scream ", " scream snake ", and " scream eagle ". Every scream triggering different defense strategies in hearing monkeys scream those

and scientists can obtain predictable response from monkey with using speakers and sound recording. Other vocalizations are used For identification. If it's a baby monkey shouted, his mother will turned around to him, but Mother the other vervet monkey turned around to Mother monkey the For see What will did it.

With the same way, the researchers has show that chimpanzee (in captivity) uses different "words". For pointing to different foods. They record vocalizations made by chimpanzees such, as example, for grapes, and other chimpanzees will pointing to picture wine when listened to voice the.

➤ Beginning- *Homo*

About pronunciation, there is worthy speculation considered about ability Language from early - *Homo* (2.5 to 0.8 million last year). By anatomy, some expert believe ability bipedalism , which developed in australopithecines about 3.5 million year then, have bring changes to the skull, making system vocal more Lots its L-shaped. Form from located traction and larynx close below neck is precondition important for most the sound produced humans, especially once on a letter life.

Other scientists believe that, based on position larynx, Neanderthal No own anatomy required For produce voice in a way full of those made by modern humans. Previously submitted that difference between channel vocal *Homo sapiens* and Neanderthals can seen in fossils, but invention Neanderthal hyoid bones (see below) are identical with those found in *Homo sapiens*, has weaken theory the. Still just some have an opinion that low larynx No influence development ability speak.

The term *archaic language*, defined by linguists Derek Bickerton , is form primitive from communication that has lack :

- complete syntax
- said the pointer time, aspect, verb help, etc.
- vocabulary closed-class (e. g., non- lexical)

A level in evolution Language be in between Language monkey big and language modern humans have complete. Bickerton (2009) puts First appearance ancient languages with

appearance *Homo* initial, and connecting its emergence with pressure adaptation behavior to niche construction from *scavenging* faced by *Homo habilis*.

Anatomical features like vocal the letter L evolved constantly, no appear suddenly. So more possible when *Homo habilis* and *Homo erectus* during Lower Pleistocene own sort of form communication simple between modern humans and primates other.

➤ *Homo sapiens* ancient

Information more next : Ancient Homo sapiens

Steven Mithen propose term *Hmmmmm* to system communication pre- *linguistics* used by *Homo* ancient, begun from *Homo ergaster* and reach level highest its use during the Middle Pleistocene in *Homo heidelbergensis* and *Homo neanderthalensis*. *Hmmmmm* is acronym from the word language English For *h* olistic (non-combination), *m* manipulative (speech is order or suggestion, no explanation), *multi - modal* (acoustic as gestures and expressions), musical (characteristic music), and *m* imetic.

➤ *Homo heidelbergensis*

See also: Homo heidelbergensis: Language

H. heidelbergensis is relatives close (mostly Possible Because derivative from migrate) from *Homo ergaster*. *H. ergaster* a number of researcher believe that species This as the first hominid to do so make controlled sound, possibly copy vocalization animal other. and *H. heidelbergensis* develop more culture complicated since from point that and maybe develop form Language symbolic First.

➤ *Homo neanderthalensis*

See also: Neanderthal behavior : Language

Invention Neanderthal hyoid bone in 2007 stated that Neanderthals anatomical Can just produce voice like modern humans. Hypoglossal nerve , which is sent past channel, control movement tongue and size said influence ability speak. Living hominids more than 300,000 years Then own hypoglossal canal more similar with chimpanzee than man.

Although Neanderthals had possible anatomy For speaking, Richard G. Klein in 2004 doubted that they own Language like modern language. Doubt he based on notes fossil from man ancient and equipment the stone. Since 2 million year after appearance *Homo habilis*, the rock technology of the hominids changed very little. Klein, who has worked long with stone tools, explained rough stone tools in humans ancient make it No Possible For grouped based on function, and reporting that Neanderthals did not so care How form end from tools they. Klein argued that Neanderthal brains haven't reach level complexity For speak in a modern way, though component physique For produce voice has develop. Issue about cultural and technological levels from Neanderthals still be one controversy.

➤ *Homo sapiens*

See also: Modern human anatomy and behavior modernity

Anatomy first modern humans appear in notes fossils 195,000 years ago in Ethiopia. But even though it is modern anatomical, evidence existing archaeology leave only A little indication that they behave different with *Homo heidelbergensis*. They own the same Acheulean stone tools and hunting A little efficient from Late Pleistocene modern humans. Transition to more advanced Mousterian happen about 120,000 years then, and this occurred during the time of *H. sapiens* and *H. neanderthalensis*.

Development Behavior modernity in *H. sapiens*, which does not occurs in *H. neanderthalensis* or variation *Homo* others, range between 70,000 and 50,000 years ago.

Development more tools sophisticated, first time formed more from One material (example : bones or horns) and can grouped in a number of categories and functions (such as end projectile, tool carvings, knives, and tools hacking and stabbing) is considered as proof emergence and development complete language, it is assumed Because He needed For teach manufacturing processes to his descendants.

Biggest move [*doubtful - discuss*] in evolution Language is progress from primitive, communication like Language pidgin to communication shaped creole with grammar and syntax like modern language.

A number of expert believe that step This only can happen Because change biology in the brain, such as mutation. Also said that genes like FOXP2 Possible has mutate make human can communicate. [*doubtful - discuss*] However, research genetic latest show that Neandertals shared FOXP2 with *H. sapiens*. Because of That He No own unique mutation with *H. sapiens*. In fact, he is indicated that change genetic predates Neandertals -- *H. sapiens* separated.

Still many debate about is Language develop in a way gradually during thousand year or appear in a way direct.

Broca's and Wernicke's areas of the brain primates also appear in the brain humans, the first area to participate as well as in Lots work cognitive and perceptual, which ends in ability language. The same circuit in the brain primates, stem and limbic systems, regulate non-verbal sounds in humans (laughing, crying, etc.), which express that center Language man is modification neural circuits that are common to all primates. Mods and skills For communication linguist This seems very unique to humans, which implies that the language organs are inherited after lineage man separated from lineage primates (chimpanzees and bonobos). By clear states, word language is modification from The larynx is unique to humans.

According to Origin hypothesis from Africa , about 50,000 years old Then group man left Africa and moved on inhabit almost part from earth, including Australia and America, which are not yet Once inhabited by ancient hominids. A number of scientist believe that *Homo sapiens* No left Africa before it is because they Not yet own modern consciousness and language, and hence No own ability or the amount required For migration. Although that's how it is fact that *Homo erectus* succeed leave continent more beginning (without broad capabilities from language, adequate equipment, or modern anatomy), reasons Why anatomy modern humans still was in Africa for a long time still Not yet clear.

1. 19 Scenario Biology On Evolution Language

Information more Next : Evolution linguistics

All man own Language. This includes population, like The Indigenous Peoples of Tasmania and Andaman , who have isolated for 40,000 years more.

Linguistics monogenesis is hypothesis that There is a proto-language, sometimes called proto- humans , and from there everything vowels in language lowered. (matter This No applies to language signal , which is known appear in a way separately No in a way sustainable.) If assumptions about accepted "proto-human " language, approx the time Possible about 200,000 years ago (the time of *Homo sapiens*) and 50,000 years past (behavioral era modernity). ^[need reference]

Scientific endeavor serious first For try set reality of monogenesis is from Alfredo Trombetti , in his book *L'unità d'origine del linguaggio*, published in 1905 (cf. Ruhlen 1994:263). Trombetti estimated that ancestors together existing languages Now has spoken between 100,000 and 200,000 years ago (1922:315).

Monogenesis is rejected by many expert language at the end 19th and early centuries 20th century, when doctrine polygenesis race man and language they get influence (e. g. Saussure 1986/1916:190).

Supporter best of monogenesis in mid- America 20th century is Morris Swadesh (cf. Ruhlen 1994:215). He pioneered two methods important For investigate connection deep between languages, lexicostatistics and glotochronology .

Multiregional hypothesis require that modern languages develop in a way separate in all continent, a considered arguments enter sense by supporters of monogenesis. ^{[140] [141]} Based on hypothesis that, human First appears at the start Pleistocene two million year ago and evolution man next has happen in species man single and continuous. Species This follow forms man ancient like *Homo erectus* and Neanderthals and also forms modern, and evolving to the whole world arrives to diverse population from Modern *Homo sapiens sapiens* . This theory opinion that man evolved past something combination

adaptation in different regions of the world and gene flow between these regions. Supporter from multiregional origins point to fossil and genomic data and continuity from archaeological cultures as supporter hypothesis they.

➤ Foundation Biological from Language man

Descended larynx known as structure unique to the system vocal human and important very in development speech and language. However, he also has found in the species others, incl mammals sea and deer large (example: Red Deer), and larynx observed has inherited during vocalizations in dogs , goats , and crocodiles . In humans, descended larynx cause length system vocal and developing types voice humans can issued. A number of scientist claim that exists non-verbal communication in humans as proof from the descended larynx No part essential to development Language.

Descended larynx own function besides linguistics too, perhaps too exaggerate visible size in animals (passing low vocalization of the expected tone). Hence, though play role important in produce sound, expand diversity sound that can be generated human, he Possible No develop in a way special For objective These, as suggested by Jeffrey Laitman , and by Hauser, Chomsky, and Fitch (2002), can just is example from preadaptation .

Ability control tongue humans should too taken into account. As consequence from increasing intelligence, brain man can control organs and their surroundings in a way more appropriate. Therefore that, tongue more creative in contorting, combining, stopping and expelling vibrate sound produced by the larynx.

1. 20 History

➤ In religion and mythology

Main article : Myth origin Language

See also: Divine Language and Adamic Language

Search to origin Language own long and rooted history from mythology . Most mythology No consider man as inventor language, however consider it as saying divine precede Language man. Mystical language used For communicate with animal or spirit, like Language birds , also many, and enough interesting during the Renaissance .

Vāc is goddess language in, or " incarnation sayings ". As the " sacred utterance " of *Brahman* , he own role cosmological as "Mother of Vedas ". Based on story Aztec , only a male, Coxcox , and a woman, Xochiquetzal , who survived, from floats above piece skin tree. They stranded in a land and give birth Lots current child first born No Can talking, but next, moment coming A blessed dove with language, although each of they given different languages so they No Can understand One each other. ^[142]

Sources mysticism like That Can understood has develop simultaneously with thinking that fate somebody bound with desire god / gods, nature, etc. In history, language considered as something inherited in a way divine The same like a plant (e. g., rice) bestowed by a god virtue and nature. Time of mystery about How plant grow is lost along with development technology, as well as thinking about spoken language in a way divine will too slow gradually disappear.

➤ Test Historical

Main article : Experiment remove Language

History has a number anecdote about people who try find origin Language with experiment. Story First told by Herodotus (*History* 2. 2). He say that Pharaoh Psammetichus (probably Psamtik I , from 7th century BC) chose two children to be raised by one shepherd, with instructions that No anyone can speak with them, but si shepherd must give eat and look after they temporary listen to the first word they. When one child crying the word " bekos " with outstretched hand. The shepherd assume that word is Language Phrygia Because like that's Language Phrygia for the word *bread*. From p the Psammetichus conclude that Language First is Phrygia. King

James V of Scotland said do the same experiment : his son said speak Language The Hebrew . Two kings in centuries mid Frederick II and Akbar said do the same experiment ; children who come along in test the No speak.

➤ Research history

Main article : Evolution linguistics

End of the 18th century until beginning 19th century scientist Europe assume that the world's languages reflect various level development from primitive until saying level further, reach peak at the clump Indo- European languages, considered as the most developed.

Modern linguistics does not appear until end 18th century, and thesis Romantic or animism from Johann Gottfried Herder and Johann Christoph Adelung Still influential until 19th century. Question about origin Language looks No can tracked with approach methodists, and in 1866 the Linguistic Society of Paris in a way famous forbid all discussion about origin language, consider it as the problem is not missed. Increasing approach systematic to history linguistics developed in the 19th century, reaching culminates in teaching. Junggrammaticer from Karl Brugmann and others.

Although I see, interest scientist to question from origin Language in a way gradually life return since 1950s (and controversial) with ideas like universal grammar , Comparative mass and glotochronology .

" Origin language " as subject separately appear from learning in neurolinguistics , psycholinguistics and evolution man . *Linguistic Bibliography* introduces " *Origin of language* " (origins language) as topic separated in 1988, as a sub- topic from psycholinguistics. Institute study special to evolution linguistics is phenomenon new, appeared since the 1990s. ^ Stam, JH 1976. *Inquiries into the origins of language*. New York: Harper and Row , p. 255.

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BAB 2

DEVELOPMENT OF WRITING

Oleh Ika Purnama Sari

2. 1 Introduction

A large number of the languages in the world today are used in spoken form. But we must consider the development of writing. Writing is an important skill for all learners. It allow for communication with other time and space (Graham and Perin, 2007). Speech is more basic than writing. Every society has some spoken language but only some societies have writing systems. All of the human in world, when they are still children to speak. The children learn to speak without trying. When they want to read and write, they must be taught. Writing is a social skill, not a biological attribute (Fasold and Connor-Linton, 2014).

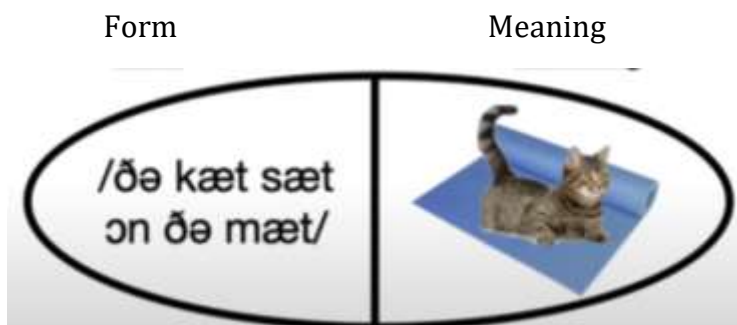
There are many benefits of language to human being have been amplified by the invention and development of wrtiing.

- By spoken language the people can talk about their lives but by the writing they can record tem in detail, they also can analyze nad shre them with the people they will never meet.
- By the spoken language, the people can communicate complex information to other people but by the wrtiing they can communicate that information to others far away or yet to be born, next compare and combine it with the onformation in other written document.
- By the spoken the people can share experience with others, but by the writing allow the people to seach a huge information, to experience the full range of human condition. Writing is very informant for the new

generation. Writing extend access to text to many people, even across generation.

A linguistic writing system is a way of visually representing sign in language. The written symbols represent the linguistic sign, not just the meaning.

"The cat sat on the mat"



In the form, it's indicating the form of the sign which indicates something about the meaning. So in the English writing system, the letters we write down purely refer to the form. From that we get the meaning. It's not like we draw a little picture of a cat to indicate the meaning of the cat; rather we indicate a linguistic sign which has something to do with a cat. It is very important for us, because we need to be able to distinguish between linguistic writing systems and other ways of indicating the meaning visually. Next we can see the picture below. The written symbols represent the linguistic sign (form + meaning) not just the meaning.



How about this little thing this sign? Would you say that this is writing? Probably not. This is not really writing. So, you would not have to be literate to understand what this means. The question, what sense is this not writing? Whereas the letters I write down are?

The difference is that, this thing indicates the meaning directly. What it refers to is the meaning itself of "don't walk". This does not symbolize the meaning directly rather it symbolizes an utterance of the English language a particular sign in the English language which has the meaning of "not walking". So, a writing system is a representation of a sign in language. It is not something that points directly at a meaning like this traffic sign.

There are two aspects of writing systems:

1. Origins of writing, where does the writing come from.
2. Kinds of writing systems, this is going to be intertwined with the history of the writing systems. A writing system has evolved and changes over time through the generations. It has given us the variety of different kinds of writing systems that we see today.

Writing is the kind of language technology. The first language technology. It's like an additional technology we developed as humans for dealing with languages and in fact it's arguably the first language technology. Writing was invented relatively recently (-3000 BCE) so the earliest linguistic writing system that we've been able to find in the archaeological record are only going back to about 3000 BCE so that's 5000 years ago.

So basically writing and reading have been around for 5000 years.

Spoken language itself is a lot older than that. we don't really know exactly how old language is spoken language. But probably on the order of hundreds of thousands years. So for the vast majority of human history, there was spoken language. There was probably sign language but written language has only showed up in the last five thousands years writing is very new.

2. 2 Why was writing so important in ancient civilization?

History is impossible without the written word as one would lack context in which to interpret physical evidence from the ancient past. Writing records the lives of a people and so is the first necessary step in the written history of a cultural or civilization. Written language in particular allows civilization to record their own history and everyday events – crucial for understanding ancient cultures. The world's oldest known written language is Sumerian, which developed in Mesopotamia (Iraq) around 3100 BCE.

Every technological invention made by humanity would have been impossible without the invention of writing. That's why it is the greatest invention in human history. Writing is the method of preserving and sharing knowledge in order to invent anything and everything else. With writing system, they can become able to make laws, rules, sanction, punishment so that they can control the brutality in ancient societies.

Writing emerged in many early civilizations as a way to keep records and better manage complex institutions. Cuneiform writing in early Mesopotamia was first used to keep track at economic exchanges.

Writing arose due to the need to communicate timeslessly and over a long-distance. Our tribal ancestor needed to inform others, what they thought, felt, did, experienced and believed. One way this is evident is through ancient cave wall drawings made tens of thousands of years ago.

2. 3 How did writing system develop?

Writing use of graphic signs as a symbolic representation of language (Yule, 2010). The writing systems must be learn through continued conscious effort, it was not simply acquired. In thos world, not all languages have a written form. There are so many people can not use the sytem of writing eventhough they have a well – established wrting system. They also must learned it study hard. Writing is more difficult than spoken.

Writing is not so older, rather it is a recent achievement of humans beings. When we look back, in the case of writing system 10. 000-20. 000 years ago, we may find a cave writing (20. 000 years old) and clay tokens (10. 000 years old). These evidences direct us to early development of language system. The artifacts are the best describd as an ancient of a writing.

2. 3. 1 Earliest from of writing

The earliest form of writing for which we have evidence is "cuneiform writing system".

What is "cuneiform"?

- Cuneifrom was a Writing system
- It was sed to record different languages in ancient Middle east.
- 3350 BCE to 79 CE ("AD")
- Cuneus is latin for "wedge"
- Engraved onto stone or metal
- Presses into clay with reed stylus.

An ancient script has more obvious connection to writing system in use today can be identified in inscriptions dated around 3,000 years ago. There are so many evidences used in construction of ancient writing system, from an inscription on stone. The ancients were using elaborate scripts on woods, leather, or the other perishable materials. By the inscription we can trace the development of writing tradition, lasting a few thousand years. The human tried to create a more permanent record of what was going on.

2.3.2 Kinds of Writing system

George Yule "the symbolic of language through the use of graphic signs". Unlike speech, writing is learned not acquired. The writing is learned through the continuous conscious efforts. All languages have not written form. Many users of languages having well established written form don't know how to write.

Types of writing

1. Pictographic system
2. Ideographic system
3. Logographic system
4. Rebus writing

Pictogram / pictograph



This develops those little symbols that were used. They were originally like little pictures of sheep or a picture of wheat or whatever people eventually start using these symbols to indicate accounts but rather to do things like write down stories. This is what you get what's called pictographic writing. Pictographic writing is a writing system where pictures

represent things or idea iconically. These symbols are iconic. The idea is that you indicate the meaning using little drawings of things and the means that if someone were to read these tablets, the actual words they might be different. One person might say hand another person say fingers. These markings here are iconically representing things in the world. They don't yet represent actual signs. So in some sense this is not really a full-fledged writing system yet, pictographic writing is where you just iconically draw a little pictures to tell stories or can or to retain information. This also called proto writing. It is not yet indicating a linguistic sign rather it's directly indicating the meaning.

The pictographic was first invented in Sumer around 3500 BCE. We had our accounting system which developed into these pictographic proto-writing systems. A pictogram uses a picture of an object. A picture of a mosque on a board on a highway. A picture of a knife and forks means a restaurant. These pictures represent concrete objects that you can touch, see, hear, taste, smell. For this reason, anyone who sees it takes a good guess.

2. 3. 3 Ideographic writing

An ideogram uses a symbol made of geometric shapes to represent an idea. It is a symbol and no longer an icon but it is still ideographic in the sense that the symbols still indicate an idea. It doesn't yet indicate a particular word or a particular sign of the language. So you go from something that represents meaning iconically like pictographic writing to something that represents meaning symbolically conventionally, that is ideographic writing. It is the example of ideographic from this time period in Sumer. We see that whereas in the previous tablet we can look at and see what all the symbols meant. Now it is not going to happen right things have become very conventionalized. They have become very idealized. It is now

conventional ideographic writing systems. Ideographic writing represents meaning directly and symbolically.

2. 3. 4 Logographic system

In a logographic system, each written sign called logogram, the example like Chinese. A logogram represents a morpheme in the spoken language. The using of logograms can be found in China. Many Chinese written symbols or character are used as representations of meaning of words.

A logogram, or logograph, is a written or pictorial symbol used to represent an entire word, unlike phonograms, which represent phonetic sounds. Logograms are commonly known as “ideograms” or “hieroglyphs,” although, technically, an ideogram represents an idea rather than a specific word. Writing systems incorporating logograms also use phonetic elements as a purely logographic script, which would be impractical for most languages. Thus, such writing systems use a combination of phonetic and logographic symbols, including ideograms. The **Logogram**, written or pictorial symbol intended to represent a whole word. Writing systems that make use of logograms include Chinese, Egyptian hieroglyphic writing, and early cuneiform writing system. Now known writing system is totally logographic; all such systems have both logograms and symbols representing particular sounds or syllables.

In logographic writing, each symbols conventionally symbolizes one word (or morpheme). Symbols represent words by the rebus principle. The symbol is used for the phonemic value of its usual referent. The reader's principle is that a symbol is used for the phonemic value of its usual referent. This is developed simultaneously in Sumer and Egypt around 2900 BCE. The idea is that in Egyptian hieroglyphics. You have this symbol, you have this circle that represents. Contemporary logograms in English are forms such as \$, @, 9 & where symbol represents one word. A single grapheme which

represents a word. All numericals are logographs. 1,2,3,4,5,6,7.. etc.

1 – a grapheme represents word "one"

\$ – a grapheme represents word "dollar"

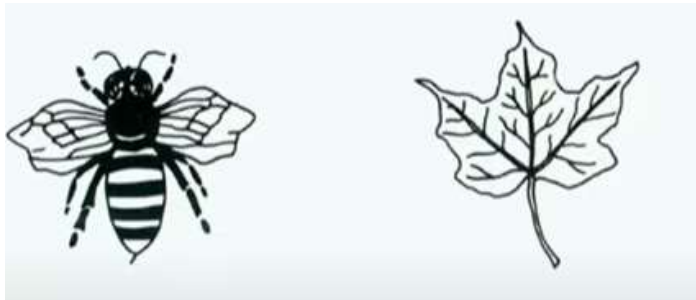
£ – a grapheme represents word "pound"

€ – a grapheme represents word "euro"

There are languages that use logographs, they are Chinese, Egyptian Hieroglyphics writing and early cuneiform writing system.

2. 3. 5 Rebus writing

It is a type of writing in which a words is represented by a picture of an object the name of which sounds similar to the represented word or syllable. Several rebuses may be combined to make a phrase or sentences.



The rebus principle looks like this. Imagine I want to write a word like "belief". What is the picture belief? I guess in you know modern culture I could write a thought bubble but they didn't have the idea of thought bubbles in you know ancient egypt.

How are you going to write done belief? What would you do is you write down the symbols for bee and then you should write down the symbols for leaf and that spell belief. This particular symbols because th ephonectics of ancient egyption language was different. They would use two different symbols but the idea is they would use these idoeograms not for their meaning

value but for their sound value. In order to write these abstract words and morpheme. So belief, you write bee and leaf.

2. 3. 6 The Development of Writing

The history of the development of writing systems is the process of discovering and elaborating the capacity of graphic symbols to represent spoken language, combined with the discovery and refinement of physical media for producing, storing, and (eventually) reproducing writing. Here we can see three elements,

- Linguistic
- Material
- Social

The scripts around the world have their own history. It weaves together their own linguistic and cultural context.

The basic Progression that you see in all writing system that we know about is that you start with the accounting system or various system are indicating numbers and account tallies of various kinds. These develop into pictographic writing. Those develop into ideographic writing where we are conventionally indicating meanings. Those develop into logographic writing, which is the first thing you could call a real writing system because now you have symbols that indicate morphemes often using this rebus principle.

DAFTAR PUSTAKA

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BAB 3

THE PROPERTIES OF LANGUAGE

Oleh Afriana

3. 1 Introduction

Language can be interpreted as sounds that have rhythm. Language is a basic element in art, it has aesthetic or beautiful properties. Language is the sounds uttered by the communicators. Language can develop because it is used by humans. Language is human. (Humas & Beri, 2024). Language properties include sign language for the deaf; consideration of animal “language”; and the occasional silliness of “good” grammarians who tell us not to divide infinitives haphazardly and who consider sentence-ending prepositions an inappropriate thing to do. (Fromkin et al., 2013). You don't need to know whether a sentence is true or false to know its meaning. Knowing the meaning tells you how to determine the truth value.

The sentence copper conducts electricity has meaning and can be understood because we know how to determine whether it is true or false: for example by using a volt meter. We can also comment on this sentence wisely by not ignoring the use of copper wire in lamps. If the sentence were Crumple-horned snork acks incarnadine nargles, you would consider it meaningless because you would not know how to determine whether the sentence is true or false. Reducing questions about meaning to questions about truth conditions has proven very useful in understanding the semantic nature of language. (Fromkin et al., 2013).

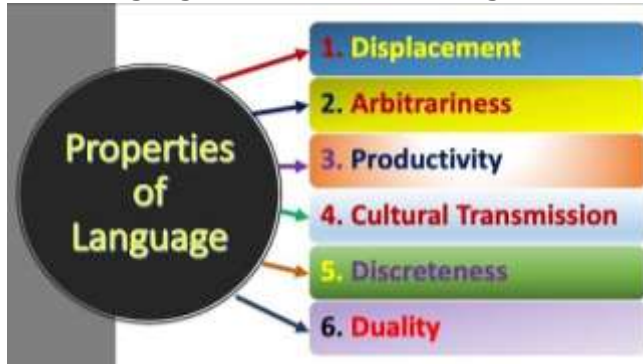
There is growing evidence that newborns react to minute alterations in their environment rather than to other individuals, which calls into question the notion that a person's mind is empty at birth. Babies will respond to variations in visual stimuli such as distance and depth perception, the physical characteristics of flexible and stiff objects, and human faces in particular. Additionally, babies respond to many aspects of language at extremely young ages. According to experiments, babies will increase their rate of sucking (as gauged by niftyly constructed pacifiers) if they are exposed to a variety of visual or aural stimuli; but, if the same stimulus is given repeatedly, their rate of sucking will decrease. Slightly older babies turned toward and listened longer to words, stress patterns, and noises that they were familiar with when assessed using selective listening techniques. However, they will also react to novel patterns, suggesting that they are able to distinguish between the many language components that are being examined. This innate reaction can be used to gauge how well a newborn understands and distinguishes between various language cues. (Fromkin et al., 2013).

3. 2 Properties of Language

Some persons are very limited in their other abilities, but they have excellent language skills. Children with certain language impairments typically experience this. Despite not having any brain abnormalities, these kids struggle more than other kids to learn language. in cases where they lack mental impairment, autism, or difficulties with perception. However, their grammar is flawed. SLI typically has trouble with terms like suffixes, auxiliary verbs, prepositions, singular, plural, etc. There are 6 properties of language (Yule, 1985): They are as follow:

1. Displacement,
2. Arbitrariness,
3. Productivity
4. Cultural Transmission,
5. Discreteness,
6. Duality

George Yule is well known for his contributions to discourse analysis and pragmatics. He is an American linguist who was born in Scotland (Stirling). Based on his theory in *The study of language* 5th Edition, cited in *learning English Language about Properties of Language* can be seen in the figure 2. 1. below:



Gambar 3. 1 Properties of Language

(Learning English Language: 2021)

3. 3 Displacement

God has created countless creatures in the world. But do they communicate in the same way as humans? Of course not. The reason is: The physical aspects of human teeth, larynx and so on are not shared by other creatures. So, their expression is limited by a 'fixed' reference. That is why we come to a discussion of the unique properties of human language. The 'unique' in 'human language' is that which is uniquely tuned and

oriented 'by the Almighty to make humans speak and use language.

Displacement: Let's first have an example to understand the concept of 'displacement'. When you ask your pet cat:

Example:

Lidya : Hi, Muezza

Muezza : ***Meowmeow***

Lidya : Where were you last night?

Muezza : ***Meowmeow***

Lidya : What were you doing?'

Muezza : ***Meowmeow***

From the conversation above, you understand that the cat said "meow" to you because you understand that the cat can only answer your question with one word, namely "meow" where communication occurs directly between you and the cat at the same time and place. You ask "where were you last night?", Muezza will answer "*meow*" and when you ask again 'what did you do? 'Muezza will give the same response '*meow*'. What we understand through these two examples is that animals are incapable of communicating expressions such as 'last night', 'in the park', 'tomorrow', 'yesterday', and so on. (Learning & Language, 2021)

Most likely, I mean Grrrr, right now because On the other hand, like your pet dog after playing in the yard then comes home and stands at your feet saying "Grrrr" maybe you will understand what is meant by "Grrrr" from the dog. If you ask he seems unable to communicate Grrrr last night, in the park. This word cannot be used effectively to connect events far removed from the time and place when your dog said Grrrr. However, it has been suggested that bee communication has displacement properties.

For example, when a worker bee finds a nectar source and returns to the hive, it may perform a complex dance routine to convey the location of the nectar to other bees. Depending on the type of dance (circle dances for nearby dances and tail-wag

dances, at varying tempos, for greater distances and how far away), other bees can tell where this newfound feast can be found. The ability of bees to indicate rather distant locations means that bee communication has at least some degree of displacement as a feature. The important consideration involved, of course, is degree. Bee communication undergoes movement in a very limited form. Of course, bees can direct other bees to their food source. However, it should be the newest food source. This is not the rose garden on the other side of town we visited last weekend, and as far as we know, this is not the likely nectar in bee heaven in the future.

It can be concluded that animal communication is designed for the current moment where an animal cannot be used effectively to relate events that occurred in the past or far away in time and place. This is called the characteristic of human language, namely "transfer". Where is the nature of this language? Different locations, past and future times. Language users talk about events that do not occur in their immediate environment. These events did not occur at the time of speaking, they are places whose whereabouts we cannot be sure of. Animal communication is thought to lack these properties of language. Humans can create "fiction" because it is the nature of 'displacement' that allows humans, unlike other creatures, to describe possible worlds in the future. When your pet cat comes home after spending the night in the back alley and stands at your feet meowing, you may understand this message to be related to the time and place nearby. If you ask your cat where it was the night before and what it was doing, you might get the same meowing answer. It seems that animal communication is almost exclusively designed for the moment, the here and now.

3. 6 Cultural Transmission

As we know, a newborn baby in a natural environment cannot acquire language, just like we leave a newborn baby and cannot speak anything, can he communicate using Indonesian, English, Arabic and other languages? Humans are born with an innate language tendency from their parents and surrounding

families. Humans tend to acquire language. Humans are not born with the ability to produce language or speech in various languages in the world. God does not give humans any speech at birth. Humans only produce sounds at birth, such as crying and laughing. Language is learning that results from social interaction. Humans can and are fluent in communicating in languages such as speaking Indonesian, English, Arabic, Hindi and other languages because they live in a society where the people around them use these languages. This is influenced by the culture of that place. Likewise, the genes that every human has, such as white skin, brown eyes and black hair, are influenced by our parents, but we do not necessarily inherit their language because we will acquire the language from other speakers who may not have our parents' genes. This is the difference between languages obtained from cultural transmission, for example, a baby adopted by an American will definitely speak English and a baby adopted by a Chinese person will speak Chinese. This is called the language process from one generation to the next. Therefore, a particular language is very important in the process of language mastery by humans "cultural transmission".

It can be concluded that even though we inherit genes from our parents we cannot inherit our parents' language. Skin, eye and skin color may come from genes, but language and culture will come from other speakers. There is something that happened to the author himself, where the author has a nephew from an older brother who was born in a village in one of the areas in the city of Padang who uses the Minangkabau language and the nephew was born in a Minang environment where the majority of Minang speakers speak so that the nephew is very fluent in Minang language, on the other hand, my older sister's nephew was born in the city of Jakarta with a majority of Indonesian speakers and was born in an environment where Indonesian speakers were born, so they definitely use that language and have limitations in acquiring Minang language,

namely as their own mother tongue. This is because the older brother's nephew definitely uses Minang because the older brother and local speakers use Minang and the other older sister's nephew uses Indonesian. Even though now the nephew has started to learn Minang language, he has to use this language and learn to understand Minang language because they are not born with the ability to produce speech in a particular language. In animals, the general pattern of communication is signals, which are used instinctively and are not learned. Meanwhile, human babies who grow up in isolation do not produce "instinctive" language, which is why the cultural transmission of a particular language is very important in the process of human language acquisition.

3. 4 Arbitrariness

The term "arbitrariness" describes the customary or random nature of the link between words (language symbols) and their meanings. That is, there isn't a logical or natural relationship between a word's written mark or sound and its intended meaning. These features distinguish human language from other species' modes of communication, such as animal sounds found in their natural habitat.

Language has three arbitrary properties, which are as follows: First, there is no direct association between the English term "apple" and the actual apple. The fruit should not be referred to by the name for any natural reason. Second, terms for the same object may have distinct meanings in different languages. Third, for instance, the word for "water" is "agua" in Spanish, "eau" in French, and so forth. There is no inherent justification for these terms to be different in the two languages. Written writing or signs also exhibit an arbitrary nature. The meaning of the words or sentences that symbols in an alphabet or script indicate is unrelated to the symbols themselves. For instance, the letter "A" has no inherent meaning in English, yet we utilize it to create things like "apple" and "animal. " One of the things that makes human language so adaptable and

imaginative is its arbitrary nature. Additionally, because there is no strict relationship between symbols and meaning, language can evolve and change over time and across cultural boundaries. But language's arbitrary character also makes it difficult to understand and use correctly, necessitating much instruction.

For instance,

A: "What's your name?"

B: My name is Maria.

Her name in this exchange is Maria, although it might also be Sarah, and so on. The issue here is that the reason she was given the name Maria at birth was because her parents and other family members had done so. Since that is the name my mother and father decided to use for you. You might be known by a different name in society if your parents or relatives refer to you by a name other than Maria.

This means that there is no natural connection between the person and the name given to him. Our name is known due to wider public acceptance. That's how we are known by certain names. This is known as 'Arbitrariness'. Technically, we can say that there is no natural connection between a linguistic form and its meaning. Let's look at another example. The 'objects' placed in front of us have certain names by which we recognize them. These are known as 'books' in English. The same object or icon has different names in different languages. We call it 'Kitab' in Arabic, 'Pushtak' in Hindi, and so on. If there were a natural or iconic connection between an object and the name given to it, the same icon or object could be universally known by the same name 'book'. But that's not the problem.

In conclusion, the property of a linguistic "Symbol" is its arbitrary relationship to the object used to denote it. This property of language is known as 'Arbitrariness'. The name does not at all correspond to the object or icon it represents.

3. 5 Productivity

The verb "produce" is the root of the term "productivity." To 'create' is what it means. The verb is in the adjective form

"productive," which means "creative. " "Creativity" is the synonym for the term "productivity. " It's comparable to "open-mindedness. " Any human language has an endless number of possible utterances. Human expression is infinite. Let's look at an illustration to better grasp this idea. The English language has only 26 alphabets. With only 26 alphabets, how many words are there in the English language? Numerous thousands! Millions of them! With those words, how many phrases are we able to construct? Never-ending! Never-ending! The planet is home to billions of books. Do all books use the same phrases or expressions? No, they are not interchangeable. We get out of bed and begin a fresh day every day. We engage with a great number of people from dawn till night. We make jokes. We chuckle. We create a limitless stream of speech. We have different opportunities to express ourselves in different settings.

The core idea of "productivity" or "creativity" in human language is referenced by these several terms. Poets and writers are the most productive people on the planet. They come up with an infinite quantity of complex gestures or statements. Thus, "productivity" can be said to be a characteristic of all languages. "Novel" utterances are constantly being formed and conveyed. When developing and producing words that they have never heard before, a kid does it very actively. Conversely, it seems that non-human signaling is less flexible. Indeed, 'fixed reference' is a property of animal communication. Grammarians most frequently discuss "productivity" in relation to "word formation" patterns. '-ness' is a very fruitful noun-forming suffix. Consider the terms "happiness," "preparedness," "usefulness," and "friendliness. " This also applies to the verbal prefix "re-. " Take the terms "rewrite," "reconsider," "reappoint," "renegotiate," "replay," and "reboot," for instance. However, the suffix "-th," which forms nouns, is completely useless. We are able to generate existing cases such as "warmth" and "depth," but we are unable to form new ones such as "happyth" or "bigth. " In the end, we realize that "productivity" really relates to how freely we are able to use our creativity to communicate our thoughts and emotions.

3. 7 Discreteness

From the word 'discreteness' which means separate, it is an adjective that can also be interpreted as "different" or in other words "attached" to other people. There are 44 sounds in English, for example, different from other languages, each sound has a different meaning. And we will take an example from English and here are English sounds that have different meanings.

Example:

/b/ and /p/ in the words /back/ and /pack/

/l/ and /g/ in the words /love/ and /glove/

/r/ and /f/ in the words /run/ and /fun/

/t/ and /s/ in the words /train/ and /stain/

The sounds between the letters /b/ and /p/ in the words /back/ and /pack/ don't look very big but these sounds are part of the language in English, these sounds are used in such a way that the appearance is not the only one with a different meaning, a difference meaning only in /b/ and /p/ The idea is that a very small difference between /p/ and /b/ can have as different a meaning as /love/ and /glove/. Here, we have a difference only in the sound /g/. /run/ and /fun/, here, we have a difference of only one sound /r/ and /f/, /train/ and /stain/... the difference is only /s/. So, what we want to convey here is that slight differences in certain sounds can have their own meaning. This property of language is described as 'discretionary', meaning that each sound in the language is treated as something separate, distinct and separate. Language is organized into two. The sounds used in language have different meanings. For example, the difference between the sound /b/ and the sound /p/ is not actually that big, but if the sound is part of a language such as English, then the sound is used in such a way that its

appearance rather than another is meaningful. The fact that the pronunciation of the forms pack and back causes differences in meaning can only be due to the difference between the sounds /p/ and /b/ in English. This characteristic of language is described as wisdom. Each sound in the language is treated separately.

3. 8 Duality

In producing speech, we have a physical level where we can produce individual sounds such as /n/, /b/, and /i/. This characteristic is called double articulation or also called duality. Where as individual sounds, none of the discrete forms have intrinsic meaning or individual sounds have no meaning at all.

Example:

The individual sounds /n/, /b/ and /i/ are meaningless

The individual sounds /o/, /b/ and /k/, do not have any meaning

The individual sounds here, /i:/, /sh/, /p/, have no meaning whatsoever

If we combine or combine these sounds in a certain way then the sounds will have meaning, as in the example below:

/n/, /i/ and /b/= nib

/b/, /o/ and /k/=book

/Sh/, /i:/ and /p/=sheep

There are 13 features or properties of language universally from all human languages (Hockett: 1954), namely as follows:

- 1) Language is symbols or words that arbitrarily represent certain objects, actions, or concepts which are called arbitrariness

- 2) Language consists of discrete or also called separate units such as words and phonemes, the term language is Discreteness
- 3) Language has two levels of structure called sound and meaning which is also called Duality.
- 4) Language has the ability to produce new sentences that have not existed before or have not been mentioned/heard, which is called Language Productivity.
- 5) Language that only exists in our minds such as the present, past and future when humans talk about things that are not in front of our eyes is called Displacement.
- 6) Language is obtained from interaction with the environment and is passed down from generation to generation or what we call cultural transmission.
- 7) Language can be learned by anyone, regardless of their background or intellectual abilities, also known as Learnability.
- 8) Language is used specifically to express information about the physical world, social relationships, or feelings and thoughts or Specialization.
- 9) Language has a consistent relationship between the symbols used and the meaning communicated, also known as semanticity.
- 10) Language allows its use to lie or mislead or Prevarication.
- 11) Language allows humans to talk about language itself or Language is Reflexivity.
- 12) Language is not only used in one direction or by one person, but can be used by everyone freely.
- 13) Language has no definite boundaries or limitations, so it always develops and changes over time (Open-endedness)/"Non-directionality".

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BAB 4

THE SOUNDS OF LANGUAGE

Oleh Neneng Yuniarty

4. 1 Introduction

The study of language is a rich tapestry woven from many threads, each contributing to the intricate patterns of human communication. At its core lies the fundamental element: sound. From the gentle cadence of a whispered secret to the booming resonance of a commanding voice, the sounds of language form the very essence of our verbal interactions.

In this exploration, we delve into the multifaceted world of phonetics, phonology, and the intricate mechanics that underpin the spoken word. We embark on a journey through the phonetic alphabet, where each symbol represents a distinct articulatory gesture, a unique configuration of the vocal tract shaping the flow of air into meaningful utterances.

Through the lens of phonology, we unravel the complex web of sounds that populate languages worldwide, analysing patterns, rules, and structures that govern their organization. From the melodic tones of tonal languages to the rhythmic patterns of stress and intonation, we uncover the subtle nuances that imbue speech with its musicality and expressiveness.

But the sounds of language are not confined to the spoken word alone. In the realm of written language, orthography serves as a bridge between sound and symbol, translating the fluidity of speech into static glyphs on a page. Yet, even within this seemingly rigid framework, the echoes of sound reverberate, shaping spelling conventions and lending insight into the historical evolution of language.

As we navigate this vast landscape of linguistic sound, we uncover not only the mechanics of speech production but also the cultural, social, and psychological dimensions that infuse language with meaning and identity. From regional accents to dialectal variations, the sounds of language serve as markers of belonging and markers of distinction, forging connections and fostering understanding among diverse communities.

In this exploration, we invite you to tune your ears to the symphony of human speech, to listen closely to the whispers and echoes that resonate within each syllable and phoneme. For in the sounds of language lies the heartbeat of human communication, a universal melody that binds us together in the rich tapestry of linguistic diversity.

4. 2 Phonetics

Phonetics is the branch of linguistics that deals with the sounds of speech and their production, combination, description, and representation by written symbols. It is concerned with the physical properties of speech sounds (phones) as well as how they are perceived and processed by humans. Phonetics can be divided into three main subfields:

1. Articulatory Phonetics.

This branch studies how speech sounds are produced by the articulatory organs (such as the lips, tongue, and vocal cords) within the vocal tract. It examines the movements and positions of these organs during speech production. Understanding articulatory phonetics involves examining the movements and positions of these articulators as they produce different sounds. Key aspects of articulatory phonetics include:

a. Articulators.

These are the organs or structures within the vocal tract that are involved in producing speech sounds. They include the lips, tongue, teeth, alveolar ridge, hard palate, soft palate (velum), and vocal cords.

b. Places of Articulation.

Different speech sounds are produced by obstructing or modifying the airflow at various points within the vocal tract. These points are called places of articulation and include bilabial (both lips), labiodental (lips and teeth), dental (tongue and teeth), alveolar (tongue and alveolar ridge), palatal (tongue and hard palate), velar (tongue and soft palate), and glottal (vocal cords).

c. Manner of Articulation.

This refers to how the airflow is obstructed or modified to produce different speech sounds. Common manners of articulation include stops (complete closure of airflow), fricatives (narrowing of the airflow causing turbulence), affricates (combination of stop and fricative), nasals (airflow through the nose), approximants (narrowing but not complete closure of airflow), and liquids (partial closure allowing airflow).

d. Coarticulation.

This refers to the phenomenon where the articulators adjust their positions in anticipation of or in response to neighbouring sounds. It accounts for the smooth and rapid transitions between speech sounds.

e. Vocal Tract Configurations.

Different speech sounds are produced by manipulating the shape and configuration of the vocal tract. These configurations can vary widely and are crucial for producing distinct phonemes.

Articulatory phonetics plays a fundamental role in understanding the physical processes involved in

speech production, which is essential for fields such as linguistics, speech pathology, and language teaching. By analysing the movements and positions of articulators during speech production, researchers can gain insights into the acoustic properties of speech sounds and how they are perceived and interpreted by listeners.

2. Acoustic Phonetics.

Acoustic phonetics focuses on the physical properties of speech sounds, particularly their transmission and reception as waves of air pressure. It involves analysing the frequency, amplitude, and duration of these sound waves using instruments such as spectrograms.

Researchers in acoustic phonetics use various tools and techniques to analyse speech sounds, including spectrograms, which display the frequency content of speech over time, and waveform displays, which represent the amplitude of the speech signal over time. By studying these acoustic properties, researchers can gain insights into the production mechanisms of speech sounds and how they are perceived by listeners.

Acoustic phonetics plays a crucial role in fields such as speech technology, linguistics, speech pathology, and language learning, where understanding the acoustic properties of speech sounds is essential for developing technologies, diagnosing speech disorders, and studying language variation and change.

3. Auditory Phonetics.

Auditory phonetics is a branch of phonetics that focuses on the perception of speech sounds by humans. It deals with how sounds are perceived by the auditory system, including how the ear processes sound waves and how the brain interprets them as speech. Key aspects of auditory phonetics include the perception of pitch, loudness, duration, and timbre, as well as the mechanisms involved in speech perception, such as auditory masking, speech segmentation, and phoneme recognition.

Researchers in auditory phonetics study various phenomena related to speech perception, including how listeners distinguish between different speech sounds (phonemes), how they perceive speech in noisy environments, and how they recognize patterns in speech to understand language. This field is essential for understanding the complex relationship between the acoustic properties of speech sounds and their perception by human listeners, which is crucial for applications such as speech technology, language learning, and communication disorders research.

Phonetics is essential for understanding the sounds of language and how they vary across languages and dialects. It provides the foundation for many areas of linguistics, including phonology (the study of how sounds function within a particular language system), speech recognition and synthesis, language teaching, and forensic linguistics.

4. 3 Speech Production

Phonetics is the branch of linguistics that deals with the sounds of speech and their production, transmission, and reception. It focuses on the physical properties of speech sounds, how they are produced by the human vocal tract, and how they are perceived by the human auditory system.

Speech production involves a complex process that includes several stages:

1. Respiration.

It starts with the movement of air from the lungs. This air provides the energy needed for speech production.

2. Phonation.

The air from the lungs passes through the larynx (voice box), where the vocal cords vibrate. This vibration produces voiced sounds.

3. Articulation.

The vibrating air from the larynx moves through the vocal tract, which consists of the oral cavity (mouth) and the nasal cavity. The articulators (tongue, lips, teeth, palate, etc.) shape the airflow to produce specific speech sounds by manipulating the resonance and airflow.

4. Resonation.

The shape and configuration of the vocal tract, including the position of the tongue, lips, and other articulators, influence the resonance characteristics of the produced sound. This resonance further shapes the quality of speech sounds.

5. Prosody.

This refers to the suprasegmental features of speech, such as stress, intonation, rhythm, and pitch variation, which convey additional meaning and emotion.

Each speech sound is produced by a unique configuration of the vocal tract and articulatory movements. Phonetics aims to describe and analyse these sounds in terms of their acoustic properties, articulatory gestures, and perceptual characteristics. By studying speech production, phoneticians can understand the mechanisms behind different speech sounds, speech disorders, and accents.

4. 4 Vocal Folds

Vocal folds, also known as vocal cords, are two folds of mucous membrane located in the larynx (voice box) above the trachea (windpipe). They play a crucial role in speech production and phonation. When air passes through the larynx from the lungs, it causes the vocal folds to vibrate, producing sound. The pitch and volume of the sound are controlled by the tension and length of the vocal folds, as well as the force of the airflow passing through them.

The vocal folds consist of layers of tissue: the outer layer is composed of muscle tissue, while the inner layer is made up of mucous membrane. When the muscles in the vocal folds contract, they tighten and become thinner, resulting in higher-pitched sounds. Conversely, when the muscles relax, the vocal folds become thicker and produce lower-pitched sounds.

The manipulation of the vocal folds, along with the resonance of the vocal tract, allows humans to produce a wide range of sounds and speech. Proper care and maintenance of the vocal folds are essential for vocal health, as misuse or overuse can lead to conditions like vocal nodules or vocal fold paralysis. Techniques such as vocal warm-ups, hydration, and avoiding vocal strain can help keep the vocal folds healthy and maintain optimal vocal function.

In phonetics, vocal folds (also known as vocal cords) are crucial anatomical structures located within the larynx (voice box) of the human body. These folds are essential for producing speech sounds through a process known as phonation.

Here is how they function:

a. Location.

Vocal folds are located within the larynx, which is situated in the throat, just above the trachea (windpipe).

b. Anatomy.

Vocal folds are composed of mucous membrane stretched horizontally across the larynx. They are shaped somewhat like two curtains or folds of tissue.

c. Function.

During phonation, the vocal folds can be brought together or apart by muscles in the larynx. When they are brought close together and air from the lungs passes through them, they vibrate, producing sound. The pitch and volume of the sound produced depend on factors such as the tension of the vocal folds and the rate of airflow passing through them.

d. Adjustment for Speech.

The vocal folds can be adjusted in various ways to produce different speech sounds. For example, they may be tensed or relaxed to produce high or low-pitched sounds, and they may be brought together more tightly or more loosely to produce sounds with different levels of intensity or voicing.

e. Maintenance.

Care must be taken to maintain vocal fold health, as they can be subject to damage or inflammation from various factors such as excessive strain, infections, or certain medical conditions. Techniques such as vocal warm-ups, proper hydration, and avoiding habits like smoking can help keep the vocal folds healthy.

Understanding the role and function of vocal folds is fundamental in the study of phonetics, as they play a central role in the production of speech sounds in human language.

In phonetics, sounds are classified into various categories based on different articulatory and acoustic characteristics. Here are the main classes of sounds:

1. Vowels.

These are speech sounds produced without significant constriction or obstruction of airflow in the vocal tract. Vowels are characterized by the position of the tongue and lips. They form the nucleus of syllables in most languages.

2. Consonants.

These are speech sounds produced with some degree of constriction or closure in the vocal tract. Consonants can be further classified based on various parameters:

- a. Place of Articulation refers to the location in the vocal tract where the airflow is constricted to produce the sound.

For examples: bilabial (e. g., /p/, /b/), labiodental (e. g., /f/, /v/), alveolar (e. g., /t/, /d/), etc.

- b. Manner of Articulation refers to how the airflow is obstructed or modified to produce the sound.

For examples: stops/plosives (e. g., /p/, /t/, /k/), fricatives (e. g., /f/, /s/, /ʃ/), affricates (e. g., /tʃ/, /dʒ/), nasals (e. g., /m/, /n/), etc.

- c. Voicing refers to whether the vocal cords are vibrating during the production of the sound. Consonants can be voiced (e. g., /b/, /z/) or voiceless (e. g., /p/, /s/).
- d. Nasality. Some consonants are produced with air flowing through the nasal cavity, such as nasal stops (e. g., /m/, /n/).

3. Semi-vowels or Approximants.

These sounds are produced with a narrower constriction in the vocal tract compared to consonants but wider than vowels. For examples: /j/ (as in "yes") and /w/ (as in "we").

4. Diphthongs.

These are complex vowel sounds consisting of a combination of two adjacent vowel sounds within the same syllable, where the articulatory organs move from one vowel position to another. For examples: the "oi" in "coin" and the "ou" in "house."

5. Tones.

In tonal languages, such as Mandarin Chinese and many African languages, variations in pitch (tone) can change the meaning of a word. Tones are often considered as distinct phonetic units.

These classes provide a framework for understanding and describing the wide variety of sounds used in human languages.

4. 5 Articulation

Articulation in phonetics refers to the process of producing speech sounds through the manipulation of the vocal organs, such as the tongue, lips, palate, and vocal cords, to shape airflow and create distinct sounds. It involves the coordination of various articulatory mechanisms to produce specific phonemes or speech sounds that form the basis of language. Articulation plays a crucial role in speech production, as different articulatory gestures result in the production of different sounds, which, when combined, form words and sentences. Studying articulation helps linguists and speech therapists understand how speech sounds are produced and how they can vary across different languages and dialects.

In phonetics, articulation refers to the way speech sounds are produced by the movement and positioning of the speech organs (such as the tongue, lips, and palate) in the vocal tract. There are several types of articulation, each characterized by the specific manner in which airflow is obstructed or modified to produce different speech sounds. Here are the main types of articulation:

1. Place of Articulation.

This refers to the specific point in the vocal tract where the airflow is obstructed or modified to produce a speech sound. Common places of articulation include the lips, teeth, alveolar ridge (the ridge behind the upper front teeth), palate (roof of the mouth), velum (soft palate), and the back of the oral cavity.

In phonetics, "place of articulation" refers to the point in the vocal tract where a consonant sound is produced. This point is determined by the positioning of the speech organs, such as the lips, tongue, teeth, and palate. The following are some common places of articulation:

- a. Bilabial.
Consonants produced by bringing both lips together.
For examples: /p/, /b/, and /m/.
- b. Labiodental.
Consonants produced by touching the lower lip to the upper teeth.
For examples: /f/ and /v/.
- c. Dental.
Consonants produced by placing the tongue against or between the teeth.
For examples: the "th" sounds in "thin" (/θ/) and "this" (/ð/).
- d. Alveolar.
Consonants produced by bringing the tongue into contact with the alveolar ridge, which is the ridge just behind the upper front teeth.
For examples: /t/, /d/, and /n/.
- e. Postalveolar.
Consonants produced by raising the tongue toward the back of the alveolar ridge or the area just behind it.
For examples: the "sh" sound in "she" (/ʃ/) and the "zh" sound in "measure" (/ʒ/).
- f. Palatal.
Consonants produced by raising the front part of the tongue toward the hard palate.
For examples: /j/ (as in "yes") and the "y" sound in "cute" (/j/ in some dialects).
- g. Velar.
Consonants produced by raising the back part of the tongue toward the soft palate or velum.
For examples: /k/, /g/, and /ŋ/ (as in "sing").
- h. Uvular.
Consonants produced by bringing the back of the tongue close to or in contact with the uvula, which is the fleshy extension at the back of the soft palate.
For examples are less common in English but include sounds like the "r" sound in some French dialects.
- i. Glottal.

Consonants produced by using the glottis (the space between the vocal cords) to create obstruction or airflow. For examples: the "h" sound in "hat" (/h/) and the glottal stop (represented by the apostrophe, as in the Cockney pronunciation of "butter" as "bu'er").

Understanding the place of articulation is crucial in phonetics as it helps linguists and language learners to accurately describe and differentiate between various consonant sounds in different languages.

2. Manner of Articulation.

This describes how the airflow is obstructed or modified at the place of articulation to produce different speech sounds. In phonetics, manner of articulation refers to the different ways in which speech sounds or phonemes are produced based on the airflow through the vocal tract and the interaction of the articulators (such as the lips, tongue, and teeth). There are several manners of articulation, each describing a distinct way in which airflow is obstructed or modified to produce speech sounds. Some common manners of articulation include:

a. Plosives (Stops).

Sounds produced by completely obstructing the airflow and then releasing it.

For examples: /p/, /b/, /t/, /d/, /k/, and /g/.

b. Fricatives.

Sounds produced by forcing air through a narrow passage, creating friction.

For examples: /f/, /v/, /s/, /z/, /ʃ/, and /ʒ/.

c. Affricates.

Sounds that begin as stops and then release into a fricative.

For examples: /tʃ/ (as in "chur ch") and /dʒ/ (as in "judge").

d. Nasals.

Sounds produced with a lowered velum allowing air to pass through the nose.

For examples: /m/, /n/, and /ŋ/ (as in "sing").

e. Approximants.

Sounds produced with a slight obstruction in the airflow but not enough to cause turbulence.

For examples: /j/ (as in "y es"), /w/ (as in "w et"), and /ɹ/ (as in "r ed").

f. Lateral approximants.

Sounds produced with the tongue raised towards the alveolar ridge but allowing air to escape laterally over the sides of the tongue. For examples: /l/.

g. Flaps or taps.

Sounds produced by a quick movement of one articulator against another.

For examples: the 'r' sound in some dialects, like American English "butter".

Understanding the manner of articulation is crucial in phonetics and linguistics as it helps to classify and describe the wide variety of sounds found in human languages.

3. Voicing.

This refers to whether the vocal cords are vibrating during the production of a speech sound. Sounds can be either voiced or voiceless. For example, [b] is voiced, while [p] is voiceless.

In phonetics, "voicing" refers to the presence or absence of vibration of the vocal cords during the production of a speech sound. Speech sounds can be classified into two main categories based on voicing:

a. Voiced sounds.

These are sounds produced with vibration of the vocal cords.

For examples: the sounds represented by the English letters /b/, /d/, /g/, /v/, /z/, /ʒ/ (as in "vision"), and /ð/ (as in "this"). When producing these sounds, the vocal cords come together and vibrate, producing a buzzing or humming sensation.

b. Voiceless sounds.

These are sounds produced without vibration of the vocal cords.

For examples: the sounds represented by the English letters /p/, /t/, /k/, /f/, /s/, /ʃ/ (as in "shoe"), and /θ/ (as in "think"). In the production of voiceless sounds, the vocal cords remain apart, allowing air to pass through the vocal tract without causing vibration.

Voicing is a crucial aspect of phonetics, as it distinguishes many speech sounds in different languages. In some languages, voicing can even change the meaning of a word. For example, in English, the voiced sound /b/ distinguishes "bat" from the voiceless sound /p/ in "pat."

4. Tenseness.

This refers to the tension of the articulators during the production of certain sounds, particularly vowels. Vowels can be classified as tense or lax based on the degree of tension in the vocal tract.

In phonetics, "tenseness" refers to the degree of muscular tension in the vocal tract when producing a speech sound. Tenseness is a characteristic that can affect vowel sounds in particular.

Vowels can be categorized into tense and lax categories based on the muscular effort used to produce them:

a. Tense vowels.

These vowels are produced with more muscular tension in the vocal tract. They are typically longer in duration and may be pronounced with a higher pitch.

For examples of tense vowels in English include /i:/ (as in "beet"), /eɪ/ (as in "say"), /u:/ (as in "boot"), and /ou/ (as in "go").

b. Lax vowels.

These vowels are produced with less muscular tension in the vocal tract. They are typically shorter in duration and may be pronounced with a lower pitch.

For examples of lax vowels in English include /ɪ/ (as in "bit"), /æ/ (as in "bat"), /ʊ/ (as in "book"), and /ʌ/ (as in "cut").

Tenseness can also be a feature of consonant sounds, though it is more commonly discussed in relation to vowels. For example, in languages such as German or Dutch, there are pairs of consonants where one member of the pair is pronounced with greater tension in the vocal tract than the other, resulting in a different sound quality.

Understanding these different types of articulation is essential for analysing and describing the phonetic properties of speech sounds in various languages.

4. 6 Vowels

In phonetics, vowels are speech sounds produced without significant constriction or obstruction of the airflow in the vocal tract. They are characterized by the absence of any audible friction or stoppage of airflow. Vowels are classified based on several articulatory features, including tongue height, tongue advancement, lip rounding, and tenseness.

Here are some common classifications of vowels in phonetics:

a. Tongue Height.

Vowels can be classified based on the height of the tongue within the oral cavity. Common categories include high, mid, and low vowels.

❖ High vowels.

The tongue is positioned high in the mouth.

For examples: /i/ as in "heed" and /u/ as in "food".

❖ Mid vowels.

The tongue is positioned mid-way between high and low.

For examples: /ɛ/ as in "bed" and /ə/ as in "sofa".

❖ Low vowels.

The tongue is positioned low in the mouth.

For examples: /æ/ as in "cat" and /ɑ/ as in "father".

b. Tongue Advancement.

Vowels can also be classified based on the position of the tongue horizontally within the oral cavity. Common categories include front, central, and back vowels.

❖ Front vowels.

The highest part of the tongue is positioned towards the front of the mouth.

For examples: /i/ as in "heed" and /ε/ as in "bed".

❖ Central vowels.

The highest part of the tongue is positioned towards the centre of the mouth.

For examples: /ə/ as in "sofa" and /ʌ/ as in "cup".

❖ Back vowels.

The highest part of the tongue is positioned towards the back of the mouth.

For examples: /u/ as in "food" and /ɑ/ as in "father".

c. Lip Rounding.

Vowels can also be classified based on whether the lips are rounded or spread.

❖ Rounded vowels.

The lips are rounded. For examples: /u/ as in "food" and /ɔ/ as in "thought".

❖ Unrounded vowels.

The lips are spread. For examples: /i/ as in "heed" and /æ/ as in "cat".

d. Tenseness.

Vowels can be classified based on the degree of muscular effort involved in their production:

❖ Tense vowels.

These vowels are produced with relatively greater muscular effort.

For examples: /i/ as in "heed" and /u/ as in "food".

❖ Lax vowels.

These vowels are produced with relatively less muscular effort.

For examples: /ɪ/ as in "bit" and /ʌ/ as in "cup".

These classifications help phoneticians describe and analyse the articulatory features of vowels in various languages and dialects.

4. 7 Diphthongs

Diphthongs are combinations of two vowel sounds within the same syllable, where the sound begins with one vowel and glides smoothly into another. This combination movement involves a smooth transition from one vowel sound to another, creating a single complex sound. Diphthongs are often characterized by a glide or a shifting quality in the articulation. Unlike pure vowels, which maintain a single, steady sound throughout their pronunciation, diphthongs involve a transition between two vowel sounds.

Here are some examples of English diphthongs:

1. /aɪ/ as in "price" or "time"
2. /eɪ/ as in "day" or "rain"
3. /ɔɪ/ as in "boy" or "coin"
4. /aʊ/ as in "cow" or "house"
5. /oʊ/ as in "go" or "boat"
6. /ɪə/ as in "here" or "near"
7. /eə/ as in "hair" or "care"
8. /ʊə/ as in "tour" or "pure"

Each of these diphthongs involves a smooth transition between two vowel sounds. For instance, in the diphthong /aɪ/ found in "price", the sound starts with an /a/ sound and glides smoothly into an /ɪ/ sound. Similarly, in the diphthong /eɪ/ in "day", the sound begins with an /e/ sound and glides into an /ɪ/ sound.

Diphthongs can vary in length, with some being relatively brief in duration and others more prolonged. They are present in many languages and play a significant role in the phonetic and phonological systems of those languages.

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BAB 5

WORD FORMATION

Oleh Sunara

5. 1 Proses Morfologis (Morphological Process) Dalam Bahasa Inggris

Kata merupakan elemen ujaran atau tulisan yang bermakna yang digunakan sebagai pembentuk fungsi kalimat yang penulisannya diberi spasi terhadap kata yang lainnya. Nama demikian bisa berupa nama sesuatu, istilah, ungkapan, rancangan, signal, atau berupa instruksi, atau lainnya yang berfungsi dan bermakna.

Proses pembentukan kata dalam bahasa Inggris merupakan bidang kajian linguistik dalam ilmu morfologi yang membahas tentang *phoneme*, morfem (*free morpheme*, *bound morpheme*). Fonem sebagai unit bunyi terkecil, membedakan satu kata dengan kata yang lain seperti bunyi c, b, r, t pada kata cat, car, bar. Kata *king*, *book*, *table*, merupakan contoh morfem bebas (*free morpheme/monomorphemic word*) karena berdiri sendiri dan memiliki makna. Morfem terikat (*bound morpheme*) atau morfem imbuhan (*affixes*) ada tidak sebagai suatu kata tetapi dirangkaikan dengan satu atau lebih morfem yang lain menjadi satu kata agar bisa memiliki arti atau makna. Morfem terikat (*bound morpheme*) misalnya *-s*, *-ing*, *-er*, ada dan tidak berarti apapun ketika sendiri, namun memberi makna berbeda pada kata tempat morfem tersebut terikat misalnya pada *push*, *pushes*, *pushing*, *pusher*, *pushers*.

Pembentukan kata bisa juga berupa kata majemuk (*compound word*), yang terdiri dari dua atau lebih kata yang terpisah (*open compound word*) seperti *ice cream*, persatuan dua kata yang membentuk kata tunggal yang baru atau frasa yang seperti kata tunggal (*closed compound word*) misalnya *firefighter*, dan kata majemuk yang bersatu tanpa spasi, tanpa tanda baca, dan dipisah dengan kata sambung (*hyphenated compound word*) seperti *sister-in-law*, membentuk kata majemuk. Beberapa istilah muncul dari model model seperti ini misalnya *clipping*, *blending*, *compounding*, reduplikasi (*reduplication*), *borrowing*, *conversion*, dll menggambarkan

Afiksasi merupakan proses morfologis (*morphological process*) dengan penambahan suatu morfem terhadap suatu kata (morfem bebas) yang lain yang dengannya terbentuk model kata baru yang berbeda makna dan mungkin juga berbeda kelas kata. Jenis afiksasi diantaranya prefiks (proses penambahan di awal suatu kata), dan sufiks (proses penambahan bagian akhir suatu kata). *Cluster* suatu afiksasi akan membentuk juga kata yang kompleks. Kebanyakan pembentukan kata-kata baru bahasa Inggris merupakan proses *blending* (baik sebagian maupun seutuhnya) suatu kata dengan kata yang lain. Imbuhan di awal kata (prefiks) dalam bahasa Inggris misalnya “un-”, “self-”, “semi-”, “sub-”, “re-”, dll. Imbuhan di akhir suatu kata (suffixes) misalnya “-ment”, “-ion”, “-al”, “-ance”, “-(t)ure”, “-sion”, “-y”, “-or”, “-er”, “-hood”, “-ing”, “-ed”, dll. Akhiran *-ment* pada kata *government*, *-ly* pada kata *slowly*, *-able* pada kata *reasonable*, *-ic* pada kata *intergalactic* merupakan contoh proses afiksasi dalam bahasa Inggris.

5. 2 Pembentukan Kata Dengan Afiksasi (Affixes)

1. Proses afiksasi yang bersifat derivasi (derivational affixes)

Proses afiksasi yang bersifat derivasi adalah penambahan imbuhan pada suatu kata yang menyebabkan perubahan pada kelas kata baru tersebut. (kelas kata seperti : kata benda, kata sifat, kata kerja, dll). Kata benda dalam penerjemahan bahasa Inggris ke bahasa Indonesia kadang kala dengan terjemahan imbuhan *ke... an, per... an*, atau tidak dengan itu sama sekali (dengan kata dasar saja), dengan nama pelaku atau alat. Contoh kata benda dengan imbuhan *ke... an*, dan *per... an* misalnya: kebersihan, persatuan. Kata kerja dalam terjemahan bahasa Indonesia umumnya dengan ciri imbuhan *me..* atau *ber...* atau dengan kata sar saja. Imbuhan *ke... an dan per... an* (dalam bahasa Indonesia) dalam bahasa Inggris bisa berupa model-model imbuhan seperti berikut:

a. Derivasi dengan Imbuhan di akhir (suffixes)

Imbuhan di akhir (suffixes)	Contoh	Perubahan Kelas kata
-able	Reason-reasonable, understand-understandable, dispose-disposable	Kata benda-kata sifat, Kata kerja-kata sifat, Kata kerja -kata sifat
-ous	Danger-dangerous, Adventure-adventurous, Humor-humorous Courage-courageous	Kata benda-kata sifat
-ful	beauty-beautiful, care-careful, use-useful, dread-dreadful, hate-hateful, resource-resourceful	kata benda – kata sifat
-ment	Govern-government, Equip-equipment, Achieve-achievement	Kelas kata kerja –kelas kata benda
-(t)ure	Fix -fixture, mix-mixture, press-pressure	Kata kerja – kata benda

Imbuhan di akhir (suffixes)	Contoh	Perubahan Kelas kata
-sion	Conclude-conclusion, Divide-division, Permit-permission	Kata kerja – kata benda
-y	Deliver-delivery, Discover-discovery, Master-mastery Embroider-embroidery	Kata kerja –kata benda
-or, -er	Create- creator, Teach-teacher Invest-investor, Generate-generator, Observe-observer Provoke-provocator	Kata kerja – kata benda
-ification	Justify –justification, Clasify –clarification, Identify-identification, Beautify –beauitication	Kata kerja – kata benda
-ition	Compete-competition, Expose-exposition, Propose-proposition	Kata kerja – kata benda
-(t)ion	Celebrate-celebration, Distribute-distribution, Liberate-liberation	Kata kerja – kata benda
-al	Survive-survival, Betray-betrayal Dispose-disposal	Kata kerja – kata benda
-al, -ial	Bride –bridal, Face-facial Incident-incidental	Kata benda – kata sifat
-y	Rock-rocky, Sand-sandy, Fog-foggy, Boss-bossy, Sun-sunny	Kata benda –kata sifat
-ary	Legend-legendary Planet-planetary Discipline-disciplinary	Kata benda-kata sifat
-ed	Point-pointed, Talent-talented, Uniform-uniformed	Kata benda – kata sifat
-ly	Friend-friendly, Mother-	Kata benda – kata sifat

Imbuhan di akhir (suffixes)	Contoh	Perubahan Kelas kata
	motherly, World-wordly	
-ly (secara, dengan...)	Slow-slowly, Gradual-gradually Beautiful-beautifully, Strong-strongly, Quick-quickly, Happy - happily, Angry - angrily	Kata sifat –kata keterangan cara/dengan
-ar	Granule-gradular, Circle-circular Muscle-muscular	Kata benda –kata sifat
-less (bermakna tidak/tanpa)	Fear-fearless, Home-homeless Use-useless, Care-careless Speech-speechless, End-endless, Motion-motionless, Pointless	Kata benda – kata sifat
-ic	Science-scientific, Atmosphere-atmospheric, Economy-economic, Romance-romantic	kata benda –kata sifat
-ish (Kata benda <i>ke...an</i>)	Fool-foolish, Boy-boyish, Child-childish, England-English, Red-reddish, Sweet-sweetish	Kata benda –kata benda, Kata benda –kata benda, Kata benda-kata benda Kata benda –kata benda, Kata sifat –kata sifat, Kata sifat –kata sifat
-ant, -ent	Assist-assistant, Reside-resident Occupy-occupant, Absence –absent, Adolescence – adolescent, Affluence – affluent Competence – competent, Confidence-confident, Convenience –convenient, Difference – different, Diligence – diligent, Evidence-evident,	Kata kerja –kata benda, Kata kerja –kata benda, Kata kerja –kata benda, Kata benda – kata sifat, Kata benda – kata sifat, Kata benda – kata sifat, Kata benda – kata sifat, Kata benda – kata sifat, Kata benda – kata sifat, Kata benda – kata sifat, Kata benda – kata sifat, Kata benda – kata sifat,

Imbuhan di akhir (suffixes)	Contoh	Perubahan Kelas kata
	Excellent –excellent, Existence –existent, Impudence –impudent Innocence-innocent, Intelligence-intelligent, Lenience-lenient, Magnificence – magnificent, Obedience – obedient, Patience – patient Resilience –resilient, Persistence –persistent	Kata benda – kata sifat, Kata benda – kata sifat, Kata benda – kata sifat, Kata benda – kata sifat, Kata benda – kata sifat, Kata benda – kata sifat, Kata benda – kata sifat, Kata benda – kata sifat, Kata benda – kata sifat,Kata benda – kata sifat, Kata benda – kata sifat
-ence	Confident-confidence, Intelligent-intelligence, Existent-existence, Obidient-obedience, Different-difference, Patient-patience	Kata sifat –kata benda, Kata sifat –kata benda, Kata sifat –kata benda, Kata sifat –kata benda, Kata sifat –kata benda, Kata sifat –kata benda
-ance (Pergeseran dari akhiran – ant ke ance)	Assist-assistant-assistance, Distant-Distance, Ignorant- Ignorance, Elegant- elegance, Important- Importance, Significant- Significance, Tolerant- tolerance	Kata kerja –kata sifat– kata benda, Kata sifat – kata benda, Kata sifat – kata benda, Kata sifat – kata benda, Kata sifat – kata benda, Kata sifat – kata benda, Kata sifat – kata benda
-ant (Pergeseran dari akhiran – ance-ant)	Abundance – abundant, Arrogance –arrogant, Brilliance – brilliant, Defiance – defiant, Deviance – deviant, Discordance – discordant, Distance –distant, Dominance – dominant, Elegance – elegant, Extravagance-extravagant, Flamboyance – flamboyant, Fragrance –	Kata benda – kata sifat

Imbuhan di akhir (suffixes)	Contoh	Perubahan Kelas kata
	fragrant, Ignorance – ignorant, Importance – important, Observance – observant, Relevance – relevant, Reluctance – reluctant, Resistance – resistant	
-ness	Dark – darkness, Happy – happiness, Great- greatness, Lazy – laziness	Kata sifat – kata benda
-th	Long – length, Healthy- health, Wealthy – wealth	Kata sifat – kata benda
-ize	Apology – apologize, National – nationalize, Capital – capitalize Civil – civilize, Computer – computerize, Drama – dramatize, Energy – energize	Kata benda – kata kerja, Kata sifat – kata kerja, kata benda – kata kerja
-ty	Nation–nationality, Dificult – difficulty, Certain – certainty, Able –ability, Regural –regurality	Kata sifat – kata benda
-dom	Free-freedom, wise- wisdom	Kata sifat – kata benda

b. Derivasi dengan imbuhan di awal (*prefixes*)

Imbuhan di awal kata (*prefixes*) pada suatu kata menyebabkan terjadi perubahan makna dan kelas kata pada kata baru.

Imbuhan di awal (prefixes)	Contoh	Kelas kata
En-	Mesh – <u>en</u> mesh	Kata benda – kata kerja
Em-	Power - <u>em</u> power	Kata benda – kata kerja
Out-	Reach – <u>out</u> reach Come – <u>out</u> come	Kata kerja – kata benda Kata kerja – kata benda
Over-	Beaering – <u>over</u> bearing	Kata benda – kata sifat

Imbuhan di awal (prefixes)	Contoh	Kelas kata
Backfire	Fire – <u>back</u> fire	Kata benda – kata kerja

c. **Derivasi dengan imbuhan di awal dan di akhir (*circumfixes*)**

Derivasi ini terjadi dengan imbuhan (*affixes*) di awal (*pefixes*) dan di akhir suatu kata (*suffixes*) pada kata dasar. Penggabungan ini menyebabkan pula perubahan kelas kata yang berbeda dengan kata dasar yang membentuknya.

Contoh :

Pada kata kata pembentukan berikut :

Light - *Enlighten*,

Attain - *unattainable*,

Correct - *incorrectly*,

Appropriate - *inappropriateness*,

Possible - *impossibility*

Culture - *Multicultural*

Kata tersebut sudah mendapat awalan dan akhiran dan menjadikan kelas kata yang baru misalnya *enlighten* (kelas kata kerja) namun kata dasarnya adalah *light* (kelas kata sifat). Kata *unattainable* adalah kelas kata benda yang berbeda kelas kata *attain* (kelas kata kerja).

2. **Proses afiksasi yang bersifat infleksi (*inflectional affixes*) terjadi pada kelas kata**

Afiksasi adalah proses pembentukan kata baru dengan menambahkan imbuhan di awal (prefixes) atau akhir (suffixes) pada suatu kata dasar. Imbuhan sebagai *bound morpheme* ini pada morphem lain (*free morpheme*). Akan tetapi penambahan imbuhan tersebut tidak menyebabkan perubahan pada kelas kata (kata benda, kata sifat, kata kerja, kata keterangan, dll). Afiksasi yang bersifat infleksi (*inflectional affixes*) membentuk kata baru dengan persamaan kelas kata seperti kata sebelumnya.

a. Inflection -s dan -es pada bentuk kata tunggal (singular) menjadi jamak (plural)

Bentuk kata dengan akhiran -s atau -es menunjukkan kategori jumlah pada kata benda yang countable noun (kata benda yang biasa dihitung) yang lebih dari satu (singular), banyak (*plural*). Perubahan kata dari bentuk tunggal (*singular*) dan bentuk jamak (*plural*) tersebut tidak menggantikan kelas kata, dan memiliki kelas kata yang sama yaitu sebagai kata benda (nouns)

Contoh :

Book – books (=sebuah buku – buku-buku)

Glass – glasses (=sebuah gelas – gelas gelas)

Language – languages (bahasa- bahasa-bahasa)

Computer – computers (komputer – komputer-komputer)

Pen – pens (pulpen – pulpen-pulpen)

Handphone-handphones (telepon genggam – telepon-telepon genggam)

b. Infleksi imbuhan akhiran -ing pada kata kerja (progressive)

Bentuk kata yang berakhiran -ing umumnya terdapat pada kata kerja yang menunjukkan *progressive* (perbuatan sedang terjadi). Perubahan kata dari bentuk kata kerja dasar menjadi bentuk *verb -ing* ini memiliki kelas kata yang sama, yaitu sebagai kata kerja.

Contoh :

Watch – (is/are/am/was/were/has (have) been) watching
(=menonton – sedang menonton)

Dengan pola struktur yang sama, bentuk infleksi -ing dalam kata kerja sebagai berikut:

Smile – smiling

Think – thinking

Write – writing

Say – saying

c. **Infleksi imbuhan akhiran *-ed* pada kata kerja beraturan (regular verb)**

Bentukan akhiran *-ed* pada **tenses** (kala waktu) bahasa Inggris merupakan kata kerja yang menunjukkan waktu lampau, past participle (kata kerja bentuk ketiga regular). Kata kerja *--ed* bermakna kata kerja pasif pada *regular verb* dalam konteks struktur kalimat pasif. Dalam penerjemahan ke bahasa Indonesia kata kerja tersebut bisa mungkin seperti kata sifat (adjective) mengindikasikan suatu kondisi atau kualitas, karakteristik, kepemilikan, seperti *amazed* (kagum), *interested* (minat/tertarik) namun secara gramatikal itu adalah bentuk kata kerja bentuk ketiga. Itu artinya perubahan dari kata asal menjadi bentuk berikutnya tetap sama sama sebagai kata kerja (bahasa Inggris: kata kerja bentuk kesatu, bentuk kedua, dan bentuk ketiga).

Contoh :

visit - visited (=mengunjungi), *(was) visited* (=dikunjungi),
have visited (telah mengunjungi)

Burn - Burned (=membakar - terbakar/hangus)

Walk-Walked (=berjalan (lampau), *have walked* (telah berjalan)

Want-Wanted (=ingin/menginginkan)

Learn - Learned (=belajar)

Stop-stopped (=berhenti)

Hope-hoped (=berharap)

Lie -lied (=berdusta/berbohong)

Pray-prayed (=berdoa)

Help -helped (=membantu)

Rain-rained (=hujan)

Excite-excited (dalam bahasa Indonesia **excited** bisa diterjemahkan **semangat** (kata sifat), namun secara grammatikal bahasa Inggris itu adalah bentuk past participle (kata kerja bentuk ketiga). Hal sama bisa terjadi pada kata -kata kerja berikut:

Inflated stomach (=perut kembung).

Amazed (=kagum).

Embarrass - Embarrassed (=malu)
Heart - Tender-hearted, (=berhati lembut),
Interest - interested (=tertarik/minat)
Disgust - disgusted (=muak)

d. Infleksi dengan pergantian/imbuhan tidak beraturan pada kata kerja tidak beraturan (*irregular verb*)

Perubahan kata kerja bersifat inleksi ini adalah kata kerja bentuk tidak beraturan (*irregular verb*) yang tidak mengikuti aturan bentuk kata kerja seperti biasanya (berakhiran **-ed**) pada ***regular verb*** untuk menunjukkan ***past tense*** dan ***past participle*** (bentuk kata kerja ketiga).

Contoh:

Say - said - said
Get - got - got
Go - went - gone
Know - knew - known
Break-broke-broken
Think - thought -thought
Make - made - made
Come - came - come
Take - took - taken
Choose - chose - chosen
Bring - brought - brought
Fall - fell - fallen

Perubahan dari satu kata ke kata lain tersebut tidak mengganti secara gramatikal kelas kata sehingga disebut perubahan infleksi, karena ketiga bentuk perubahan tersebut adalah bentuk kata kerja. Bentuk kata kerja ketiga (*past participle*) yang kadang sama dengan bentuk *past tense* biasanya digunakan dalam aspek perfect tense dengan pola have/has + Verb3.

e. Inflection -s pada kata kerja untuk kala waktu present tense.

Infleksi model ini dengan kekhususan predikat yang berkesesuaian dengan subjek tunggal seperti *he, she, it*, dll, maka kata kerja tersebut menunjukkan kebiasaan atau fakta keadaan, pada present tense ini kata kerja diberi akhiran -s seperti contoh:

Contoh:

- 1) *She goes to school by bicycle every day.* (=dia biasa pergi ke sekolah setiap hari dengan bersepeda)
- 2) *She opens the shop at seven a. m.* (=Dia (biasa) buka toko jam 7 pagi)
- 3) *She lives in Amsterdam.* (=Dia tinggal di Amsterdam)
- 4) *Doddy swims on Sunday.* (=Doddy biasa berenang pada hari Minggu)

Kata *live* dan *lives*, *go* dan *goes*, *open* dan *opens*, *swim* dan *swims* walaupun berbeda bentuk namun kedua pasangan tersebut memiliki kelas kata yang sama yaitu kelas kata kerja.

f. Inflection pada imbuhan akhiran -er dan -est pada degree of comparison

1) Infleksi pada kondisi Comparative (membandingkan)

Infleksi comparatif ini bermakna sesuatu keadaan sifat yang berbeda dari suatu sifat/keadaan ke keadaan yang lain dengan menambahkan akhiran -er pada suatu kata dengan satu suku kata. Penambahan akhiran -er tidak menggantikan kelas kata sebagai kata sifat.

- ✓ *smart-smarter* (=pintar - lebih pintar)
- ✓ *big-bigger* (=besar - lebih besar)
- ✓ *small-smaller* (=kecil - lebih kecil)
- ✓ *tall-taller* (=tinggi - lebih tinggi)
- ✓ *quick-quicker* (=cepat - lebih cepat)

2) Infleksi pada kondisi superlative (yang sangat, atau yang paling)

Infleksi superlatif ini bermakna suatu keadaan atau sifat yang sangat atau paling berbeda dari satu sifat keadaan yang lain, dengan menambahkan akhiran -est yang

bermakna sangat... atau paling, namun tidak menggantikan dengan kelas kata yang baru (kata sifat).

- ✓ *big – biggest* (=besar – paling/sangat besar)
- ✓ *small – smallest* (=kecil – sangat kecil)
- ✓ *tall – tallest* (=tinggi – sangat tinggi)
- ✓ *strong – strongest* (=kuat – sangat kuat)
- ✓ *great – greatest* (=hebat – sangat hebat)
- ✓ *quick – quickest* (=cepat – sangat cepat)

Kata-kata di atas, baik yang sudah mendapatkan akhiran *-er/-est* maupun tidak (sebelumnya), memiliki kelas kata yang sama yaitu kata sifat, itulah imbuhan dengan *inflection* (proses pembentukan/perubahan kata yang tidak menggantikan kelas kata baru)

3) **Infleksi -self, -selves pada Reflexive pronoun**

Pembentukan kata ganti reflexive pronoun adalah kelas kata menunjukkan kepada dirinya sendiri: saya sendiri, mereka sendiri. Reflexive pronoun dalam bahasa Inggris misalnya *myself, yourself, himself, herself, oneself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves*, digunakan untuk merujuk kepada subjek dan objek (langsung/tidak langsung) yang sama suatu kalimat. *Reflexive pronoun* berfungsi memberikan penekanan/penguatan pada elemen yang menjadi subjek atau objek kalimat tersebut.

Contoh :

- ✓ He poured himself a cup of coffee.
- ✓ (He – himself)
- ✓ My father closes the store every day himself.
- ✓ I d(my father – himself)
- ✓ id it myself the homework)
- ✓ (I – myself)
- ✓ Ahm
- ✓ Every student needs to take a break for themselves after the examination.
- ✓ (Evead decided to reward Naila with a special dinner.
- ✓ Ahmad decided to reward herself with a special dinner.
- ✓ (Naila – herself)

4) **Inflection -‘s, -‘, -s pada kata benda (noun), kata ganti (pronoun) kategori genitive case.**

Pembentukan kata baru tersebut dengan penambahan akhiran -‘s, -‘, -s, tidak mengganti kelas kata (*inflection*)

- (a) Kata benda tunggal
student’s lunch (=makan siang seorang siswa)
John’s bike (=sepeda milik John)
- (b) Kata benda jamak
Students’ lunch (makan siang para siswa)
- (c) Kata benda tunggal yang berakhiran dengan huruf s
Sulis’ long dress (=pakaian milik Sulis)
Marxus’ book (=buku milik/kepunyaan marxus)
- (d) Kata benda jamak yang tidak berakhiran s
Women’s desire (=keinginan para wanita)
Children’s hope (=harapan anak anak)
Men’s room (=ruangan untuk laki laki)

5) **Inflection pada imbuhan (affixes) akhiran kata**

-dom	King – kingd <u>om</u> (kata benda – kata benda)
-ship	Friend – friend <u>ship</u> (kata benda – kata benda) Leader-leader <u>ship</u> Relation-relations <u>hip</u>

g. **Infleksi dengan imbuhan di awal kata lain (*prefixes*)**

Penambahan morfem terikat di awal kata dasar berikut tidak merubah kelas kata sebagaimana kelas kata semula. Misalnya kelas kata sifat moral ditambahkan dengan imbuhan *a* menjadi amoral namun kelas kata tetap terjaga namun makna kedua kata yang tidak sama karena menafikan/menegatifkan. Kata serupa dengan persamaan kelas kata dapat dilihat pada list berikut ini:

Imbuhan di awal (<i>prefixes</i>)	Contoh
a-	Amoral
Ante-	Antedate, antecedent
Anti-	Antiwar, antiseptic, antibiotics, antiestablishment, anti-intellectual,

Imbuhan di awal (<i>prefixes</i>)	Contoh
Auto-	Automatic, autobiography
Bi-	Bilateral, bi-weekly
By	By-product, bylaw
Circum-	Circumlocution, circumnavigation
Co-	Co-pilot, co-author
Counter-	Counterattack
De-	Devalue, deregulation, de-iced, decaffeinated
Demi-	Demigod
Ex-	Exhale, external
Extra-	Extracurricular, extravagant, extraterrestrial
Hyper-	Hypertension, hyperactive, hyperallergic
Hypo-	Hypodermic
Inter-	Interview, interact, interracial, intergalactic
Intra-	introspection, intervert
Macro-	Macroeconomics
Mal-	Malfunction, malpractice
Mega-	Megaphone
Micro-	Microscope
Mid-	Midweek, mid-term, mid-century,
Mini-	Mini-skirt
Mono-	Monolingual, monogamy
Multi-	Multipurpose, multiplex
Pan-	Pan-arab
Para-	Paramedical
Poly-	Polygamy
Post-	Posthumous, post-test
Pre-	Prenatal, pre-test, pre-2010s
Pro-	Pro-British
Pseudo-	Pseudonym
Re-	Redo, republic, reapply, regrow, renew
Semi-	Semi-circle, semi-colon, semicircle, semi-

Imbuhan di awal (<i>prefixes</i>)	Contoh
	funny
Sub-	Substandard, subhuman
Super-	Superhuman, supernatural
Trans-	Trans-Sumatera, transparent
Tri-	Trilateral, triangle
Ultra-	Ultra-modern
Uni-	Uniform
Dis-	disapprove, disloyal
Non-	nonessential, nonsense
Un-	un-Indonesian,
e-	e-bank, e-card, e-commerce, e-learning

h. Infleksi dengan kata, huruf, bunyi sisipan (Infix)

Infix adalah imbuhan (*informal / colloquial language*), bisa berupa suara, kata, bagian dari kata (huruf) yang disisipkan di tengah suatu kata atau frasa dalam bahasa Inggris yang relatif jarang dikenal umum, misalnya bentuk jamak *-s* yang ditempatkan di tengah (kata yang muncul pertama pada suatu frasa), khususnya *hyphenated compounds* seperti *motherss-in-law* (bedakan dengan *mother-in-law*), *fatherss-in-law*, *passerss-by* (akhiran di tengah atau pada kata yang muncul pertama pada satu frasa)), *runners-up*, *un-**freaking**-believable* (bedakan dengan *unbelievable*), *attorneyss-in-fact*, *editorss-in-chief*, *abso-**bloody**-lutely*, *brotherss-in-law*.

Dalam percakapan informal/slang misalnya sisipan *-iz* pada kata (*hiz-ouse* (dari kata *house*), *tiz-our* (dari kata *tour*), *piz-arty* (dari kata *party*), sisipan bunyi *-ma* di tengah kata yang kompleks yang menunjukkan ejekan untuk orang atau objek, kata-kata kasar, sumpah serapah (*rude or expletive words*), menunjukkan kebodohan pembicara, bahkan cara yang lucu untuk diolok-olok, seperti: *psuedo-sophistmacation*, *saxamaphone*, (merujuk pada pembicara bernama homer yang tidak cerdas namun lucu, disenangi), bahkan memberi

penekanan kegairahan terhadap suatu kata seperti :*Edu-freakin-cated*, *Halle-bloody-lujah*, *a-whole-nother*, *abso-friggin-lutely*.

5. 3 Pembentukan Kata Dengan Model Compounding

Pembentukan kata tipe *compounding* ini yaitu penggabungan dengan dua atau lebih kata dasar untuk membentuk suatu kata baru. Satu kata mungkin bisa diidentifikasi sebagai kata inti dari kata tambahan lainnya dalam berbagai kelas kata. Sebagian menggunakan kata sambung (*hyphens*) sebagian tidak, biasanya dengan mengecek kamus untuk kepastian.

Contoh kata *compounding* dan kelas kata :

- ✓ *Afternoon* (sebagai kelas kata benda)
- ✓ *Airsick* (sebagai kata sifat)
- ✓ *Baby-sit* (sebagai kata kerja)
- ✓ *Backache* (sebagai kata benda)
- ✓ *Ballpark* (sebagai kata benda)
- ✓ *Bittersweet* (sebagai kata sifat)
- ✓ *Blood-sucking* (kata majemuk benda)
- ✓ *Blueberry* (sebagai kata benda)
- ✓ *Breakup* (sebagai kata sifat)
- ✓ *Breastfeed* (sebagai kata kerja)
- ✓ *Brother in law* (sebagai kata benda)
- ✓ *Car park* (sebagai kata benda)
- ✓ *Carbon footprint* (majemuk benda)
- ✓ *Chain-smoke* (sebagai kata kerja)
- ✓ *Cheeseburger* (sebagai kata benda)
- ✓ *Classroom* (sebagai kata benda)*Computer virus* (kata majemuk kata benda)
- ✓ *Dirt-eating* (kata majemuk benda)
- ✓ *Dog-kissing*, (kata majemuk benda)
- ✓ *Drumsticks* (kata majemuk benda)
- ✓ *Good-naturedly* (kata keterangan)

- ✓ Grandfather (kata benda)
- ✓ *Heartbreakaing* (sebagai kata sifat)
- ✓ *Highlight* (sebagai kata kerja)
- ✓ *Into* (sebagai kata depan)
- ✓ *Nevertheless* (kata keterangan)
- ✓ *Notebook* (sebagai kata benda)
- ✓ *Outrun* (sebagai kata kerja)
- ✓ *Oven-bake* (sebagai kata kerja)
- ✓ *Passer-by* (majemuk benda)
- ✓ *Post dan card menjadi postcard* (kata benda)
- ✓ *Postbox* (kata benda)
- ✓ *Quality time* (sebagai kata benda/frasa)
- ✓ *Red-hot temper* (compound adjective)
- ✓ *Rock band* (sebagai kata benda)
- ✓ *Siser-in-law* (sebagai kata benda)
- ✓ *Snake* (sebagai kata benda)
- ✓ *Snowball* (sebagai kata benda)
- ✓ *Spotty-lipped* (sebagai kata sifat)
- ✓ *Stir-fry* (sebagai kata kerja)
- ✓ *Sugar-free* (sebagai kata sifat)
- ✓ *Waterproof* (kata kerja)

5. 4 Pembentukan Kata Dengan Model Conversion

Pada pembentukan kata model *conversion* ini yaitu perubahan suatu kata dalam hal gramatikalnya dari satu kata ke kata yang lain tanpa pengubahan ejaan atau pengucapannya. Modelnya melibatkan kata kerja atau kata benda dan mungkin kelas kata yang lainnya.

Contoh :

- ✓ *Email – to email* (kata benda *email* - kata kerja *to email*)
- ✓ *Text – to text* (kata benda – kata kerja)
- ✓ *Microwave – to microwave.* (perubahan dari kata benda menjadi kata kerja)
- ✓ *I cannot speak it up. Can you text it?* (berasal dari kata benda)

- ✓ *Some Downloads – to download take time.* (kata benda – kata kerja)
- ✓ *He is a big boss and always jetting.* (kata kerja berasal dari kata benda)
- ✓ *Messi is a definite in that team.* (kata benda yang berasal dari kata sifat)
- ✓ *Don't be too many if.* (conjunction menjadi kata benda)
- ✓ *Each person has ups and downs in their lives.* (kata depan menjadi kata benda)
- ✓ *My little son will be my Lionel messi in the future.* (proper noun menjadi common noun)
- ✓ *Google - Google it!* (kata benda menjadi kata kerja)
- ✓ *Downloads -Download it!* (kata benda menjadi kata kerja)
- ✓ *Click* (kata benda – kata kerja : ketika pengguna meng 'click' pada misalnya tombol, image, atau link pada website atau aplikasi)
- ✓ *Book demo* (kata kerja – kata benda) tombol memungkinkan user bisa submit menyerahkan bentuk kontrak.

5. 5 Pembentukan Kata Model Abbreviation (Clipping, Acronyms, Blending)

Abbreviation adalah proses pembentukan kata dengan membuat singkatan suatu kata baik sebagian dengan suku kata, huruf-huruf depan, dll.

1. *Clipping*

Penyingkatan suatu kata dengan membuat '*clip*' dari suku kata atau bahkan beberapa suku kata dari suatu kata. *Clipping* dapat mengurangi atau memperpendek suatu kata tanpa merubah makna yang hakiki. Berbeda dengan proses pembentukan pada *back-formation*, *clipping* mempertahankan makna asal.

Contoh *clipping* dan asal kata.

- ✓ *Ad* (*advertisement*)
- ✓ *Aprl.* (*April*)
- ✓ *Bike* (*bicycle*)
- ✓ *Bio* (*biology*)

- ✓ *Bro* (*brother*)
- ✓ *Burger* (*Hamburger*)
- ✓ *Burger* (*Hamburger*)
- ✓ *Bus* (*omnibus*)
- ✓ *Cab* (*cabriolet*)
- ✓ *Celegram* (*Cabletelegram*)
- ✓ *Cm* (*centimeter*)
- ✓ *Coed* (*coeducational student*)
- ✓ *Coon* (*raccoon*)
- ✓ *Copter* (*Helicopter*)
- ✓ *Dept.* (*department*)
- ✓ *Disco* (*dscotheque*)
- ✓ *Dorm* (*dormitory*)
- ✓ *Dr.* (*doctor*)
- ✓ *Exam* (*examanation*)
- ✓ *Flue* (*Influenza*)
- ✓ *Fridge* (*refridgerator*)
- ✓ *Gas* (*gasoline*)
- ✓ *Gator* (*Alligator*)
- ✓ *Granma* (*grandmother*)
- ✓ *Gym* (*gymnasium*)
- ✓ *Iron* (*Flatiron*)
- ✓ *Jr.* (*Junior*)
- ✓ *Lab* (*laboratorium*)
- ✓ *Lab* (*laboratory*)
- ✓ *Limo* (*(mobil) limousine*)
- ✓ *Mart* (*market*)
- ✓ *Math* (*Mathematics*)
- ✓ *Math* (*mathematics*)
- ✓ *Matt* (*Matthew*)
- ✓ *Memo* (*memorandum*)
- ✓ *Mike* (*microphone*)
- ✓ *Movie* (*moving pictures*)
- ✓ *Mr.* (*mister*)
- ✓ *Oz* (*ounce*)
- ✓ *Phone* (*telephone*)
- ✓ *Phone* (*telephone*)

- ✓ *Photo (photograph)*
- ✓ *Plane (airplane)*
- ✓ *Pop (popular)*
- ✓ *Pro (professional)*
- ✓ *Prof (professor)*
- ✓ *Pub (public house)*
- ✓ *Quake (earthquake)*
- ✓ *Rep (reputation)*
- ✓ *Script (prescription)*
- ✓ *Sitcom (situation comedy)*
- ✓ *Specs (specifications)*
- ✓ *Sub (submarine)*
- ✓ *Sun. (Sunday)*
- ✓ *Taxi (taxicab)*
- ✓ *Teen (teenager)*
- ✓ *Tie (necktie)*
- ✓ *Typo (typographical error)*
- ✓ *Veg (vegetarian)*
- ✓ *Vet (veterinarian)*
- ✓ *Yd (yard)*
- ✓ *CT (Court)*
- ✓ *INJ (injury)*
- ✓ *Ph. D (Doctor of Philosophy)*
- ✓ *S. Sc. D (Doctor of Social Science)*
- ✓ *Wit (witness)*
- ✓ *SPD (speed)*
- ✓ *VEH (vehicle)*
- ✓ *BLK (block)*

2. Acronyms

Akronim merupakan pembentukan suatu kata dengan membuat penyingkatan suatu kata tersebut dengan mengambil huruf pertama dari satu atau beberapa kata. Bentuk singkatan demikian itu dianggap sebagai suatu kata walaupun dalam pengucapan bahasa Inggris kadang kadang dieja dengan huruf-hurufnya, misalnya FBI dibaca /Ef BI Ai/.

Contoh :

- ✓ ASAP (as soon as possible)
- ✓ CAPTCHA (Completely Automated Public Turing Test to tell computers and humans Apart)
- ✓ CD (Compact Disc)
- ✓ FIFA (federatnion internationale de football assosication)
- ✓ FOMO (fear of missing out)
- ✓ IELTS (International English Language Testing System) LAN (Local Area Network)
- ✓ LASER (Light Amplification by Stimulated Emission of Radiation)
- ✓ LOL (Laugh Out Loud)
- ✓ NASA (National aeronautics and space administration)
- ✓ NATO (North Atlantic Treaty Organisation)
- ✓ PIN (personal identification number)
- ✓ RADAR (Radio Detection and Ranging)
- ✓ RAM (Random Access Memory), untuk menggambarkan memori komputer.
- ✓ RAM (Random Access Memory)
- ✓ RAW (Research and Analysis Wing)
- ✓ ROM (Read Only Memory)
- ✓ SAARC (South asian assocation for regional cooperation)
- ✓ SARS (severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome)
- ✓ SCUBA (self contained underwater breathing apparatus)
- ✓ SIM (Subscriber Identity Module)
- ✓ SONAR (sound navigation and ranging)
- ✓ SWOT (Strengths, weakness, opportunities and threats)
- ✓ TEFL (Teaching english as a foreign language)
- ✓ TESL (teaching english as a second language)
- ✓ TESOL (teaching english to speakers of other languages)
- ✓ TOEFL (Test of english as a foreign language)
- ✓ UNESCO (United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation)
- ✓ UNICEF (Unitted Nations International Children's Emergency Fund)
- ✓ WAN (Wide Area Network)
- ✓ WHO (world Health Organisation),
- ✓ WiFi (Wireless Fidelity)

- ✓ WIP (work in progress)
- ✓ YOLO (You only Live once)
- ✓ ZIP (Zone improvement plan)
- ✓ A. M. (ante meridiem (in the morning))
- ✓ B. C. E (before common era)
- ✓ HIV (Human immunodeficiency virus)
- ✓ i. e. (id est (that is))
- ✓ JFK (John Fitzgerald Kennedy)
- ✓ OJ (orange juice)
- ✓ VIP (very important person)

3. **Blending**

Blending adalah proses pembentukan kata dengan penggabungan bagian dari suatu kata untuk membuat bentukan kata yang baru.

Contoh:

- ✓ *Smog* (***Smoke Fog***)
- ✓ *Advertainment* (*advertisement entertainment*)
- ✓ *Biopic* (*biographical picture*)
- ✓ *Blog* (*Web Log*)
- ✓ *Brunch* (*breakfast and lunch*)
- ✓ *Chortle* (*chuckle snort*)
- ✓ *Cyborg* (*cybernetic organism*)
- ✓ *Guesstimate* (*guess estimate*)
- ✓ *Hazmat* (*hazardous material*)
- ✓ *Motel* (*Motor Hotel*)
- ✓ *Prissy* (*prim sissy*)
- ✓ *Simulcast* (*simultaneous broadcast*)
- ✓ *Spanglish* (*spanish English*)
- ✓ *Spork* (*spoon fork*)
- ✓ *Telethon* (*telephone marathon*)
- ✓ *Webinar* (*web seminar*)

5. 5 PEMBENTUKAN KATA MODEL EPONYMS

Suatu kata yang terbentuk karena sebuah nama real dari seseorang yang menjadi penemu atau tokoh, nama suatu tempat atau nama sesuatu yang terkenal.

Contoh:

1. Amerika (Amerigo Vespucci, pembuat peta Italia).
2. Atlas (atlas, salah satu raksasa mitologi Yunani yang menguasai dunia pada usia dini.)
3. Boycott (nama Charles C. Boycott, seorang agen tanah Inggris yang dikucilkan oleh warga desa Irlandia)
4. Cardigan (James Thomas Brudnell, 7th earl of cardigan, Dia memimpin pasukan yang mengenakan pakaian ini ke medan perang, simbol pria macho)
5. Cereal (Ceres, nama planet terkecil, benda langit berbatu dan ber-es di tata surya)
6. Diesel (Rudolph Diesel, adalah seorang penemu Jerman, mesin diesel)
7. Dunc (John Duns Scotus, seorang teolog, filsuf dan logikawan)
8. Fahrenheit (Gabriel Daniel Fahrenheit, fisikawan yang diberi nama pengukuran suhu)
9. Guillotine (Dr. Joseph ignace Guillotin, pencipta Guillotine dari Perancis)
10. Jacuzzi (candido jacuzzi, perancang pompa air pertama yang dapat mengubah bak mandi menjadi spa pusan air)
11. Luddite (Ned ludd, seorang legendaris diberi nama gerakan mereka oleh kaum Ludd.
12. Malapropism (Mrs. Malaprop, penggunaan kata yang salah yang menggantikan kata yang bunyinya serupa, baik secara tidak sengaja untuk dalam efek komedi.)
13. Mesmerize (Franz Anton Mesmer, seorang dokter jerman yang tertarik kepada bidang astronomi)
14. Nikotin (Jean Nicot, nama yang pernah mengirim bubuk daun dan biji tembakau ke perancis ketika dia mengunjungi Portugal sebagai duta besar)

15. Reagonomics (Rolald Reagan, filosofis ekonomi presiden Amerika Serikat tahun 80an, menggambarkan kelompok terkaya menerima keringanan pajak)
16. Ritsleting (Ritsleting, menggambarkan jenis pengikat secara universal)
17. Salad Kaisar (Caesar Cardini, pemilik restoran, pencipta salad)
18. Sandwich (diambil dari nama Earl of Sandwich)
19. Narcissistic (Narcissus, nama tumbuhan dengan bunga atraktif di daerah beriklim sedang dan subtropis)
20. Pasteurization (Louis pasteur, ilmuwan Perancis yang berhasil menemukan cara mencegah pembusukan)
21. Sadistic (Marquis De Sade, bangsawan, penulis filsafat dan sering pornografi dengan kekerasan)
22. Salmonella (Daniel Elmer Salmon, nama seorang dokter hewan Amerika memperoleh gelar DVM pertama di Amerika Serikat.
23. Mirandize (Ernesto A. Miranda, nama seorang buruh amerika yang dihukum pidana) Volcano (vulcan, pelindung perdagangan yang berhubungan dengan oven (juru masak, pembuat roti, manisan) dalam karya Plautus.
24. Hoover (William Henry Hoover, nama pendiri vacum cleaner pertama)
25. Teddy bear (Morris Michtom, pembuat beruang mainan dan didedikasikan kepada presiden, Theodore Roosevelt, yang menolak menembak bear, dan menyebutnya Teddy's bear).

5. 6 PEMBENTUKAN KATA MODEL BACK-FORMATION

Proses pembentukan kata dengan model *back formation* ini yaitu dengan menghilangkan atau membuang bagian dari suatu kata yang biasanya dianggap di bagian akhir suatu kata atau bahkan juga di bagian depan suatu kata dan membentuk kata baru, misalnya dalam pembentukan kata kerja yang berasal dari kelas kata benda.

Contoh:

- ✓ *To liaise* adalah kelas kata kerja dan *back. formation* dari kata benda *liaison*.
- ✓ *To intuit* (*back formation* dari kata *intuition*).
- ✓ *To enthuse* (*back formation* dari kata *enthusiasm*).
- ✓ *Donate* (*back formation* dari kata *donation*).
- ✓ *Process* (*back formatin* dari kata *procession*).
- ✓ *Insert* (*back formation* dari kata kata *insertion*)
- ✓ *To televise* (*back formation* dari latin : *television*).
- ✓ *To project* (*back formatin* dari kata *projection*).
- ✓ *To emote* (*back formation* dari kata *emotion* (*noun*)).
- ✓ *To translate* (*back formation* dari kata *translation*).
- ✓ *To revise* (*back formation* dari *revision*).
- ✓ *To swindle* (*back formation* dari *swindler*).
- ✓ *To daydream* (*back formation* dari *daydreamer*).
- ✓ *To edit* (*back formation* dari *editor*).
- ✓ *To sculpt* (*back formation* dari *sculptor*).
- ✓ *To injure* (*back formation* dari *injury*).
- ✓ *To enthuse* (*back formation* dari *enthusiasm*).
- ✓ *To jell* (*back formation* dari *jelly*).
- ✓ *To laze* (*back formation* dari kata *lazy*).
- ✓ *To obsess* (*back formation* dari *obsessive*)
- ✓ *Paramedic* (*back formation* dari *paramedical*).
- ✓ *Statistic* (*back formation* dari *statistics*).

5. 7 Kata –Kata Pinjaman (Loan Words)

Kata tipe pinjaman (*loan*) ini adalah kata yang diambil dan digunakan dari bahasa lain yang sering digunakan dan sudah budaya dan dipahami seperti bahasa sendiri dan banyak digunakan di masyarakat, dan diucapkan dengan seperti menggunakan bahasa Inggris ketimbang pengucapan asalnya.

Contoh kata pinjaman dalam bahasa Inggris dan asal bahasa:

- ✓ Algebra (bagian ilmu matematika, asal bahasa Arab)
- ✓ Balet (jenis tarian yang menggunakan tarian : Perancis).
- ✓ Chapatti (salah satu jenis roti gandum makanan pokok di asia selatan).
- ✓ Cherub (asal dari bahasa Arab)
- ✓ Drama (sesuatu yang melibatkan konflik dan emosi (sastra) dari bahasa Yunani : aksi, perbuatan, permainan, tontonan).
- ✓ Espresso (Kopi kental gelap dan nikmat memberi energi pada jiwa dibuat dengan menggunakan mesin agar air panas melewati biji kopi bubuk), espresso (bahasa Italia berarti ditekan)
- ✓ Illusion (bahasa Perancis : penampilan yang menipu).
- ✓ Kindergarten (bahasa Jerman, artinya taman kanak-kanak)
- ✓ Lava (batuan cair meletus dari gunung. Bahasa Italia : lava : aliran (merujuk banjir bandang untuk aliran batuan cair dari gunung)
- ✓ Loat (asal dari bahasa India)
- ✓ Logic : (bahasa Yunani : logika (seni penalaran), cara berpikir dan mengambil kesimpulan)
- ✓ Murder (asal dari bahasa Perancis)
- ✓ Piano (asal dari bahasa Italia)
- ✓ Pizza (menunjukkan hidangan ala Italia yang bentuknya bundar pipih yang dipanggang bersaus)
- ✓ Plaza (pusat perbelanjaan, kompleks komersial, lapangan umum terbuka). Bahasa Spanyol: plaza (lapangan umum terbuka, tempat jual beli komoditas).
- ✓ Pretzel (sejenis roti panggang dari bahasa Jerman : brezel)
- ✓ Sushi (hidangan khas Jepang)
- ✓ Tamale (jenis makanan asal dari bahasa Spanyol)
- ✓ Tapas (suatu jenis makanan Spanyol)
- ✓ Tornado (fenomena cuaca badai dahsyat dan kolom udara berputar bersentuhan dengan tanah. Bahasa Spanyol: tornado: tornad (memutar)

- ✓ Tycoon (raja, orang kaya, asal dari bahasa Jepang)

5. 8 Pembentukan Kata Model Coinage

Coinage adalah proses pembentukan kata yang melibatkan kreasi dan penggunaan umum kata kata yang baru melalui produk produk komersial, teknologi, musik, cinema yang sudah dikenal, terkenal, dll.

Contoh:

- ✓ aspirin
- ✓ Felon
- ✓ Google
- ✓ Granola
- ✓ Kleenex
- ✓ Nylon
- ✓ Vaseline
- ✓ Xerox
- ✓ Zipper

5. 9 Pembentukan Kata Model Hypocorism

Penggunaan kata untuk menunjukkan kedekatan (*affection and closeness*) kepada seseorang atau sesuatu biasanya dengan menggunakan nama panggilan akrab (*nickname, pet name*) yang biasa digunakan dalam ujaran informal baik kepada orang atau mungkin binatang kesayangan, dalam kehidupan sehari hari di Inggris dan Australia. Berikut adalah kata-kata asli dan sebutannya.

Contoh:

- ✓ *William* (Billy, Willy, nama ini digunakan sebagai nama panggilan, nama akrab)
- ✓ *Chocolate* (chockie, ujaran informal di Australia)
- ✓ *Dog* (doggie, panggilan perhatian kepada anjing)
- ✓ *Toasted sandwich* (toastie, digunakan dalam ujaran informal)

- ✓ *Grandmother* (granny, panggilan cinta seseorang kepada neneknya)

5. 10 Pembentukan Kata Model Onomatopoeia (Echoism)

Echoism adalah pembentukan suatu kata karena atau berkaitan dengan bunyi, gema (*echoic words*) dengan cara menirukan atau menyerupakan bunyi-bunyi atau suara sesuatu yang khusus seperti *buzz*, *hiss*, atau kata kata sebagai mimik atas bunyi yang ada di sekitar seperti bunyi kicauan, bunyi gemerisik (*chirping*, *rustling*). Bunyi tersebut mencerminkan atau menggambarkan maknanya seperti bunyi raungan, bunyi mendesis, deru air terjun, bunyi dentang, bisikan, atau artifisial lainnya seperti bunyi bel. *Onomatopoeia* merupakan model pembentukan suatu kata yang secara fonetik menyerupai atau menirukan bunyi yang bisa menggambarkan atau menyimbolkan terhadap sesuatu atau berkaitan dengan sesuatu objek atau tindakan seperti misalnya bunyi mengeong, mengaum, berdengung, bergumam, dan berkicau.

Contoh :

- ✓ AIE (teriakan yang menunjukkan sakit di Perancis)
- ✓ *Au, Aua, autsch* (bunyi yang menggambarkan orang yang menunjukkan sakit, atau terluka)
- ✓ *Baa* (menggambarkan suara domba)
- ✓ *bang* (menggambarkan bunyi keras, suara, letusan keras, bantingan pintu)
- ✓ *Belch, burp* (yang berkaitan dengan bunyi atau suara bersendawa)
- ✓ *Bleat* (menggambarkan suara yang keluar dari bunyi kambing)
- ✓ *Boing* (Bunyi benda yang mempuyai pegas ketika dilepaskan dari tekanannya, suara atau tindakan yang melompat lompat seperti papan loncat)

- ✓ *Boom* (menggambarkan bunyi ledakan, dentuman misalnya the boom of fireworks)
- ✓ *Buzz* (menggambarkan bunyi dengungan seperti misalnya suara lebah)
- ✓ *Chirp* (menggambarkan bunyi burung/kicauan)
- ✓ *Clap* (menggambarkan bunyi yang berkaitan dengan tepuk tangan)
- ✓ *crackle* (menggambarkan suara atau bunyi yang terputus putus)
- ✓ *Crash* (berkaitan dengan bunyi tabrakan benda)
- ✓ *Dark/woof* (menggambarkan gonggongan suara : anjing)
- ✓ *Gargle* (menggambarkan bunyi mengocok cairan di pangkal tenggorokan, berkumur)
- ✓ *Grunt* (suara yang berkaitan dengan bunyi dengusan, mendengus)
- ✓ *Guffguff* (gambaran suara bunyi anjing yang menggonggong di Rusia)
- ✓ *Hiss/sizzle* (suara yang berkaitan dengan dengan bunyi desis, desisan)
- ✓ *Meow* (menggambarkan bunyi kucing : *the cat meowed for some milk*)
- ✓ *moo* (menggambarkan suara atau bunyi suara sapi)
- ✓ *mumble* (bunyi yang berkaitan dengan bunyi bergumam)
- ✓ *Murmur* (suara yang berkaitan dengan suara tiupan, desisan, atau serak yang terdengar selama detak jantung)
- ✓ *Oink* (menggambarkan suara dari bunyi babi)
- ✓ *Ouch* (bunyi digunakan dalam bahasa Inggris ketika seseorang terluka)
- ✓ *Pitter-patter* (bunyi atau rangkaian bunyi atau ketukan ringan yang cepat)
- ✓ *Purr* (menggambarkan suara yang berkaitan dengan dengkur, suara tidak nyaman)
- ✓ *Quack* (menggambarkan asuara bebek, kwek kwek)
- ✓ *Ruffruff* (gambaran suara bunyi anjing yang menggonggong di Inggris)

- ✓ *Shiver* (yang berkaitan dengan menggigil)
- ✓ *slam* (tindakan atau suara yang berkaitan dengan bunyi membanting, bantingan)
- ✓ *Splash* (menggambarkan untuk bunyi batu yang jatuh ke sungai)
- ✓ *Splat* (Suara benturan atau percikan, cipratan)
- ✓ *swoosh* (suara yang berkaitan dengan bergerak, menuangkan atau suara deras atau siulan yang tajam.)
- ✓ *Thud* (berkaitan dengan bunyi jatuh, tabrakan, beradu)
- ✓ *Tik tok* (suara yang berkaitan atau menggambarkan bunyi jam, atau istilah berhitung mundur, atau tindakan dengan hitungan menit)
- ✓ *Wangwang* (gambaran suara bunyi anjing yang menggonggong di Cina)
- ✓ *Wanwan* (gambaran suara bunyi anjing yang menggonggong di Jepang)
- ✓ *Zap* (suara berkaitan dengan bunyi listrik yang dihasilkan oleh ledakan energi secara tiba tiba)

5. 11 Pembentukan Kata Model Reduplikasi (Reduplication)

Reduplikasi adalah model pembentukan kata dalam *inflection* dan *derivation* yang berfungsi menyampaikan makna pluralitas (jamak), pengulangan (*reiterating*), pengulangan yang semakin lama semakin lebih besar dan semakin meningkat (*augmentation*), semakin kuat (*intensification*), pengurangan makna atau tidak sebenarnya (*diminuation*), bahkan redaman (*attenuation*).

Contoh reduplikasi bahasa Inggris: *Super duper, okey dokey, nitty griffy, mumbo jumbo, little tattle, chop-chop, dilly dally, easy peasy, no no, hush hush, night night, ha ha, a goody goody, boogie, boogie, hanky panky, hocus pocus, hoity toity, hurdy gurdy, namby pamby, raggle taggle, ragtag, razzle dazzle, wingding, dll*

Reduplikasi dilihat dari aspek bagian pengulangan

1. *total reduplication* (seluruh bagian mengalami pengulangan kata), dan sebagian saja yang mengalami ubahan ataupun pengulangan (*partial reduplication*).
2. Total reduplication misalnya : seperti *fifty fifty, yum yum, wee wee*. Partial Reduplication misalnya : sing song, ding dong, willy nilly, itsy bitsy, hurly burly, helter skelter)

Reduplikasi dilihat dari aspek bunyi, makna dan tujuan

3. **Ryming reduplication**, jika bentuk pengulangan dengan makna penekanan dan bersajak (poetry) misalnya Arty farty, willy nilly, higgledy piggledy, chick flick, walkie talkie, easy peasy, super duver, pilly silly, hokey pokey.
4. **Ablaut reduplication** (reduplikasi dengan perubahan pada bunyi vokal atau bahkan konsonannya): *Knick knacks, riff raff, Wishy washy, hobnob, tinny winny, argy bargy, even stevens, double trouble, bigwig, fat cat, lovey dovey, wakey wakey, mishmash, fuddy duddy, topsy turvy, boo boo, boy toys, Toy boy, chit chat, zigzag, nitwit, hangky pangky, clap-trap, drink drank, long length, zig zag,*
5. **Phonetic Reduplication** berkaitan dengan aspek bunyi, misalnya : *tut tut, ding dong*
6. **Child language reduplication** Reduplikasi yang berkaitan dengan penggunaannya untuk anak anak misalnya *bobo, da da, poo poo, wee wee, bye bye, banana/nana, daddy/dada, mommy/ma ma, water/wa wa, grandpa/papa*
7. **Pidgin language**, reduplikasi yang berkaitan dengan sosial, *Pidgin language* (bahasa informal) misalnya hard hard.
8. **Shm reduplication**, reduplikasi yang bersifat mengurangi makna dan nilai : misalnya : fancy schmancy, celebrity shmelebrity, teacher shmeacher, chef shmef, car shmar, baby shmaby,
9. **Comparative reduplication**, reduplikasi yang menggambarkan pengulangan yang menunjukkan perbedaan dari satu keadaan ke keadaan lainnya, peningkatan, makna semakin berubah kualitas, misalnya

Bigger and bigger (semakin lama semakin besar), *younger and younger*, *drunker and drunker*

10. **Contrastive reduplication**, reduplikasi seutuhnya tidak ada perubahan pengulangan dengan maksud pada penekanan pada orsinilitas, kesungguhan, benar-benar berbeda. Contoh

- ✓ *I like Dukopi with coffee coffee* (kopi yang benar benar kopi)
- ✓ *I like like Lionel Messi* (sungguh menyukai sekali)
- ✓ *I like restaurant Mang Yeye with Food food* (makanannya benar benar makanan)
- ✓ *John is up but not up up*. (benar-benar sudah bangun)
- ✓ *This is mine mine*. (ini sungguh benara benar milik saya)
- ✓ *Are you friends friends?* (apakah kamu benar benar berteman, sekedar teman?)

5. 12 Pembentukan Kata Bahasa Lingo Dalam Terjemahan Transl8It. Com

Terjemahan bahasa lingo dari bahasa Inggris, biasanya misalnya dalam berkirim pesan, digunakan dalam chatting (*chat lingo*), berbentuk jargon, kata yang disingkat, atau huruf yang terputus, angka dan tanda baca yang tidak umum yang mewakili suatu kata tertentu, makna tertentu. Istilah lingo digunakan dalam bahasa gaul, sebagai jargon pribadi, kelompok tertentu. Contoh bahasa Lingo (bisa lihat di www.transl8it.com) dan arti sebenarnya.

- ✓ *2geder (together)*
- ✓ *2moro (tomorrow) 2nite (tonight)*
- ✓ *4ver(forever)*
- ✓ *afaik (as far as I know)*
- ✓ *Alwys (always)*
- ✓ *Asap (as soon as possible)*
- ✓ *At the same time (@ d sam tym)*

- ✓ *b (be)*
- ✓ *B4N (bye for now)*
- ✓ *Bbl (be back later)*
- ✓ *BFF (best friends forever)*
- ✓ *Bout (about)*
- ✓ *BRB (be right back)*
- ✓ *Bro (brother)*
- ✓ *Btw (by the way),*
- ✓ *BUTful (beautiful)*
- ✓ *c%d (could)*
- ✓ *Cn (can)*
- ✓ *Cul8r (see you later)*
- ✓ *dA (day)*
- ✓ *DIS (this)*
- ✓ *Dk (don't know)*
- ✓ *Evry1 (everyone)*
- ✓ *F (if)*
- ✓ *frm (from)*
- ✓ *FWIW (for what it's worth)*
- ✓ *Gf (girlfriend)*
- ✓ *Gr8 (great)*
- ✓ *H2cu (hope to see you)*
- ✓ *H8 (hate)*
- ✓ *I C U (i see you)*
- ✓ *I ms u (i miss you)*
- ✓ *Idk (I don't know)*
- ✓ *IMHO (in my humble opinion)*
- ✓ *l8ly (lately)*
- ✓ *LOL (laughing out loud)*
- ✓ *luv (love)*
- ✓ *lyf (life)*
- ✓ *n (and)*
- ✓ *Nc (no comment)*
- ✓ *OMG (oh my God)*
- ✓ *OT (off topic)*
- ✓ *otw (on the way),*
- ✓ *Pcm (please call me)*
- ✓ *Pls lt me knw 2nite (please let me know tonight)*

- ✓ *r(are)*
- ✓ *Ruok (are you okay?)*
- ✓ *Sol (sooner or later)*
- ✓ *Spk (speak)*
- ✓ *Sum1 (someone)*
- ✓ *T+ (think positive)*
- ✓ *TDTM (talk dirty to me)*
- ✓ *Thx (thanks)*
- ✓ *TTYL (talk to you later)*
- ✓ *U (you)*
- ✓ *ur (your)*
- ✓ *W8 (wait)*
- ✓ *Waiting 4 u @home (Waiting for you at home)*
- ✓ *Wan2 (want to)*
- ✓ *Wot (what)*
- ✓ *WTF/TX/TKS (what the fuck)*

5. 13 Pembentukan Kata –Kata Dari Angka

Angka angka berikut memiliki arti dan bermakna kata, khususnya kata dalam *police communication* karena angka itu sebagai kode radio penting dalam keadaan darurat. Kode memungkinkan membantu cepat dan indikasi tipe kedaruratannya.

Contoh angka dan artinya:

- ✓ 10-0 (use caution)
- ✓ 10-4 (okay, affirmative)
- ✓ 10-13 (advise weather and road conditions)
- ✓ 10-14 (prowler report : convoy or escort detail)
- ✓ 10-15 (civil disturbance: prisoner in custody)
- ✓ 10-78 (need assistance)
- ✓ 10-79 (bomb threat)
- ✓ 10-106 (secure)
- ✓ 11-13 (injured/dead animal)
- ✓ 11-31 (officer needs help)
- ✓ 11-44 (fatality/death)

5. 14 Pembentukan Kata Dari Bahasa Jargon, Slang, Dan Bahasa Keseharian (Qolloquial)

Police alphabet : A (adam), B (boy), C (Charles), D(David), E (Edward), F (Frank).

Berikut adalah Cop lingo/police jargon (istilah yang digunakan dalam kalangan polisi):

- ✓ *Been made* (identitas petugas yang sudah dapat diketahui)
- ✓ *Bailed out* (pelaku melompat keluar dari mobil dan berlari)
- ✓ *Dix* (detectivves)
- ✓ *Ghetto bird* (helikopter polisi)
- ✓ *House mouse* (petugas yang tidak berpatroli)
- ✓ *Hobbles* (tali nylon untuk menahan)
- ✓ *Stolo* (stolen vehicle/kendaraan dicuri))
- ✓ *Sam Browne* (an officer's belt/sabuk))
- ✓ *Ride the lighting* (tasing someone/mencicipi seseorang)
- ✓ *Put a rush on the bus!* (ambil ambulan disini dengan cepat)
- ✓ Ungkapan sehari hari (colloquial)

Berikut adalah ungkapan unik, frasa, kelompok sendiri dalam percakapan kasual. Ungkapan, tulisan digunakan dalam suasana tidak atau kurang formal.

- ✓ *Ballpark* (menggambarkan sesuatu yang dekat dan akurat)
- ✓ *Bomb* (mengerjakan ujian dengan sangat buruk)
- ✓ *Cattywampus* (sesuatu yang bengkok)
- ✓ *Flake* (seseorang yang membatalkan rencana secara teratur atau tindakan membatalkan rencana secara teratur)
- ✓ *Lemon* (pembelian yang yang bermasalah)
- ✓ *Podunk* (kota kecil)
- ✓ *Raincheck* (janji mengatur rencana ulang yang tertunda)
- ✓ *Ride shotgun* (duduk di depan (tempat duduk penumpang mobil di depan)
- ✓ *Score* (meraih apa yang diinginkan)
- ✓ *Trash* (merusak sesuatu)

Berikut adalah contoh dari Bahasa Inggris Kanada

- ✓ *Chirping* (mengolok/mengejek seseorang)
- ✓ *Click* (satu kilometer)
- ✓ *Eh or hey* (digunakan di akhir kalimat menandakan persetujuan)
- ✓ *Gong show* (kejadian di luar kendali)
- ✓ *Keener* (seseorang yang bekerja keras untuk memenangkan hati)
- ✓ *Kerfuffle* (perbedaan pendapat yang menyebabkan keributan)
- ✓ *Pencil crayons* (pensil berwarna)
- ✓ *Serviette* (sebuah serbet)
- ✓ *Skid* (anak dari keluarga miskin)
- ✓ *Toque* (topi hangat)

Berikut adalah contoh dari Bahasa Inggris Australia

- ✓ *Arvo* (afternoon)
- ✓ *Bottle-o* (toko alkohol)
- ✓ *Bludger* (orang malas)
- ✓ *Cobber* (teman yang baik)
- ✓ *Deadset* (sesuatu yang benar)
- ✓ *Flat out* (sangat sibuk)
- ✓ *Furphy* (rumor atau cerita yang tidak mungkin)
- ✓ *Mongrel* (orang yang tidak sopan/bermasalah)
- ✓ *Rapt* (sangat senang)
- ✓ *Swag* (kantong /tas untuk tidur)
- ✓ *Woop woop* (sebuah kota entah dimana (antah berantah))

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BAB 6

MORPHOLOGY

Oleh Andi Rachmawati Syarif

6. 1 What is Morphology? Briefly Introduction

During the process of acquiring English vocabulary, numerous pupils struggle to accurately anticipate the significance of specific terms. This perspective is rooted on the belief that words possess a singular unit of meaning. It is worth noting that numerous words are composed of multiple units of meaning. Gaining comprehension of one or more semantic units that interpret the words will undoubtedly assist pupils in anticipating the meaning of the words. The purpose of this article is to acquaint students with the notion of morphemes, which are the most basic structures of meaning in language.

Given that linguistics is the field of study concerned with language, it is logical to commence with a more limited scope. Are words the most basic and fundamental units of meaning in a language? Morphemes are little units of sound that convey meaning, often smaller than words. Various morphemes can combine to form a unified word.

Morphology pertains to the examination of sub-word sounds and their role in generating semantic significance within a given language.

Experts have provided varying definitions of morphology. However, they share a common understanding of its overall scope. According to Carstairs-McCarthy (2002), morphology is the branch of grammar that focuses on the organization of words and the connections between words through the

morphemes that make them up. Yule (2010) defines morphology as the examination of fundamental structures inside a language. Based on the definitions provided by experts, it can be inferred that morphology pertains to the examination of word structures within a given language.

The field of morphology refers to the examination of the internal composition of **words**. This study focuses on the morphological aspects of lexemes, including inflection, as well as the mechanisms involved in their generation, known as **word formation**.

New words are created by utilizing patterns of the form-meaning link between existing terms. The concept of morphology necessitates the presence of paradigmatic connections between words in order to be considered as more than just the syntax of morphemes or syntax below the word level. Morphology plays a significant role in the augmentation of a language's lexicon or the assemblage of established words. However, it should be noted that morphology is not the exclusive origin of lexical units, nor is it the sole source of all intricate words. These complicated words also arise through processes such as borrowing, univerbation, and word construction.

The lexicon is a conceptual linguistic construct that is distinct from the concepts of a 'dictionary' and mental lexicon. 'It serves as a compilation of the established terms, both basic and complicated, within a given language. Morphological rules have a dual function: they delineate the anticipated characteristics of intricate words within the lexicon, while also demonstrating the process by which novel words and word structures can be generated (Lieber, 2004).

The subfield of morphology within the realm of linguistics aims to offer comprehensive language description, construct an appropriate language typology, and contribute to ongoing discussions over the organization of grammar and the cognitive representation of linguistic proficiency.

6. 2 Basic Concepts in Morphology

The presence of morphological structure can be observed when a collection of **words** has partial resemblances in terms of their form and meaning. In the majority of instances, the correlation between form and meaning is quite uncomplicated: distinct meanings are associated with different components of words. Examine the illustrations provided below.

<i>read</i>	<i>read-s</i>	<i>read-er</i>	<i>read-able</i>
<i>wash</i>	<i>wash-es</i>	<i>wash-er</i>	<i>wash-able</i>
<i>kind</i>	<i>kind-ness</i>	<i>un-kind</i>	
<i>happy</i>	<i>happi-ness</i>	<i>un-happy</i>	

The following words are straightforward to **segment** or **decompose** into individually significant components: *read* + *s*, *read* + *er*, *kind* + *ness*, *un* + *cheerful*, and so forth. These components are known as **morphemes**. Indeed, words can comprise more than two morphemes; for instance, "*unhappiness*," "*readability*," "*unfriendliness*," and "*unfriendliness*" are all examples.

Morphemes are the most basic and significant components of a language utterance. The line "*Camilla met an unfriendly chameleon*" can be fragmented into meaningful components using several approaches, such as "*Camilla/met an unfriendly chameleon*," "*Camilla/met/an/unfriendly/chameleon*," or "*Camilla/met/an/un/friend/ly/chameleon*." However, it is not feasible to achieve additional division. When we attempt to further categorize *chameleon* (e. g. *cha/meleon*), we do not obtain meaningful parts. This is either because these parts are not present in any other words (as appears to be the case with *meleon*), or because the other words in which they occur do not share any aspect of meaning with *chameleon* (cf. *charisma*, *Canadian*, *caboodle*, *capacity*, where it would theoretically be possible to identify a word part *cha/ca-*) (Haspelmath & Sims,

2010). Therefore, it is not possible to divide the chameleon into multiple morphemes, as it is **monomorphic**. The morphemes are the fundamental components of morphological analysis, serving as morphological atoms.

6. 2. 1 Lexeme and Word Forms

The fundamental principle of morphology is the concept of a "word". In order to facilitate comprehension, let us make the assumption that a word is defined as a continuous sequence of letters. Therefore, the initial sentence of this paragraph comprises twelve words, with each word being separated by an empty space from the adjacent word(s). In an alternative interpretation, the sentence consists of nine distinct word sequences, each separated by spaces. However, it should be noted that not every sequence of letters is allocated a separate entry in a dictionary.

For example, the terms "*live*," "*lives*," "*lived*," and "*living*" exhibit distinct pronunciations and possess distinct meanings. However, there would be just one item for "live" in a dictionary. We would think that a dictionary user would be aware that the words "*live*," "*lives*," "*lived*," and "*living*" are all distinct meanings of the "same" word. The three definitions of "word" are so distinct. One definition of a **word token** is an instance of the word in a piece of writing or spoken language. That is, twelve words make up the initial phrase of the paragraph. The '**concrete word**' and the '**dictionary word**' are the other two meanings of the word that are not defined in relation to specific texts. There must be unique technical words for the two concepts—lexeme and word form—because this difference is fundamental to morphology (Haspelmath & Sims, 2010).

A **lexeme** refers to a word that possesses abstract meaning. The verb "*live*" is a lexeme. It signifies the fundamental significance that is common to forms such as

life, lives, lived, and living. Dictionaries in the majority of languages are structured based on lexemes, making it generally logical to consider a lexeme as a '**dictionary term**'. While it is necessary to assign names to lexemes in order to communicate about them, it is important to note that lexemes are abstract entities that lack any inherent phonological form. The term "*live*" is merely a convenience designation used to refer to a specific lexeme, as the sequence of sounds [lɪv] does not represent the lexeme itself. In certain instances, it is customary to employ the convention of encoding lexemes in lowercase capital letters.

In contrast, a word-form refers to a term that possesses a tangible meaning. A phoneme is a series of phonetic units that conveys the amalgamation of a lexeme, such as "*live*," and a collection of grammatical meanings or functions that are suitable for that lexeme, such as the third person singular present tense. *Lives* is a linguistic entity. Therefore, word-forms are tangible since they can be spoken.

Further, Haspelmath & Sims, emphasized that lexemes can be seen as collections of word-forms, with each word-form being a part of a specific lexeme. The word-forms *live, lives, lived, and living* all pertain to the lexeme *live*. Word-forms that belong to the same lexeme can express various grammatical functions while representing the same core concept. When a word form is utilized in a specific text or during speech, this occurrence of use is referred to as a word token. The initial sentence of this paragraph contains a total of sixteen word tokens, with fifteen unique word-forms (except for the repetition of "of"), and thirteen distinct lexemes (such as "lexemes" and "lexeme" both falling under the category of "lexeme") (2010).

The upcoming discussion will delve into the distinction between lexemes and word forms, with a focus on highlighting the crucial points in advance.

(i) Complex lexemes, like *reader* or *logician*, usually refer to new ideas that are different from the ideas that go with their simple lexemes. On the other hand, word-forms are usually only there to meet a legal requirement of the language's syntax. However, word forms like *reads* or *reading* don't mean anything different from *read*, they're just needed in certain situations, like "*the girl reads a magazine*" or "*reading magazines is fun.*"

(ii) The inclusion of complex lexemes in dictionaries is necessary due to their lower predictability compared to word-forms. For example, it is not possible to anticipate the existence of the lexeme *illogicality*, as not all adjectives possess a corresponding *-ity* lexeme (see non-existent words such as **naturality*, **logicality*). It is implausible to anticipate that an expert in logic should be referred to as a *logician* (as opposed to a **logacist*), and the interpretation of intricate words is frequently uncertain. For instance, a *reader* can encompass not only any individual who engages in *reading*, but also a particular academic role (in the British system) or even a type of book. In contrast, the characteristics of word-forms are predominantly predictable, hence obviating the necessity of listing them individually for each lexeme.

In short, Bauer et al. (2013) mentioned that a *lexeme* is a conceptual representation that encompasses one or more word types and conveys identical lexical meanings. The term '*word form*' pertains to the phonological or orthographic structure of a word, regardless of its meaning.

6.2.2 Morpheme and Allomorph

It has been observed that several words are not classified as *lexical elements* due to their predictable meanings. This predictability is not occurring unexpectedly. The predictability of words is made possible by their construction, which consists of identifiable smaller

components (at least two) that are methodically combined to consistently establish the meaning of the entire word.

The differentiation between *lexical items* and *non-lexical items* is a crucial aspect to consider before delving into the subsequent subjects under consideration. In order to be classified as non-lexical entities, words must possess complexity, meaning they consist of two or more morphemes. Nevertheless, there are other terms that can be deemed challenging; lexical-item words can also be regarded as intricate.

Considering the manner in which the notion of morphemes has been introduced, we shall delve deeper into two of its characteristics. In order for the definitions of certain complex words to be predictable, morphemes must satisfy the subsequent criteria;

First, they must be differentiateable between individual words. Second, the significance of the components does, to some extent, influence the overall meaning of the term.

According to some textbooks, for example, morphemes are not only the smallest grammatical structure units, but they are also the smallest meaningful units.

Numerous complex words, including both newly coined terms like "*un-Clintonish*" and well-established ones like "*helpful*" (which can be deconstructed into the morphemes "*help*," "*-ful*," and "*-ness*"; the latter of which is present in both "*joyous*" and "*doleful*," for instance), are aptly suited to this viewpoint. It seems plausible to assume that the definitions of the morphemes comprising *un-Clintonish* and *helpfulness* define the meanings of both terms in their entirety (Lightner, 2014).

Additionally, monomorphic terms are possible lexical elements. However, this is not always the case (pertaining to a single morpheme). It is unsurprising that we have already encountered idiomatic expressions, which are

lexical items so complex that they require the use of multiple words to convey their meaning.

(McCarthy, A., 2002). The identification of polymorphemic lexical items, which consist of more than one morpheme, holds significant implications for comprehending the relationship between morphemes and meaning.

Bauer, Plag, and Lieber (2013) define a **morpheme** as the most minute meaningful unit in morphological analysis. To clarify the relationship between the terms '*morpheme*' and '*allomorph*' and to ensure greater precision, a third term, '*allomorph*', must be introduced first. Phonological dissimilarity notwithstanding, functional equivalence and complementary distribution characterize variants on numerous occasions. Consider the example below;

<i>embark</i>	<i>endanger</i>	<i>embed</i>
<i>ensnare</i>	<i>embody</i>	<i>entomb</i>
<i>emplane</i>	<i>entrain</i>	

Potentially free morphs such as *bark*, *bed*, *body*, *plane*, *danger*, *snare*, *tomb*, and *train* are preceded by an obligatorily **bound morph** that consistently means 'cause to be in' and has the same meaning in every instance. This **morph** is shown as **em-** and **en-** in the aforementioned cases. The two forms are complementary in distribution and can be predicted to appear before different types of consonants: **em-**before bilabial consonants and **en-**before alveolar consonants, for example. **Allomorphs** describe these two variations, which are thought to be from the same morpheme.

In a broad sense, allomorphs refer to phonologically varied variants that coexist within specific phonological contexts.

Morphemes can be classified as clusters of allomorphs.

A further illustration of allomorphs can be observed in the utilization of the suffix -s to denote plurality in nouns. Please take into account the following example.

cats	/kæts/
dogs	/dɒgz/
horses	/hɔːrsɪz/

The example above illustrates the distinct pronunciations of the suffix **-s** in the aforementioned three words. The suffix **-s** can be pronounced differently, resulting in allomorphs such as **/s/**, **/z/**, and **/ɪz/**.

The variation in pronunciation of a singular suffix -s is closely associated with the phonological characteristics of the word to which the affix -s is appended. Upon thorough examination of the aforementioned example, it becomes evident that the suffix -s is pronounced as **/s/** when it follows a voiceless sound, as exemplified by the cat (where the sound **/t/** is voiceless). Conversely, when the suffix follows a voiced sound, as observed in the dog (where the sound **/d/** is voiced), it is pronounced as **/z/**. Furthermore, the suffix -s is pronounced as **/ɪz/** when it follows sibilant sounds, such as in the word "horse" where the sound **/s/** at the end is a sibilant sound.

6. 3 Kinds of Morphemes

From the aforementioned instances, it is evident that there are two distinct types of morphemes. There are morphemes that possess independent meaning and morphemes that lack independent meaning. Morphemes that possess the ability to function independently are referred to as **free morphemes**. **Bound morphemes** refer to morphemes that necessitate attachment to one or more morphemes (McCarthy, A., 2002).

Free morphemes include:

1. **Nouns** : *tree, flower, house, kitchen, dog, tiger, lion, dress, shirt*

2. **Verbs** : *go, come, drink, sing, bring, cut, shoot, walk, run, get*
3. **Adjectives** : *clean, strong, weak, clear, red, yellow, near, far*
4. **Adverbs** : *yesterday, now, fast, hard, up, out, in*
5. **Pronouns** : *he, she, I, we, you, they, it*
6. **Conjunctions** : *but, and, since, when, after, before, or, because*
7. **Prepositions** : *after, in, of, on, at, with, above, under*
8. **Determiners** : *that, this*

Bound morphemes, on the other hand which are morphemes that are unable to function independently, encompass bound stems, bound bases, and bound affixes. Bound stems are linguistic structures consisting of one or more morphemes that can be augmented by an affix. A morpheme that is connected to a free morpheme is referred to as an affix. The bound stems encompass several concepts such as *nature, structure, inject, project, cognition, visible, populate, implicate, separate, tolerate, carpenter, construct, perceive, include, resist, desist, porter, tailor, monism, monist, fascism, debility, felicity, operate, corroborate, dehydrate*.

There are four different types of affixes: **prefixes, suffixes, infixes**, and **supervises**. An affix that comes before a morpheme is called a **prefix**. There are several prefixes, for instance:

1. **a_** or **ab**, which means “away from”: *atheism, abnormal*
2. **bi_**, which means “two”: *bilingual, bipolar*
3. **de_**, meaning “removal” or “negation”: *dehumanize, demerit, dehumidify, degrade, derange, deduce, defract*
4. **pre_**, which means “prior to” or “before”: *preschool, prewar, prepay, preaxial, prejudice, preadolescence*
5. **re_**, which means “again” or “backwards”: *reenact, retype, retrace, refurbish, regenerate, revert*

(Longman Advanced American Dictionary, 2003)

After free morphemes or bound stems, you can find affixes called **suffixes**. Several examples of suffixes are given in the preceding treatments of morphemes that create nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. Thus, **_age, _ance, _er, _ing, _ee, _ment, _al, _ant, _ation, _ness, _cy, _ism, _ist, _ship, _ful, _able, _en, _ous, _ly, _wise, and _ile** are examples of suffixes. Other examples of suffixes are:

- 1. **_ity**: regularity, stupidity, modernity
- 2. **_let**, which means “small”: booklet, leaflet, anklet, piglet
- 3. **_ess**: lioness, waitress, heiress, princess, duchess
- 4. **_ette**, which means “small”: kitchenette, dinette, statuette, cigarette. It may also mean the “feminine”: usherette, coquette
- 5. **_some**: burdensome, troublesome, bothersome, cumbersome. It may also mean “a group of a particular number”: a golf foursome, a loving twosome.

(Longman Advanced American Dictionary, 2003)

Affixes that are embedded into other morphemes are known as infixes. In general, linguists concur that the English language does not employ infixes. Circumfixes are affixes that are concurrently positioned prior to and subsequent to a morpheme. There are reportedly no circumfixes in the English language. Affixes known as superfixes are affixes that are appended from above via tension, or sound quality (McCarthy, A., 2002). The form class of words can be altered by a shift in intonation, for instance, transforming a noun into a verb. Examples include:

Noun	Verb
'permit	per'mit
'transfer	trans'fer
'record	re'cord
'project	pro'ject
'import	im'port
'escort	es'cort
etc.	

Meanwhile, **derivational affixes** and **inflectional suffixes** are the two categories of affixes. Inflectional suffixes are final suffixes that are present at the conclusion of a construction. A further affix is not permitted following an inflectional suffix. Form class changes and the addition of new meanings are not the functions of inflectional suffixes. Grammatical functions they fulfill include denoting tenses and plurals. Such are **inflectional suffixes**:

1. **__s** : the plural morpheme
2. **__'s or __s'** : the possessive morpheme
3. **__er** : the comparative degree morpheme
4. **__est** : the superlative degree morpheme
5. **__s** : the third person singular tense morpheme
6. **__ing** : the progressive tense morpheme
7. **__ed1** : the past tense morpheme
8. **__ed2** : the past participle morpheme

(Longman Advanced American Dictionary, 2003)

The concept of derivative affixes pertains to affixes that serve to introduce additional meanings to morphemes or alter the form class of such morphemes. Every prefix is derived. The majority of suffixes exhibit derivational tendencies. Additionally, a superfix can also be considered derivational (McCarthy, A., 2002).

6. 4 (Briefly) Root, Base, Affixes, and Combining Form

Three essential terms in the analysis of words are 'root', 'base', and 'affix'. According to Bauer et al. (2013), a root is a lexically significant morph, whether free or bound, that is not subject to additional analysis. It is the lexical center that remains after the removal of all affixes. For example, the roots are *read*, *hear*, *large*, *perform*, *happy*, *soft*, and *speak*.

Attached to roots are obligatory bound elements known as AFFIXES. Prefixes are morphological elements that are required to be bound before a root, while suffixes are morphological

elements that are required to be bound after a root. As illustrated below;

1. Prefixes in English: *de*-compose, *dis*-qualify, *fore*-word, *inter*-national, *mis*-align, *non*-smoker, *pre*- requisite, *re*-watch, *sub*-marine, *super*-impose, *un*-natural, *en*-able.
2. Suffixes in English: America-*n*, happy-*ness*, relation-*ship*, brother-*hood*, caramel-*ize*, woman-*ly*, judgment-*al*, read-*s*, beaut-*ify*, separate-*d*, usher-*ette*, speak-*er*, fish-*ing*.

Due to the fact that English permits affixation to forms that regularly incorporate affixes, there will be times when the term BASE is applicable: a base refers to any morphological element to which additional morphological elements are appended in the process of word formation.

A base can consist of a single root (e. g., *friend-ly*), multiple roots (e. g., *file cabinet*), a phrase or word (e. g., *old maidish*), or a root plus one or more affixes (e. g., *-li-ness*).

Undoubtedly, these words are quite prevalent as they function as compounds, as previously elucidated in connection with the *cranberry morphemes*.

Illustrative instances include a *bookcase*, a *motorbike*, a *penketon*, and a *truck driver*. The rationale for revisiting the topic of compounds is rooted in the inquiry of whether a word can possess two or more bound roots in addition to its free roots, given that a complex word can be constructed from two or more free roots.

Note to take away

Morphology is the branch of linguistics that investigates the internal structure of words. It examines how words are formed, their constituent parts, and the rules governing their construction. Here are some key points:

1. **Morphemes:**
 - Morphemes are the smallest meaningful units in a language.

- They can be **free morphemes** (stand-alone words like “book,” “run,” or “happy”) or **bound morphemes** (affixes like prefixes and suffixes).
- For example, in the word “unhappiness,” “un-” and “-ness” are bound morphemes attached to the free morpheme “happy.”

2. **Word Formation Processes:**

- **Inflection:** Adding affixes to words to indicate grammatical features (e. g., tense, number, case). For instance, “walks” (inflected from “walk”) shows third-person singular.
- **Derivation:** Creating new words by adding affixes (e. g., “singer” from “sing,” “acceptable” from “accept”).
- **Compounding:** Combining two or more words to create a new one (e. g., “toothbrush,” “blackboard”).
- **Reduplication:** Repeating a morpheme (e. g., “bye-bye,” “zigzag”).

3. **Word Classes:**

- Morphology helps classify words into categories like nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs.
- Different languages have varying ways of marking these classes through morphological processes.

4. **Word form** is a form of word which is influenced by grammatical function.

5. **Word token** is the occurrence of words in a sentence.

6. **Lexeme** is an abstraction over one or more word types that convey the same lexical meaning.

7. **Lexical Items** are units of language that have unpredictable meanings, so they must be listed in dictionaries.

In summary, morphology explores the intricate structure of words, revealing how they are built from smaller units and how they convey meaning and function in a language.

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BAB 7

PHRASES AND SENTENCES

Oleh Akhmad Hairul Umam

7. 1 Introduction

Language is the cornerstone of human communication, serving as the medium through which we convey thoughts, ideas, emotions, and information (Pinker, 2007). At the heart of language are phrases and sentences, fundamental units that allow us to structure and express our thoughts effectively. Understanding phrases and sentences is essential because they form the building blocks of written and spoken communication.

Phrases, which are groups of words that function as a single unit within a sentence, provide the necessary context and details to convey precise meaning. For instance, in the phrase "the beautiful sunset," the phrase "the beautiful" adds descriptive value to "sunset," allowing us to visualize and appreciate the scene more vividly. In contrast, sentences, as complete thoughts or statements, offer a means to convey complete ideas (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002). The ability to craft well-structured sentences enables individuals to express themselves clearly, persuasively, and coherently.

In the digital age, where communication happens not only in person but also through various online platforms, the mastery of phrases and sentences has never been more critical. Whether you are writing a professional email, crafting a persuasive essay, or engaging in a casual conversation on social media, the way

you construct phrases and sentences directly influences how effectively your message is understood and received.

Research into language acquisition and development underscores the significance of phrases and sentences. Studies have shown that children acquire language skills by learning to construct phrases and sentences from an early age (Clark, 2009). Furthermore, individuals who excel in their ability to manipulate and use phrases and sentences are often perceived as more articulate, persuasive, and knowledgeable.

The complexity of phrases and sentences will be explored throughout this chapter by looking at their varied forms, structures, and functions in clear communication. By gaining a deeper understanding of these linguistic building blocks, readers will enhance their language skills and become more proficient communicators in both written and spoken contexts.

7. 2 The Basics of Phrases

A. Definition of a Phrase

A phrase in English is a group of related words that functions as a single unit within a sentence but does not contain both a subject and a predicate, which are necessary elements for a complete sentence. Phrases serve specific roles within sentences, providing additional information, modifying other elements, or acting as a constituent part of a larger grammatical structure (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002). Unlike sentences, which convey complete thoughts or ideas, phrases are often used to add depth, detail, or context to a sentence. They can function as nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, or prepositions and typically consist of one or more words.

B. Types of Phrases

a. Noun Phrases

Noun phrases function as nouns in sentences and can serve as the subject, object, or complement of a sentence. They typically consist of a noun and its modifiers. For example:

"The big, red apple" (Noun Phrase)

"A book on the shelf" (Noun Phrase)

b. Verb Phrases

Verb phrases contain a main verb and its auxiliary (helping) verbs, if any. They express actions, conditions, or states of being. For example:

"She is reading a book" (Verb Phrase)

"They have been working hard" (Verb Phrase)

c. Adjective Phrases

Adjective phrases modify nouns or pronouns, providing more information about them. They often consist of an adjective and any modifiers. For example:

"The incredibly talented musician" (Adjective Phrase)

"A beautiful, serene beach" (Adjective Phrase)

d. Adverb Phrases

Adverb phrases modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs, describing how, when, where, or to what extent an action or condition occurs. For example:

"She spoke very softly" (Adverb Phrase)

"He worked diligently throughout the night" (Adverb Phrase)

e. Prepositional Phrases

Prepositional phrases consist of a preposition, its object, and any modifiers. They function as adjectives or adverbs, providing additional information about other elements in a sentence.

For example:

"The book on the table is mine. "

(Prepositional Phrase as an adjective)

"She walked to the store slowly. "

(Prepositional Phrase as an adverb)

C. Constructing Effective Phrases

a. The Role of Head Words

In English phrases, the concept of "head words" plays a crucial role. A head word, often referred to as the "head" of the phrase, is the central word that determines the type and function of the entire phrase. The head word provides the essential meaning, while other words within the phrase modify or complement it. For example, in the phrase "the beautiful sunset," the word "sunset" is the head word, and "beautiful" serves as a modifier, describing the type of sunset. Similarly, in "a book on the shelf," "book" is the head word, and "on the shelf" provides additional information about the book's location.

Understanding the role of head words is crucial when constructing phrases because they determine the overall meaning and function of the phrase within a sentence. It ensures that phrases are coherent and convey precise information to the reader or listener (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002).

b. Coordination and Subordination

Phrases can be combined using coordination and subordination to create more complex structures and convey nuanced meanings (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002).

Coordination involves joining two or more phrases of equal importance using coordinating conjunctions such as "and," "but," "or," "nor," "for," "so," and "yet." For example, "He likes to read novels and she prefers non-fiction." Here, two noun phrases are coordinated to express the preferences of two individuals.

Subordination on the other hand, involves combining phrases of unequal importance using subordinating conjunctions like "because," "although," "while," "since," and "if." Subordination creates complex sentences by making one phrase dependent on another. For instance, "She couldn't go to the party because she had to work late." In this sentence, the second phrase ("she had to work late") depends on the first ("She couldn't go to the party").

Mastering coordination and subordination allows writers to construct sentences with varying levels of complexity and sophistication, enhancing the expressiveness of their writing.

c. Tips for Creating Clear and Concise Phrases

When creating phrases in English, it's essential to ensure clarity and conciseness. Here are some tips:

1. Use specific and descriptive modifiers to provide precise details.
2. Avoid redundancy by omitting unnecessary words.
3. Maintain subject-verb agreement within phrases.
4. Ensure that the phrase logically relates to the rest of the sentence.
5. Use parallel structure for lists and series within phrases.

Clear and concise phrases contribute to overall sentence clarity and readability. By mastering the role of

head words, coordination, subordination, and applying tips for clarity and conciseness, individuals can construct phrases that enhance the overall quality of their writing and communication.

7. 3 Understanding Sentences

A. Definition of a Sentence

A sentence in English is a grammatical unit that expresses a complete thought or idea. It typically consists of words organized in a specific order to convey meaning. Sentences are the fundamental building blocks of written and spoken communication, allowing individuals to express themselves, share information, ask questions, make statements, or issue commands (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002).

A complete sentence must contain at least two essential components: a subject and a predicate. The subject is the part of the sentence that performs the action or about which something is said, while the predicate contains the verb and provides information about the subject's action or state.

B. Types of Sentences

Simple Sentences

Simple sentences, also known as independent clauses, consist of a single subject and a single predicate. They express a complete thought and can stand alone as complete sentences. For example:

"She sings beautifully. "

"They arrived early. "

Compound Sentences

Compound sentences are formed by combining two or more simple sentences (independent clauses) using coordinating conjunctions such as "and," "but," "or," "nor," "for," "so," and "yet." For example:

"She sings beautifully, and he plays the guitar. "

"They arrived early, but the concert had already started. "

Complex Sentences

Complex sentences consist of one independent clause and one or more dependent clauses. Dependent clauses, introduced by subordinating conjunctions such as "because," "although," "while," "since," and "if," cannot stand alone as complete sentences. For example:

"She sings beautifully because she has had vocal training. "

"Although they arrived early, the concert had already started. "

C. Sentence Structure

Subject and Predicate

Subject: The subject of a sentence is typically a noun, pronoun, or noun phrase that performs the action or is the focus of the sentence.

Predicate: The predicate contains the verb and provides information about the subject's action or state.

Types of Predicates

Simple Predicate: The simple predicate is the main verb in the sentence that expresses the action or state.

Complete Predicate: The complete predicate includes the main verb and all its modifiers and objects.

D. Examples and Explanation of Each Sentence Type

Simple Sentences: Simple sentences express a single, complete thought. They are straightforward and provide clear information. For instance, "She sings beautifully" is a simple declarative sentence.

Compound Sentences: Compound sentences join two or more independent clauses to convey related ideas. The coordinating conjunctions used in compound sentences help establish relationships between these ideas. For example, "She sings beautifully, and he plays the guitar" is a compound sentence that combines two related thoughts.

Complex Sentences: Complex sentences incorporate both independent and dependent clauses. The dependent clause provides additional information, often clarifying the context or reason behind the main idea presented in the independent clause. For example, "She sings beautifully because she has had vocal training" is a complex sentence with an independent clause ("She sings beautifully") and a dependent clause ("because she has had vocal training").

Understanding these types of sentences and their components is essential for constructing meaningful and well-structured written and spoken communication in English (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002).

7. 4 Sentence Variations and Style

Declarative Sentences

Declarative sentences, also known as statements, are the most common sentence type in English. They make straightforward statements or convey information. Declarative sentences end with a period. For example:

"The sun rises in the east. "

Declarative sentences are essential in both written and spoken communication as they provide factual information and form the basis of most discourse (Quirk et al., 1985).

Interrogative Sentences

Interrogative sentences are used to ask questions. They seek information and typically begin with question words (who, what, where, when, why, how) or with a helping verb (is, are, can, will) followed by the subject. Interrogative sentences end with a question mark. For example:

"Where is the nearest grocery store?"

"Can you pass me the salt?"

Interrogative sentences are essential for seeking information, clarifying doubts, and engaging in conversations that involve questions and answers (Crystal, 2003).

Imperative Sentences

Imperative sentences are used to give commands, make requests, or offer invitations. They typically lack a subject (though "you" is implied) and end with a period or an exclamation mark for stronger emphasis. For example:

"Please close the door. "

"Pass the ball!"

Imperative sentences are common in everyday communication and are used to express directives and instructions (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002).

Exclamatory Sentences

Exclamatory sentences are used to express strong emotions, surprise, excitement, or emphasis. They often begin with words like "what" or "how" and end with an exclamation mark. For example:

"What a beautiful sunset!"

"How amazing that performance was!"

Exclamatory sentences are less common than declarative or interrogative sentences but are effective for conveying intense emotions (Biber *et al.*, 1999).

Rhetorical Devices in Sentences

Rhetorical devices are techniques used to enhance the persuasiveness or impact of sentences. These devices include:

1. Repetition: Repeating words or phrases for emphasis, e. g., "I have a dream. "
2. Parallelism: Using similar grammatical structures for balance and rhythm, e. g., "To succeed, you must work hard, practice diligently, and stay focused. "
3. Rhetorical Questions: Asking questions not for information but for effect, e. g., "Are we not all humans?"
4. Antithesis: Contrasting ideas within a sentence for emphasis, e. g., "To err is human; to forgive, divine. "

Rhetorical devices are commonly used in persuasive writing and public speaking to engage the audience and make a compelling argument (Kennedy and Gioia, 2016).

7. 5 Sentence Clarity and Correctness

A. Avoiding Common Sentence Errors

To ensure sentence clarity and correctness, it's crucial to avoid common sentence errors such as run-on sentences, sentence fragments, and comma splices. Run-on sentences occur when two independent clauses are joined without appropriate punctuation or a coordinating conjunction. Sentence fragments are incomplete thoughts that lack either a subject or a predicate. Comma splices happen when two independent clauses are incorrectly separated by a comma. Correcting these errors enhances the readability and clarity of your writing.

B. Subject-Verb Agreement

Subject-verb agreement is essential for sentence correctness. It means that the subject and the verb in a sentence must agree in number. Singular subjects take singular verbs, and plural subjects take plural verbs. For example:

Correct: "The cat (singular subject) is (singular verb) sleeping. "

Correct: "The cats (plural subject) are (plural verb) sleeping. "

Maintaining subject-verb agreement ensures that your sentences are grammatically correct(Huddleston & Pullum, 2002).

C. Pronoun-Antecedent Agreement

Pronoun-antecedent agreement is crucial to avoid confusion in your writing. Pronouns (like he, she, it, they) must agree in number and gender with their antecedents (the nouns they replace). For example:

Correct: "John (antecedent) said he (pronoun) will attend the meeting. "

Correct: "The students (antecedent) completed their (pronoun) assignments. "

Ensuring pronoun-antecedent agreement helps maintain clarity and correctness in sentences (Hacker and Sommers, 2020).

D. Dangling and Misplaced Modifiers

Dangling and misplaced modifiers can lead to unclear or humorous sentences. Dangling modifiers are modifiers that don't have a clear noun to modify. Misplaced modifiers are in the wrong place in the sentence, leading to confusion. For example:

Dangling: "Running late, the bus was missed. " (Who was running late?)

Misplaced: "I found a \$100 bill for my brother in the drawer. " (Who is in the drawer?)

Correcting these errors is vital to convey the intended meaning accurately (Straus, 2014).

E. Parallelism in Sentences

Parallelism involves using the same grammatical structure for items in a series or in comparisons. Consistent parallelism improves sentence clarity and readability. For example:

Parallel: "She likes hiking, swimming, and running. "

Non-parallel: "She likes hiking, to swim, and running. "

Parallelism helps readers understand relationships between elements in a sentence (Williams, 2017).

F. Proofreading and Editing Tips

Proofreading and editing are essential steps in ensuring sentence clarity and correctness. Effective proofreading involves checking for spelling, grammar, punctuation, and typographical errors. It also includes reviewing sentence structure and coherence. Reading your work aloud can help identify issues. Editing focuses on improving sentence clarity, organization, and flow. Peer review and professional editing services can provide valuable feedback.

Utilizing proofreading and editing techniques enhances the overall quality of your writing (Hacker and Sommers, 2020). By addressing these aspects of sentence clarity and correctness, you can significantly improve the quality and effectiveness of your written communication in English.

7. 6 Conclusion

In conclusion, a solid grasp of phrases and sentences is paramount to becoming a proficient communicator in English, whether in written or spoken form. These linguistic building blocks form the foundation upon which effective communication is built. From constructing clear and concise phrases to crafting engaging and varied sentences, each aspect contributes to your ability to convey thoughts, ideas, and emotions effectively. As you journey further in your pursuit of mastering phrases and sentences, remember that language is dynamic, and the more you practice, the more fluent and versatile you become. Embrace the beauty of language and the power it holds to connect with others, share knowledge, and express your creativity.

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BAB 8

SYNTAX

Oleh Yuliyannah Sain

English syntax refers to the rules and principles that govern the structure of sentences in the English language. It encompasses the arrangement of words, phrases, and clauses to form meaningful and grammatically correct sentences. Syntax involves various components, including word order, sentence structure, punctuation, and grammatical relationships between elements within a sentence (Carnie, 2013).

Here are some key aspects of English syntax:

1. **Word Order:** English generally follows a subject-verb-object (SVO) word order in declarative sentences. For example, "The cat (subject) chased (verb) the mouse (object)." However, word order can vary in different types of sentences and contexts.
2. **Sentence Structure:** English sentences can be simple, compound, complex, or compound-complex, depending on the number and type of clauses they contain. A simple sentence consists of one independent clause, while compound sentences contain two or more independent clauses joined by coordinating conjunctions. Complex sentences include one independent clause and at least one dependent clause, whereas compound-complex sentences contain multiple independent and dependent clauses.
3. **Phrase Structure:** Phrases are groups of words that function as a unit within a sentence. Common types of phrases include noun phrases, verb phrases, adjective

phrases, adverb phrases, and prepositional phrases. Each type of phrase serves a specific grammatical function within the sentence.

4. **Grammatical Relations:** English syntax establishes relationships between different elements within a sentence, such as subjects, verbs, objects, and modifiers. These relationships help convey meaning and structure in the language.
5. **Punctuation:** Punctuation marks, such as commas, periods, question marks, exclamation points, colons, and semicolons, play a crucial role in indicating sentence boundaries, clarifying meaning, and organizing information within a sentence.
6. **Agreement:** English syntax requires agreement between different elements of a sentence, such as subject-verb agreement, pronoun-antecedent agreement, and agreement between determiners and nouns.

Understanding English syntax is essential for constructing clear, coherent, and grammatically correct sentences, which is crucial for effective communication in both spoken and written language.

8. 1 Word Order

Word order in syntax refers to the arrangement of words within a sentence to convey meaning and grammatical structure in a language. Different languages have different word orders, and understanding word order is crucial for understanding the structure of sentences (Radford, 2009).

In English, the typical word order in declarative sentences is subject-verb-object (SVO). This means that the subject comes first, followed by the verb, and then the object. For example:

- **Subject (S):** The person or thing performing the action.
- **Verb (V):** The action or state of being.
- **Object (O):** The person or thing affected by the action.

Example:

- **Subject (S):** Mary
- **Verb (V):** ate
- **Object (O):** the apple

So, the word order in English for the sentence "Mary ate the apple" follows the SVO pattern.

However, there are exceptions and variations to this word order in English. For instance, questions often use an inverted word order where the auxiliary verb or modal verb precedes the subject. For example:

- **Auxiliary Verb (V):** Did
- **Subject (S):** you
- **Verb (V):** eat

So, the word order in the question "Did you eat?" is VSO.

Other languages may have different word orders. For example, Latin and Japanese have SOV (subject-object-verb) word order, while Arabic often uses VSO (verb-subject-object) word order.

Word order is a fundamental aspect of syntax as it helps determine the meaning and grammatical structure of sentences in a language.

8. 2 Sentence Structure

Sentence structure in syntax refers to the organization and arrangement of words, phrases, and clauses within a sentence to convey meaning and grammatical relationships. It involves understanding how different elements within a sentence are combined to form coherent and meaningful expressions.

In English syntax, sentences can have various structures (Ba'dulu, 2005) including:

1. **Simple Sentences:** A simple sentence consists of a single independent clause containing a subject and a predicate (verb), and it expresses a complete thought. For example:
 - "The cat sleeps."

2. **Compound Sentences:** Compound sentences contain two or more independent clauses that are joined together by coordinating conjunctions (such as "and," "but," "or," "for," "nor," "yet," "so"). For example:
 - "The cat slept, and the dog barked. "
3. **Complex Sentences:** Complex sentences contain one independent clause and at least one dependent clause, which cannot stand alone as a complete sentence. Dependent clauses are introduced by subordinating conjunctions (such as "because," "although," "if," "when," "while," "since"). For example:
 - "Although the cat slept, the dog barked. "
4. **Compound-Complex Sentences:** Compound-complex sentences contain two or more independent clauses and at least one dependent clause. They combine the features of both compound and complex sentences. For example:
 - "The cat slept while the dog barked, and the birds chirped. "

Sentence structure also involves the arrangement of phrases within a sentence. Phrases are groups of words that function as a unit but do not contain both a subject and a predicate. Common types of phrases include noun phrases, verb phrases, prepositional phrases, adverbial phrases, and adjective phrases.

Understanding sentence structure is essential for effective communication in both spoken and written language. It helps convey ideas clearly and ensures that sentences are grammatically correct and logically organized. By analyzing sentence structure, linguists and language learners can gain insights into the underlying rules and principles that govern language use.

8. 3 Phrase Structure

Phrase structure in syntax, also known as syntactic structure, provides a framework for understanding how words are organized within sentences. It involves the arrangement of words into hierarchical structures, where smaller units combine to form larger units based on specific rules. These rules govern the formation of phrases such as noun phrases (NP), verb phrases (VP), prepositional phrases (PP), and more. Syntax trees, represented through tree diagrams, visually depict this hierarchical organization (Chomsky, 1957). By analyzing phrase structure, linguists can better understand the grammatical relationships between words in a sentence, aiding in the comprehension and analysis of language.

The elements of phrase structure refer to the components that make up the hierarchical organization of a sentence. These elements include:

1. **Words:** The basic units of language that carry meaning and serve as the building blocks of phrases.
2. **Phrases:** Groups of words that function as single units within a sentence. Phrases can be categorized into different types such as noun phrases (NP), verb phrases (VP), prepositional phrases (PP), adjective phrases (AdjP), and adverb phrases (AdvP).
3. **Heads:** The central elements within phrases that determine the syntactic category and often the semantic content of the phrase. For example, in a noun phrase, the head is typically a noun (e. g., "the cat").
4. **Modifiers:** Words or phrases that provide additional information about the head of a phrase. Modifiers can include determiners, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, and other elements that alter or specify the meaning of the head.
5. **Complements:** Words or phrases that are required by certain heads to complete their meaning. Complements are necessary for the grammatical completeness of the phrase and typically follow the head.

By understanding and analyzing the interactions between these elements, linguists can construct syntactic trees to represent the hierarchical structure of sentences and gain insights into the underlying grammar of a language.

8. 4 Grammatical Relation

Grammatical relations in syntax refer to the ways in which words and phrases within a sentence relate to each other grammatically. These relations help determine the roles that different elements play in constructing meaning within a sentence (Adger, 2003). Some common grammatical relations include:

1. **Subject:** The subject of a sentence typically performs the action expressed by the verb or is the entity about which something is stated. For example, in the sentence "The cat is sleeping," "The cat" is the subject.
2. **Object:** The object of a verb receives the action expressed by the verb or is affected by it. There are two types of objects: direct objects, which directly receive the action of the verb, and indirect objects, which receive the action indirectly. In the sentence "She gave him a book," "him" is the indirect object and "a book" is the direct object.
3. **Predicate:** The predicate is the part of a sentence that contains the verb and provides information about the subject. It typically includes the verb and any additional words or phrases that modify or complete its meaning. In the sentence "The dog is barking loudly," "is barking loudly" is the predicate.
4. **Modifier:** Modifiers are words or phrases that provide additional information about other elements in the sentence, such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, or adverbs. They can include adjectives, adverbs, prepositional phrases, and relative clauses. For example, in the phrase "The big brown dog," both "big" and "brown" are modifiers of the noun "dog."

5. **Complement:** Complements are words or phrases that are required to complete the meaning of certain verbs or other elements in a sentence. They are necessary for the sentence to be grammatically complete. For example, in the sentence "She is a doctor," "a doctor" is the complement of the verb "is."

Understanding the grammatical relations within a sentence is essential for analyzing its structure and meaning in syntax.

8. 5 Punctuation

Punctuation in syntax serves several important functions in written language (Huddleston, 2002):

1. **Separation:** Punctuation marks such as commas, semicolons, and colons are used to separate different elements within a sentence, such as clauses, phrases, or items in a list. For example, "She went to the store, bought some groceries, and returned home."
2. **Clarity:** Punctuation helps clarify the structure and meaning of sentences by indicating pauses, breaks, or the relationship between words and phrases. For instance, the use of parentheses or dashes can set off additional information or explanations within a sentence: "The cat (which was black) sat on the windowsill."
3. **Emphasis:** Punctuation can also be used to emphasize certain words or phrases within a sentence. For example, using exclamation points or italics can convey excitement or emphasis: "I can't believe it!"
4. **Conventions:** Punctuation follows standardized conventions that help readers understand the intended meaning of a sentence. For instance, periods signal the end of a sentence, question marks indicate a question, and quotation marks denote direct speech or quotations.
5. **Sentence Boundary:** Punctuation marks such as periods, question marks, and exclamation points indicate the boundaries of sentences, helping to distinguish between different ideas or statements.

Overall, punctuation in syntax plays a crucial role in conveying meaning, structure, and clarity in written language.

8. 6 Agreement

Agreement in syntax refers to the grammatical correspondence between different elements within a sentence. This correspondence typically involves ensuring that certain features, such as number, person, gender, or case, match between related words or phrases (Sag, 2002). Agreement helps to maintain clarity and grammatical correctness in a sentence.

Here are some common types of agreement:

1. **Subject-Verb Agreement:** This type of agreement requires that the verb form in a sentence agrees with the number (singular or plural) of the subject. For example, "The cat is sleeping" (singular subject with singular verb) and "The cats are sleeping" (plural subject with plural verb).
2. **Pronoun-Antecedent Agreement:** Pronouns must agree with their antecedents (the nouns they replace) in number, gender, and person. For instance, "He loves his job" (singular antecedent "he" with singular pronoun "his") and "They love their jobs" (plural antecedent "they" with plural pronoun "their").
3. **Adjective-Noun Agreement:** Adjectives must agree with the nouns they modify in terms of number and sometimes gender. For example, "The green apples" (plural noun "apples" with plural adjective "green") and "The tall man" (singular noun "man" with singular adjective "tall").
4. **Determiner-Noun Agreement:** Determiners (articles, demonstratives, possessives) must agree with the nouns they determine in terms of number and sometimes gender. For example, "A cat is sleeping" (singular determiner "a" with singular noun "cat") and "Those cats are sleeping" (plural determiner "those" with plural noun "cats").
5. **Verb-Complement Agreement:** Verbs must agree with their complements in terms of person, number, and sometimes gender. For example, "She is my best friend"

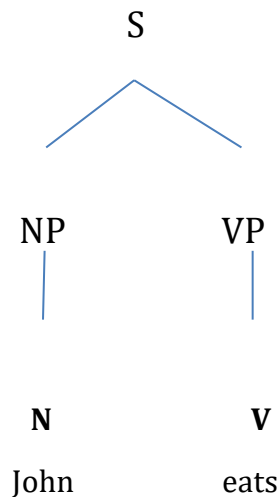
(singular subject "She" with singular complement "friend") and "They are my best friends" (plural subject "They" with plural complement "friends").

Ensuring agreement in syntax is essential for maintaining grammatical correctness and clarity in language usage.

8. 7 Tree Diagram

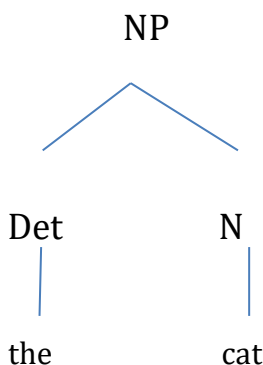
In phrase structure grammar, tree diagrams represent the hierarchical structure of sentences according to phrase structure rules. These rules govern how constituents combine to form phrases within a sentence (Chomsky, 1957). Here are some common phrase structure rules typically represented in tree diagrams:

1. **$S \rightarrow NP VP$** : This rule indicates that a sentence (S) consists of a noun phrase (NP) followed by a verb phrase (VP). For example:

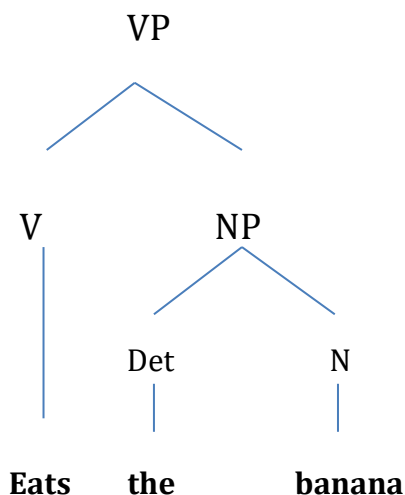


2. **$NP \rightarrow Det Adj N PP$** : This rule describes the structure of a noun phrase, which may consist of an optional determiner

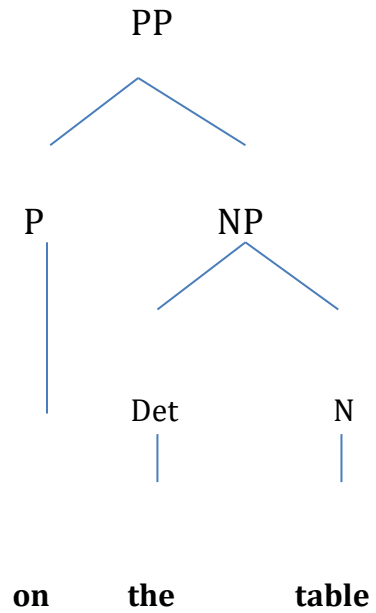
(Det), followed by optional adjective (Adj) then a noun (N) and optionally prepositional phrase (PP). For example:



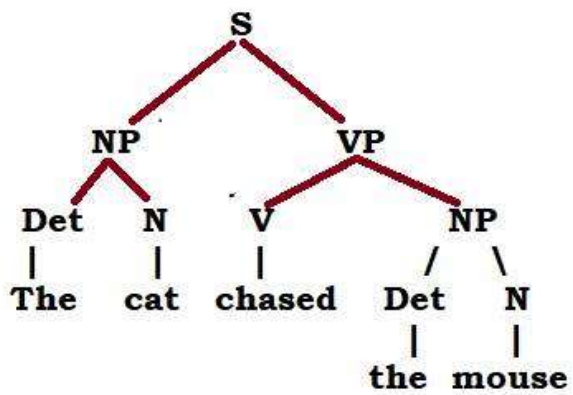
3. **VP → V NP PP:** This rule specifies the structure of a verb phrase, which includes a verb (V) optionally followed by a noun phrase (NP) and/or a prepositional phrase (PP). For example:

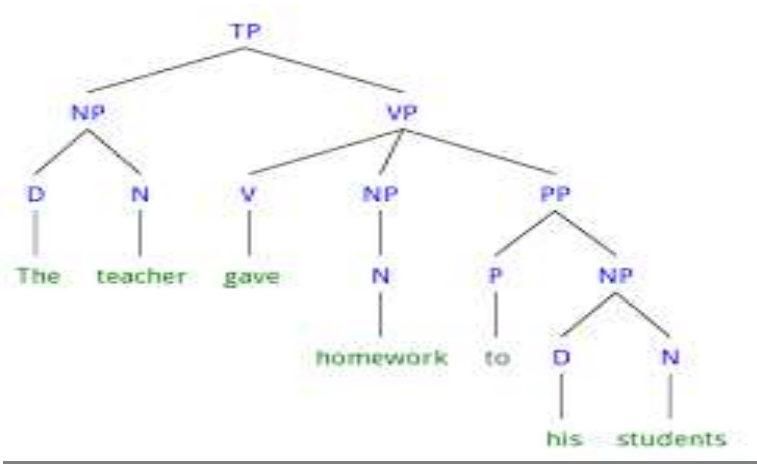
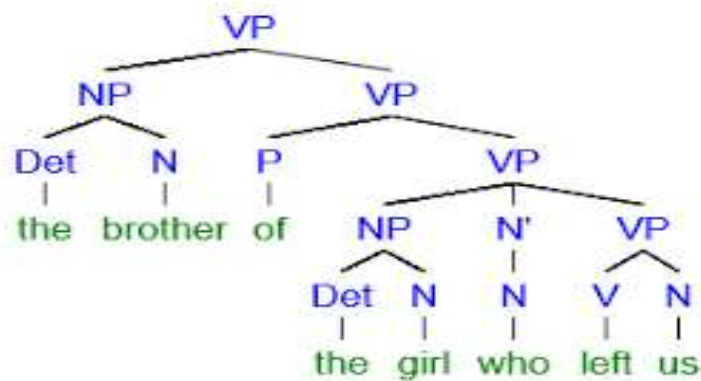
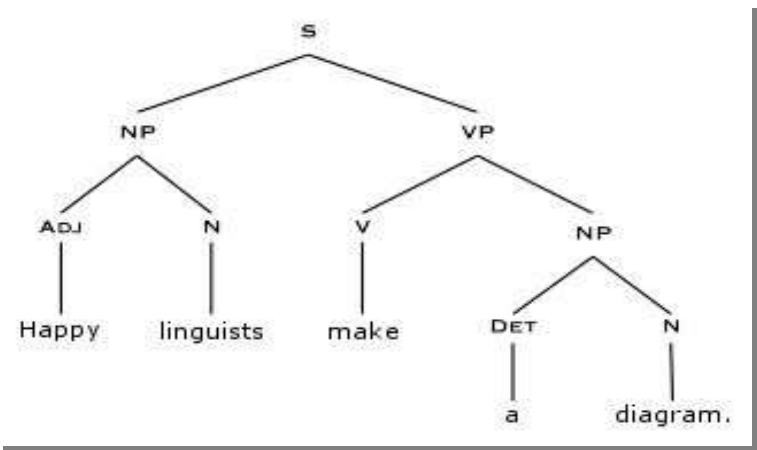


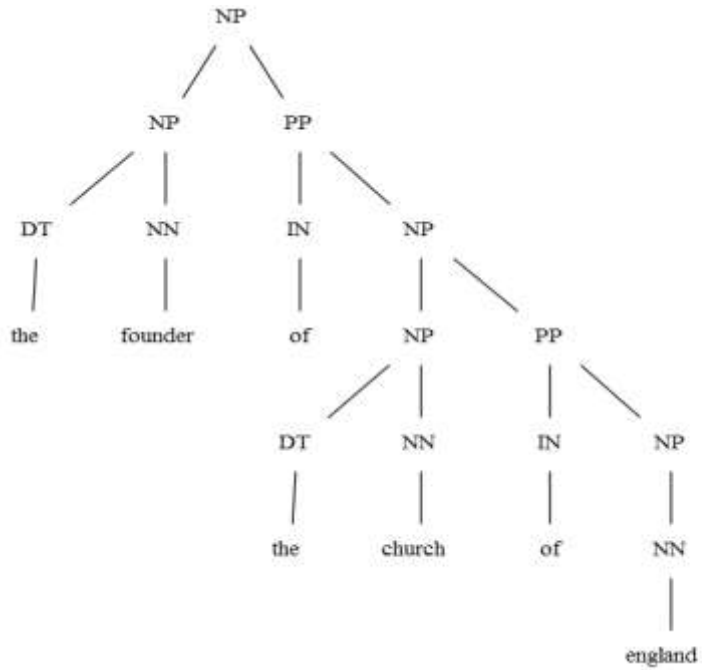
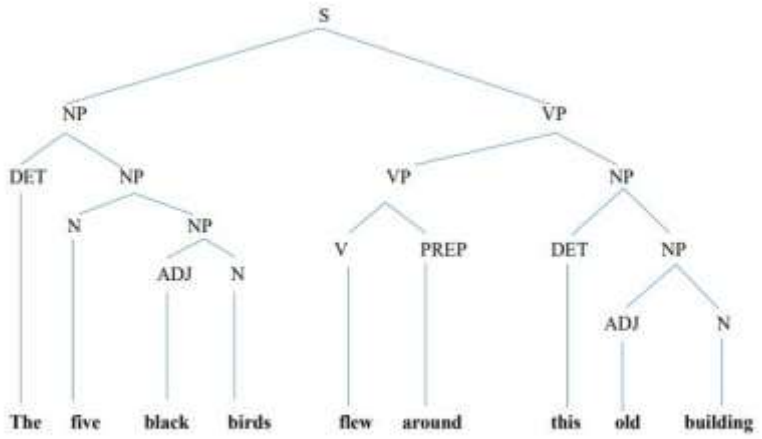
4. **PP → P NP:** This rule represents the structure of prepositional phrase, consisting of a preposition (P) followed by a noun phrase (NP). For example:

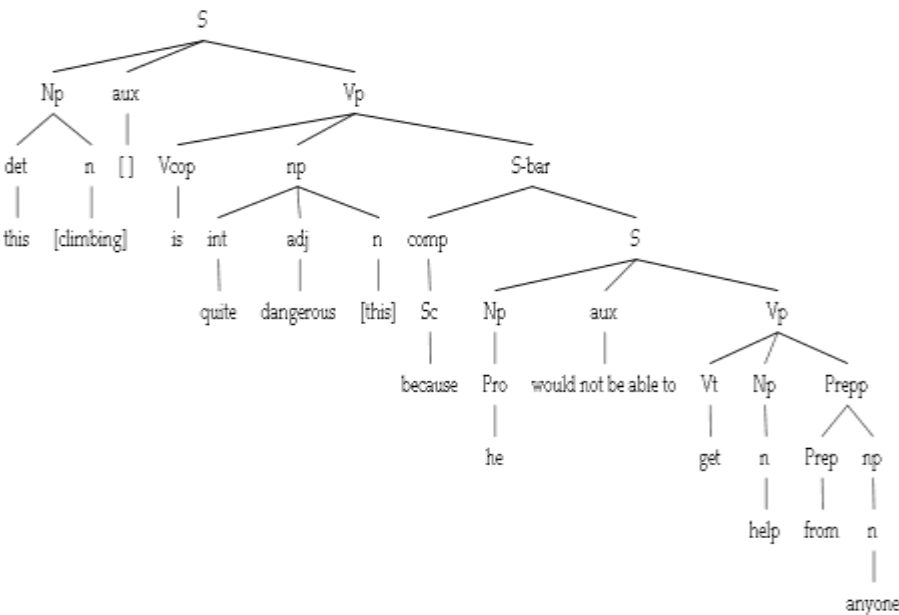
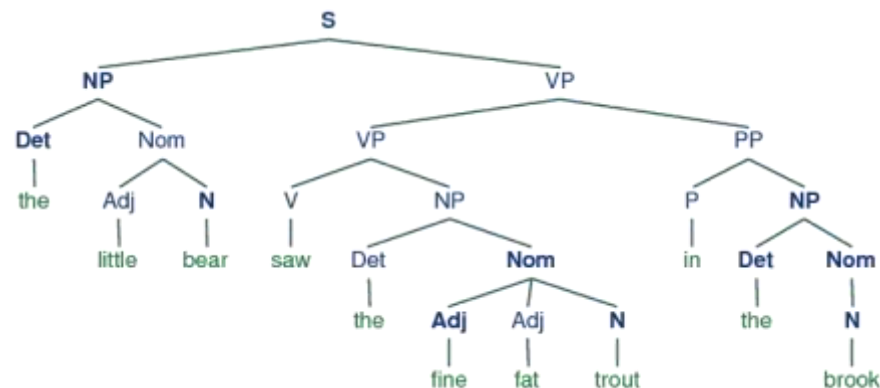


Others Examples:









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BAB 9

SEMANTICS AND PRAGMATICS

Oleh Ulfah Syam

9. 1 Definition of Semantics

We understand that language is used to express meaning that can be understood by others. In linguistics, we know that one branch of study that discusses meaning in language is Semantics and Pragmatics. That is in line to statement of Keith D. Foote (2016). He said that Semantics is the study of language and its meaning.

The word of Semantics is from Greek, *semanticos*, which mean as giving signs or symbols. Lepore (2009), the philosophical and scientific study of meaning in natural and artificial languages stated that Semantics is called semiotics, semology, or semasiology. Semantics tends to emphasis on the meaning of a text. The term of semantics has been used by H. G Wells in Palmer (1976) in the shape of things to come speaks of the sentences of signifies, but he says that it was lost sight of and not revived until twenty first century.

In 1883, Michel Breal, French philologist was first used semantics as a word, He said that because of the experiential and emotional backgrounds, Semantics can be used to illustrate how words can have different meanings to others.

Semantics as a term, often interpreted as studies of meaning. It is more appropriate to talk about the relationship between meaning and linguistics. This relationship is clearly regulated by rules for example Every day people produce new and unique sentences. This is impossible to believe that speakers can memorize every possible sentence of a language and the hearer can understand everything for the first time. In

contrary, language of learners get vocabulary and set of the rules for arrange the vocabulary items into good sentences (syntax)

Logically, language learners need a set of rules for understanding the expression formed and the meaning of vocabulary when they are combined. All those items have to be shared by speech act community so the linguistic of communication can be occur.

When studying semantics, the leaners try to undertand what the speaker wants to say by understanding the rule correctly or in the other words, the meaning that attached to word and sentences is called semantic, while the aspect meaning based on the originate form, the way words and sentences are used is called pragmatics.

Both of, Semantics and pragmatics interact in many ways. The differentiate between them is can be seen from their useful and their important. but the precise dividing line between the two is not easy to draw and continues to be the subject of discussion and controversy. complex ways..

The distinction between them is useful and important, but the exact dividing line between the two is not easy to draw and continues to be a matter of considerable discussion and controversy.

9. 2 Levels Meaning In Semantics

Semantics seeks to unravel the mysteries behind how we derive meaning from words, sentences, the intentions of speakers and the conception of the hearers. In this session, we try to explore the intricate web of language and meaning, focusing on four distinct levels: word meaning, sentence meaning, speaker's meaning and hearer's meaning.

a. Word Meaning

Word meaning is the meaning of individual words. It is determined by the word's dictionary definition, as well as its usage in different contexts.

For example, the word "dog" can refer to "a common animal with four legs, especially kept by people as a pet or to hunt or guard things. " Also at this level, we can talk about the lexical relations such as (big/large= synonyms/ tall/short= antonyms etc.)

b. Sentence Meaning

Sentence meaning is the meaning of a complete sentence. It is determined by the meanings of the individual words in the sentence, as well as the way in which they are combined. For example, the sentence "The dog ate the bone" has a different meaning from the sentence "The bone ate the dog. " It is the meaning conveyed by the sentence as it neutrally stands. It is the literal meaning of the sentence.

c. Speaker's Meaning

Speaker's meaning is the meaning that the speaker intends to convey by an utterance. It can be different from the sentence meaning, depending on the context and the speaker's intentions. It goes beyond the literal interpretation of words to consider what the speaker wants to convey, which may include indirect speech acts, irony, sarcasm, or pragmatics. For example, the speaker might say "It's raining cats and dogs" to simply mean that "it's raining heavily. "

d. Hearer's meaning

Hearer's meaning is the meaning that the hearer actually understands from an utterance. The intended meaning can differ from the speaker. It depends on the hearer's background knowledge and the utterance interpretation, for example, if someone says, "Can you pass me the salt?" during eating, the hearer's meaning is to hand over the salt because it's a common request, not to question the hearer's ability to provide salt.

Another example:

A: Have you swept the yard and watered the plants?

B: I've swept the yard.

Based on the previous dialog Speaker B meant to say that she didn't watered the plants, but she didn't say that explicitly. However, Speaker A understood that she didn't watered the plants although Speaker B didn't say that.

9. 3 Semantic Expressions: Utterances, Sentences and Propositions

The distinction among utterances, sentences, and propositions is a crucial in semantics because it allows us to talk about the different levels of meaning that are involved in language. In this part, we'll elaborate the key differences among them and provide adequate examples that make things clear enough.

a. Utterances

According to Hurford, et. al (2007), an utterance is a series of conversations, carried out by one person, before and after which there is silence on the part of that person.

Using of language by a particular speaker, on a particular occasion is called utterance, for example a series of sentences, or a single phrase, or even a single word. There are some features of utterance, namely :

- a. An act of uttering by a person at a specific time, location and event.
- b. It is based on saying something, not writing it.
- c. It can be of any length. (See examples 1-5 below)
- d. It should be a piece of the language. (" Fambulantex" is not)
- e. There should be pauses/ or silence between utterances.
- f. No need to be grammatical. e. g. " Ouch!". It has no grammar.
- g. A physical / concrete event.

Examples of Utterances

1. Wow!
2. Yes.
3. Your book
4. I love my mother.
5. It's nice to meet you.

b. Sentences

A string of words called sentences. A given sentence always consists of the same words and same order. In order to make a different sentences we need any change in the words for example:

Rita took off her shoes.

Rita took off her shoes. } same sentence

Rita took off her shoes.

Rita took her shoes off. } Different sentences

- a. I need a glass of milk (a sentence)
- b. Coffee, please! (Not a sentence)
- c. in the cafeteria (Not a sentence)

Sentence Features

- a. The information can be written or spoken.
- b. It can be grammatically correct or incorrect

Examples:

- I love my father. (correct)
- Me love my father. (incorrect) X
- c. It must express a partial/ complete thought.

Example:

- I love my father. (expressing the thought of “ love”)
- d. It is not something physical
- e. It is not tied to a particular time, place, speaker or hearer.

Examples

- On April. 23, 2024, in my office, I said, “ I will solve the problem tomorrow. ”
- What is tomorrow in this sentence? April 24, 2024
- On Oct. 15, 2024, in Ali’s office, I said, “ I will solve the problem tomorrow. ”
- What is tomorrow in this sentence? Oct. 16, 2024

c. Propositions

A proposition is an idea in the mind. Propositions, sentences and utterances go as follows:

- First, we think of an idea. (a proposition)
- Second, we form a sentence in our minds. (a sentence)
- Finally, we change the sentence into an utterance by uttering/ it. (an utterance)

Proposition Features

The proposition may be true or false.

- If it matches reality, it is a true proposition

Example: The earth is spherical. (a true proposition)

- If it doesn’t match reality, it is false

Example: The earth is flat. (a false proposition)

- The proposition can be expressed by using different sentences with the same meaning. (KILLING Proposition)
- All the sentences above have the same meaning.
 - a. Susi fed Ayu
 - b. Susi caused Ayu to eat.
 - c. Ayu was fed by Susi.
- The proposition is something abstract and it emphasizes one concept (idea) that can be expressed universally by any language regardless of grammar. It cares for the core essential meaning. The same idea can be expressed in English, German, French, Chinese etc.

9. 4. Semantic Roles

In linguistics we know there is a fundamental concept. It is called semantics roles (thematic roles or theta roles). Every sentence consists of different units.

Words can not only be applied as receptacles of meaning, or as filling roles in an event, words can also have a "relationship" each other. There are some common semantics roles will be explained here, they are:

- | | |
|--------------------|----------------------|
| a) Agent | f) Recipient |
| b) Theme (Patient) | g) Locative/Location |
| c) Experiencer | h) Temporal/Time |
| d) Instrument | i) Source |
| e) Benefactive | j) Goal |

a. Agent

The entity (somebody/ something) that performs an action is called agent. For example:

(a) The man caught the ball.

(b) The wind blew the paper away

(c) A car ran over the power pole

(d) The dog caught the shoe.

Agents can be human (The man) as in (a), they can also non-human entities that cause actions, as a natural, force as in (b) (The wind), a machine as in (c) (A car), or an animal as in (d) (The dog).

b. Theme (Patient)

The entity involved in or it affected by the action is called theme or patient.

In previous example; the ball, the paper, the power pole, and the shoe were the entity that were affected by the action. Therefore, they are the theme (patient)

However, the theme can also be an entity that are being described; not performing an action.

(a) My house is red

(*theme*)

(b) Abdullah is handsome

(*theme*)

c. Experiencer

The entity (person) who express a feeling, perception, or state is called experiencer, for example:

(a) Andika feels sad. (feeling)

(b) Yunita heard some noise inside. (perception)

(c) Fahmi is standing on the table. (physical state)

(d) Yuli is thinking about the issue. (mental state)

d. Instrument

The entity to perform an action is called instrument, for example:

(a) The boy opened the door with the key.

(b) My mother cut the cake with a knife.

e. Benefactive

The entity that benefits from the action of the verb is called benefactive, for example:

- (a) I bought a flower for **my mother**.
- (b) He bought the car for **his son**

f. Recipient

The entity that physically receives something from the agent. In the example below, the benefactive and the recipient can be different entities, for example:

Alisa bought a flower for her **friend's sister**.

Benefactive: my friend's sister (It was the sister who benefited from the flower)

Recipient: my friend (It was my friend who received the flower)

g. Locative/ Location

The place where the action takes place. Is called locative/location, for example:

- (a) Sinta is ***at the hospital***
- (b) The bag is ***under the chair***
- (c) Tono is ***in Thailand***

h. Temporal/ Time

When an event or action takes place is called temporal/time, for example:

- (a) She has a meeting ***on Monday morning***.
- (b) Susan will go skiing ***in the morning***.
- (c) Bayu went home ***at 4 p. m.***

i. Source

The entity from which something moves or originates is called source, for example:

- (a) She comes ***from Palembang***.
- (b) Rina will arrive ***from Singapore***.

j. Goal

The entity towards which something moves or is directed called goal, for example:

(a) Sulastri is walking to campus.

(b) Rudi and Baso are driving *to the beach*.

Another examples:

(1) She made tea for her mother
 agent *theme* *benefactive*

(2) Fitrah wrote a poem with a pen
 agent *theme* *instrument*

(3) Wati leaves at 8 p. m.
 agent *temporal*

(4) Sultan borrowed the car from Raffi.
 agent *theme* *source*

(5) Jelita saw a cat under the table
 experiencer *theme* *location*

9. 5 Sense and Reference

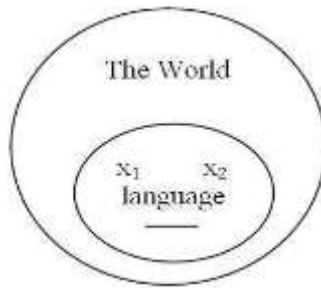
There are two principle concepts used in semantics, namely sense and reference.

Gottlob Frege, An innovative German philosopher and mathematician (1952) translated into English "On Sense and Reference" which is still widely ready today, stated that reference and sense are two different aspect of the meaning of linguistic expression:

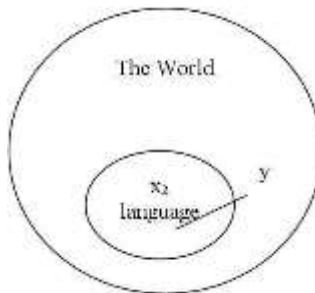
- a. Reference is an object that an expression refers to. In other words it is part of the meaning. for example: a dog.
- b. Sense is cognitive significance of an expression or idea, for example, the word of "dog". It refers to the amount of information provided about an object or the way we perceive an object.

Whereas, sense talked about the relationships inside of the language between one linguistic element to other linguistic elements. Sukemi (2000) stated that sense deals only with intralinguistic relations. These intralinguistic relationships can be depicted in the following diagram:

According to Hurford (1990) stated that in a sentence, there are intra-linguistic relations between one word and other words or between one phrase with other phrases. Those relationships are called sense relationships.



This kind of relationship between parts of a language and things outside that language, can be depicted in the following diagram



There are some cases expressions everyday conversation that never refers to different things such as the sun, the president, the blackboard, and our solar system.

Meanwhile, the expression of morning star and evening star, husband and wife and also water and H_2O are two

different expression that can have the same reference. In a system of semantic relationship with other expressions in the language are called sense of an expression.

9. 6 Definition of Pragmatics

When we talk about pragmatics, it focuses not only on what people say but also how they say it and how others interpret their words in a social context. Sometimes the hearer or addressee is difficult to understand about what the speaker says about whom, when, and where or in other words it is closely related to human interaction where we study of meaning as communicated by a speaker or writer and interpreted by a listener or reader.

Yule (1996) stated that Pragmatics is the study of contextual meaning. This study necessarily involves interpreting what people mean in a particular context and how that context influences what is said. The Context has such a big influence to transfer its meaning to the listener. Both parties can understand each other's intentions if the different context must be known before the speaker speaks to the listener.

So it can be concluded from Yule's statement that there are four areas of pragmatics namely it is the study of speaker meaning, the study of contextual meaning, the study of how to get more communicated than it is said and the study of relative distance expressions

According to Leech (1983), Pragmatics is how language is used in communication which it is used the meaning of utterances in conversation. The speaker and listener must understand the meaning and the context in utterances in order to reach the understanding in conversation. So pragmatics can be say that it studies how people comprehend and produce a communicative act or speech act in a concrete speech situation.

Meanwhile, Levinson (1993) stated that Pragmatics is the study of language usage in a traditional sense which related to

the meaning in every part of speech which also discusses in syntax and semantics.

Based on the previous definitions, it can be summarized that pragmatics is the study of language or utterance meaning influenced by the context. It emphasizes on the relation of language meaning in the context. Studying pragmatics cannot be separated by the context because without understanding the situation the meaning cannot be reached.

9. 7 Context Meaning

Contexts related to one's individual knowledge and experience or in other words it is based on the knowledge of the world. Cook (2003) stated that Thus, the pragmatic meaning of the same utterance may be interpreted differently by different addressees. In the pragmatic perspective, context is classified into two, namely static and dynamic context

Dey (2017), states that contexts involve any types of information to be used to characterize an entity. The entity can be a person, place, or object taken as relevant to the interaction between users and applications, including the users and the applications themselves.

For example: If someone ask you, "What do you want to eat?" and your respon is, "Ice cream is good this time of year".

Explicitely, listener did not say what they wanted to eat but it implies that they want to eat ice cream.

The listener will find difficulty to understand or interpret the meaning of the speaker's utterance without context and the communication between the speaker and the listener will fail and will not get its purpose. Perhaps, listener will confused or misunderstand of the speaker's intention and absolutely it effects to the next conversation or action.

9. 8 Deixis

Deixis directly concerns to the relationship between the structure of languages and the contexts in which they are used and it belongs to the domain of pragmatics.

The terms of deictic are a subcategory of definite referential expressions. It describes a referential expression that refers to the speaker's location as the reference point or deictic center, for example: "Can you pass that newspaper?", the specified newspaper is usually located quite far from the speaker. However, when the speaker obtains the newspaper, other references to the newspaper, it will involve different deictic elements for example: "I should stop buying this newspaper. " Such changes are characteristic of deictic expressions.

Lyons (1997) stated that through deixis, we can obvious to reflect the relationship between structure of languages and contexts. By adding a contextual information, deixis can be fully understood

To identify deixis (Dylgjeri & Kazazi, 2013) stated that, three types of deixis, they are: Person deixis: personal deixi is used to point to objects as this,that these, and those (demonstratives) and people(her, him, them, me(pronouns), Spatial deixis, which is used to point to a location (here,or there,) and temporal deixis,which is used to point to a time (now, then, next week, last month).

9. 8. 1 Types of Deixis

There are 3 types of deixis, they are:

1)Person deixis

Li (2009) stated that an important component of pragmatics is deixis. In conversation, the recipient as the address, the recipient and the third are party involved in it, the person deixis includes of social status, interpersonal relationships and other factors of the conversation.

Eragbe et al. (2015) stated that “Person deixis are the personal pronouns such as the first, second and third used as a means of locating the referents in relations to the events taking place in the discourse. The texts subjected to analysis exhibited the use of person deixis for locating the insurgents and their victims in discourse. The excerpt below shows some examples. ” “We are extremely concerned about the humanitarian situation, as several thousand people are at present without any assistance.”

- a. *I* don't believe *I* can win.
- b. *You* can win the competition
- c. I tell *her* my problem

2) Spatial deixis

Vaysi & Salehnejad (2016) said that spatial deixis is used to select a location relative to the speaker or recipient's location. In addition, Saeed in (Vaysi & Salehnejad, 2016) said that “systems of spatial deixis are also used in other domains. For example they are often used as a form of orientation within a discourse, in what we could therefore call 'discourse' or 'textual deixis', as when we say:”

- a. The woman over *here*
- b. *This* year is warmer than that one is.
- c. *That* handphone is mine

3) Temporal deixis

Dylgjeri & Kazazi (2013) stated that time or temporal deixis is a reference for time relative to a temporal reference point when the utterance is speaking or written.

It shows the orientation or position of actions and events in time. Temporal deixis can be marked through tense, which is encoded in form verbs with affixes or

expressed in independent morphemes. (Vaysi & Salehnejad, 2016)

In addition, Yule (1996) states that “temporal reference forms such as yesterday, tomorrow, today, tonight, next week, last week, this week are learned much more slowly than deictic expressions.

So, it's a good idea to know the relevant timing of the utterances spoken, for example:

- a. They will see me *tonight*.
- b. She phoned me *yesterday*
- c. *Last week*, I received the information.

9. 9 Speech Act

Through communication, the human life can exchanges of ideas among people. It will directly contribute to develop the quality of life itself. It can be delivered through verbal and nonverbal communication. This is in accordance with opinion of. Buck (2002) stated that in communication, there are two types to send messages, namely verbal and non-verbal.

People use words to send communication message, especially the way of verbal communication while people use body language, gesture, eye contact, body movements, facial expression, or general appearances as the communication of nonverbal. It's is the way of communicating the messages.

According to Bach (1979), an action in verbal communication has message itself, so it is not only about language but also action. A speech act often take place as communication.

Austin (1962) stated “the utterances that is what the people say are almost equivalent to their actions” whereas Searle (1969) proposed "the speech act is the basic unit of

communication. " It is related to what people "do" with words and emphasizing on language function.

It is concerned with what people "do" with words, emphasizing the function of language. A person can perform three actions, namely locutionary acts, illocutionary acts, and perlocutionary acts simultaneously. They can mean doing something and concludes that in uttering. These three speech acts will be explained one by one.

a. Locutionary Act

According to Austin (1962) locutionary act means "the utterance of certain noises or certain words construction. " In other words, an act of producing a meaningful linguistic expression. In a simple way, locutionary act is what a speaker say, for example:

"I'd like to order a cup of coffee"

(speaker wants to order a cup of coffee is the locutionary act)

b. Illocutionary Act

The definition of illocutionary act can derived from Searle (2005). He stated that Illocutionary act is also known as the illocutionary force of an utterance.

Making an utterance is an action that is seen in terms of the meaning of the utterance in a conventional social interaction system such as requesting, giving help, expressing dislike, guessing, showing confuse, expressing angry, disbelieving, asserting, giving clarification, refusing, showing curiosity, showing bored, showing worried, suggesting, admitting, and commanding. So can be concluded that illocutionary act confirmed by social conventions act, for example.

"I'm very grateful to you for all you have done for me",

(the speaker performs of thanking is the illocutionary act)

c. Perlocutionary Act

Austin (1962) said that illocutionary and perlocutionary act considered to do things, but Perlocutionary act carried out by a speaker causes the action to cause or cause consequences for the speaker and other people.

The different between illocutionary act and Perlocutionary are Illocutionary acts are linguistic acts carried out in saying certain words in a certain context, while perlocutionary acts are non-linguistic acts carried out as a result of carrying out these locutionary and illocutionary acts. for example:

"There is a hornet in your left ear"

(After hearing the utterance, maybe the hearer's action maybe panic, scream, and directly scratch wildly at the ear.) These emotions and actions is the perlocution of the utterance.

9. 10 Conclusion

Semantics is one of the main branches of *pure* linguistic study and focus its analysis on textual meaning. Pragmatics is study of contextual meaning as intended by the speaker, but both of them concerned to analysis of language meaning.

Semantics emphasis on the meaning of a text and pragmatics emphasis on the meaning oft he context. Both of them is important branches of linguistics that look at meaning within language.

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BAB 10

LANGUAGE AND BRAIN

Oleh Bahar Setiawan

10. 1 Introduction

Research on the relationship between language and the brain has been a subject of interest in the field of cognitive neuroscience over the past few decades. Language is one of the most complex and important cognitive abilities for humans, and understanding how the brain manages and processes language has been a major focus of researchers. In the context of learning, an understanding of the interaction between language and the brain has significant implications, as it can aid in the development of more effective and efficient teaching methods. This article will discuss important aspects of the relationship between language and the brain in the context of learning, including a basic understanding of how the brain processes language, the impact of language learning on the brain, as well as the implications of this research in the development of better teaching strategies.

By understanding the relationship between language and the brain in the context of learning, we need to understand the basic cognitive processes involved in language comprehension and production. The human brain has a very complex system involved in processing language, including areas such as Broca's area and Wernicke's area located in the cortex of the brain. Broca's area is involved in language production, while Wernicke's area is involved in language comprehension. In

addition, there is an extensive network of neurons involved in language processing, including areas connected to auditory, visual and motor perception.

Cognitive neuroscience research has revealed that language significantly affects brain structure and function. A number of functional neuroimaging (fMRI) studies have shown that learning a new language or becoming bilingual can lead to structural and functional changes in the brain. For example, studies have found that people who are bilingual have greater cortex thickness in some brain areas associated with language processing compared to people who speak only one language. This suggests that language learning affects the physical structure of the brain and might increase overall cognitive capacity.

In addition to structural changes, language learning has also been shown to affect brain function. Several studies have found that strong language ability is linked to higher activity in areas of the brain involved in language processing. Furthermore, language learning has also been linked to improvements in broader cognitive abilities, such as problem-solving ability, memory, and problem-solving skills.

However, it is important to remember that the relationship between language and the brain is a complex and mutually influencing one. This means that not only does language learning affect the brain, but also the brain affects the way we learn language. Each individual has unique abilities and potential in learning and processing language, which is influenced by factors such as genetics, environment and previous learning experiences.

The implications of research into the relationship between language and the brain in the context of learning are significant. One implication is that language teaching methods can be designed to capitalise on our understanding of how the brain processes language. For example, the use of brain-based learning techniques, such as the use of pictures, songs and

stories, can help facilitate better language comprehension and retention.

In addition, research on brain neuroplasticity has shown that the brain can adapt and develop throughout life, which means that language learning is not limited to early developmental periods alone. This means that contextualised, interactive and student-centred approaches to language learning can help facilitate a more effective learning process.

Furthermore, an understanding of the relationship between language and the brain can also help identify more effective learning strategies for individuals who have language learning difficulties, such as individuals with language impairment or dyslexia. By understanding how the brain processes language and what factors can affect the learning process, educators can develop more effective intervention programmes to help these individuals reach their learning potential.

In developing effective language teaching strategies, it is important to integrate an interdisciplinary approach that includes knowledge of linguistics, cognitive psychology and neuroscience. By integrating the understanding of language, cognition and the brain, educators can design learning programmes that are more holistic and oriented towards student-centred learning. In an effort to develop more effective language teaching strategies, research on the relationship between language and the brain continues to be an important and interesting subject. By understanding how the brain processes language and how language learning affects brain structure and function, we can develop more innovative and learner-centred approaches to teaching language more effectively.

10. 2 The Relationship Between Language and Brain

The relationship between language and the brain is an interesting and complex subject in the field of cognitive neuroscience. Extensive research has been conducted to understand how the human brain processes, understands and produces language. The human brain has highly complex systems involved in language processing, and an understanding of the interaction between the brain and language has significant implications in a variety of fields, including education, psychology and language. One important aspect of understanding the relationship between language and the brain is an understanding of how the human brain processes language. This process involves several areas of the brain that are involved in language comprehension and production. One of the most important brain areas in language processing is Broca's area, which is located in the frontal part of the brain. This area is involved in language production and contributes to word selection, syntax and sentence structure. On the other hand, Wernicke's area, located in the temporal part of the brain, is involved in language comprehension. Wernicke's area allows us to recognise and understand words we hear or read, and associate them with meaning.

In addition to Broca's and Wernicke's areas, there is also an extensive network of neurons involved in language processing. These include areas connected to auditory, visual and motor perception. For example, areas of the brain connected to hearing are involved in sound processing and intonation, while areas connected to vision are involved in writing processing and letter recognition.

Functional neuroimaging (fMRI) research has provided valuable insights into how the brain processes language. These studies use brain imaging techniques to map brain activity as individuals perform language tasks. The results of these studies have shown that language processing involves different areas of the brain working together in a coordinated manner. In

addition, studies of the bilingual brain have shown that the human brain has a remarkable capacity to efficiently process and manage more than one language.

In addition to understanding how the brain processes language, it is also important to understand how language learning affects brain structure and function. Several studies have shown that learning a new language or becoming bilingual can lead to structural and functional changes in the brain. For example, studies using brain imaging techniques have shown that people who are bilingual have greater cortex thickness in some brain areas associated with language processing compared to people who speak only one language. This suggests that language learning affects the physical structure of the brain.

In addition to structural changes, language learning has also been shown to affect brain function. Several studies have found that strong language ability is linked to higher activity in areas of the brain involved in language processing. Furthermore, language learning has also been linked to improvements in broader cognitive abilities, such as problem-solving ability, memory and problem-solving skills.

However, it is important to remember that the relationship between language and the brain is a complex and mutually influencing one. This means that not only does language learning affect the brain, but also the brain affects the way we learn language. Each individual has unique abilities and potential in learning and processing language, which is influenced by factors such as genetics, environment and previous learning experiences.

The implications of research into the relationship between language and the brain are significant in the context of learning. An understanding of how the brain processes language can help in the development of more effective and efficient teaching methods. For example, brain-based learning approaches, such as the use of pictures, songs and stories, can help facilitate better language comprehension and retention. In addition, research on

brain neuroplasticity has shown that the brain can adapt and develop throughout life, which means that language learning is not limited to early developmental periods alone. This means that contextualised, interactive and student-centred approaches to language learning can help facilitate a more effective learning process.

The implications of research into the relationship between language and the brain can also help identify more effective learning strategies for individuals who have language learning difficulties, such as individuals with language impairment or dyslexia. By understanding how the brain processes language and what factors can influence the learning process, educators can develop more effective intervention programmes to help these individuals reach their learning potential.

In developing effective language teaching strategies, it is important to integrate an interdisciplinary approach that includes knowledge of linguistics, cognitive psychology and neuroscience. By integrating understandings of language, cognition and the brain, educators can design learning programmes that are more holistic and oriented towards student-centred learning.

10.3 The Brain's Role in Processing Language During Social Interactions

The role of the brain in processing language during social interactions is an important aspect of understanding human communication. The brain has an enormous role in interpreting and generating language, especially in the context of social interaction where verbal and non-verbal communication is key. In social situations, the brain works in a complex manner to process various aspects of language, from the comprehension of words to the interpretation of meaning and emotions contained in conversations.

Firstly, when a person is interacting socially, the brain rapidly processes information received through hearing, sight and even touch. When one hears words in a conversation, areas

of the brain involved in language processing, such as Broca's and Wernicke's areas, become active. Broca's area, located in the frontal area of the brain, plays a role in language production, while Wernicke's area, located in the temporal area, plays a role in language comprehension. When a person hears words, the brain processes the information and associates it with the appropriate meaning.

In addition to processing words, the brain also processes various other aspects of social communication, such as intonation, tone and facial expressions. For example, voice intonation can provide important clues about the meaning of what is being said. The human brain is highly sensitive to changes in voice intonation, and areas of the brain connected to hearing are involved in interpreting the tone of voice and the emotions contained in speech. In addition, facial expressions and body language also provide important clues about a person's feelings and intentions in communication. The brain has areas connected to vision and facial recognition that are involved in processing this information and connecting it with the right meaning.

During social interactions, the brain also works actively in monitoring responses and responding appropriately. For example, when someone speaks, the brain simultaneously processes what is being said and plans an appropriate response. This involves various cognitive aspects, including thinking, attention and memory. The brain has the ability to interpret the meaning of what is being heard, relate it to previous experiences, and generate appropriate responses in a relatively short period of time.

In addition, the brain also plays an important role in managing and mediating the emotions involved in social interactions. Social communication often involves the expression of emotions, be it joy, sadness, anxiety or anger. The brain has systems connected to emotions, such as the amygdala and prefrontal cortex, which are involved in generating and regulating emotional responses. During social interactions, the

brain actively processes emotional information from the surrounding environment and responds in an appropriate manner.

Research in cognitive neuroscience has provided valuable insights into the brain's role in processing language during social interactions. Functional neuroimaging (fMRI) studies have enabled researchers to map brain activity while individuals are socially interacting and identify areas of the brain involved in the process. For example, fMRI studies have shown that brain areas involved in language processing, such as Broca's and Wernicke's areas, are also active when individuals interact socially. In addition, neuroimaging studies have shown that brain areas connected to hearing, vision and emotion are also involved in language processing during social interaction.

From an evolutionary perspective, the ability to communicate effectively is one of the key features of human development. Social communication plays an important role in forming interpersonal relationships, establishing social identity, and facilitating co-operation in groups. In complex social environments, the human brain has evolved to be highly sensitive to various aspects of language and non-verbal communication involved in social interactions. The ability to process language quickly and efficiently, and respond appropriately, is a key factor in successful social communication. The implications of understanding the role of the brain in processing language during social interactions are significant, especially in the context of developing teaching methods and interventions for individuals who experience difficulties in social communication. With a better understanding of how the brain processes language and emotions during social interactions, we can develop more effective strategies to help these individuals learn and progress in their social communication skills.

Enabling the brain, particularly Broca's and Wernicke's areas, to function normally involves a variety of strategies and approaches that support the development of language skills. There are steps that can be taken to stimulate the activity and

function of these two areas, ensuring that the language learning process runs smoothly and effectively. First of all, it is important to provide stimulation and exercise that allows the brain to adapt and develop. As mentioned earlier, the concept of neuroplasticity suggests that the brain has the ability to change its structure and function in response to experience and learning. Therefore, teaching that involves repetitive practice and consistent exposure to language can help activate and strengthen Broca and Wernicke's areas.

One way to activate Broca's area is to provide opportunities for students to speak and write actively. Activities such as group discussions, presentations, or essay writing allow students to use their language production directly, stimulating Broca's area activity. In addition, these exercises can help students improve their syntax and intonation, which are important aspects of effective language production.

In addition, teaching that emphasizes verbal interaction in the target language can help activate Broca's area. Various activities that involve speaking roles, such as role plays or simulations, provide opportunities for students to practice speaking in real contexts. This interaction not only stimulates language production, but also helps improve students' interpersonal communication skills.

To activate the Wernicke area, it is important to provide opportunities for students to listen and read actively. Listening to lectures or discussions, as well as reading a variety of reading materials, can help stimulate Wernicke's area activity. During this process, students should be invited to pay attention and carefully process information, activating Wernicke's area to understand the meaning of words and sentences. In addition, in-depth comprehension exercises, such as text analysis or comprehension reading, can help activate Wernicke's area by strengthening students' ability to parse and understand complex information. Group discussions can also help students build their understanding by exchanging opinions and ideas about reading material or subject matter.

The use of technology can also be a useful tool in activating Broca and Wernicke's areas. Interactive language learning apps, educational games, or online resources can provide students with additional interesting and varied exercises. Some apps are even specifically designed to stimulate certain brain activity, including Broca's and Wernicke's areas, through specially designed exercises.

In addition, it is important to pay attention to the socioemotional aspect of activating Broca's and Wernicke's areas. A supportive classroom environment, where students feel comfortable and supported to participate actively, can increase their motivation to learn a language. Positive relationships between students and teachers can also influence students' feelings of confidence in using language, which is an important factor in the activation of Broca and Wernicke's areas.

Teaching strategies that take into account students' individual needs can help activate Broca and Wernicke's areas effectively. Every student has different learning styles and needs, so a responsive approach to individual needs can help maximize brain activity in language learning. For example, students with learning difficulties may need additional support or adjustments in the classroom environment to help them activate Broca and Wernicke's areas more effectively.

In order to activate the brain, especially Broca's and Wernicke's areas, normally, a holistic and integrated approach is required. It involves a combination of various teaching strategies that pay attention to the cognitive, socioemotional, and individual aspects of students. By providing appropriate stimuli and supporting the language learning process comprehensively, we can ensure that students can develop their language skills optimally.

Motto:

"Dreams will come true if we have courage."

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BAB 11

FIRST LANGUAGE AQUISITION

Oleh Sonya Brinda

11. 1 Introduction

Language acquisition usually refers to first-language acquisition, which studies infants 'acquisition of their native language. Language acquisition is the unconscious process in which children acquire a language. They develop and grow up as social beings immersed in a network or relationship from the start. It is also the process by which humans acquire the capacity to perceive and comprehend language, as well as to produce and use words and sentences to communicate. Language acquisition focuses on learning through communication and less on learning through form (such as grammatical structures).

First language acquisition (FLA) is referred to the phenomenon of a child acquiring their first language. It occurs more rapidly than other kinds of developmental learning. FLA is instinctive as it requires no instruction. FLA starts at birth with the pre-production step, occurs rapidly even without formal instruction. Besides, it signed and spoken languages are acquired in the same ways. Later, children use telegraphic language as they develop their first language. Children first use content to learn language, then language to learn new content. Early correction of children's language output tends to inhibit rather than enhance FLA.

First language or we know it with mother language or mother tongue is language that came from our mother or our origin. Every normal child's mind growth will acquire the first language or mother language in the first years of his life, And this process took place until about 5 years old.. After that in puberty (about 12 to 14 years) reached adulthood (about 18-20 years), The boy will still have his mother tongue.. After puberty., A child's language skills have little progress even though he continues to develop his vocabulary or not as advanced as before. Mother language acquisition is the primary language for the child because this language is the most solid knowledge and use.

Children acquire language through a subconscious process during which they are unaware of grammatical rules. All children have the capability of learning any language as their first one. It is stated that we are generally not consciously aware of the rules of the languages we have acquired. Instead, we have a „feel“ for the correctness. Grammatical sentences „sound“ right, or „feel“ right, and errors feel wrong, even if we do not consciously know what rule was violated (Krashen, 1982: 10). This is often comparable to the way they obtain their first language. They get a feel for what is and what isn't correct. In arrange to obtain language, the learner needs a source of natural communication is like mother tongue. The emphasis is on the text of the communication and not on the form. Continuous senyampang used, can develop a mother tongue. Mother language can develop if it use everyday. When not in use, language skills can automatically disappear.

11. 2 Mother Language Vs. Mother's Language

There is much more profound comprehension than fair the grammar use. Most individuals may comprehend that mother language and mother's language are same, both are used to convey the term native language. It will be distinctive on the off

chance that we try to comprehend them deeply. The term mother language is really the term of native language since it speaks to the term about what language that is obtained by a child as his first language. Native language refers to the language of the area the person grows up in. Growing up in the Indonesia your native language would be bahasa Indonesia. (Darjowidjojo, 2005: 241) state that If a child is born to a mother who has Javanese genes but he was raised in another country, for example England, since he was a baby, then English is his mother's language even though his mother has Javanese genes. It means that whatever the first language we learn and acquire at an early age will become our native language.

What about mother's language? Does mother's language also mean the same term as native language? According to Darjowidjojo (2005: 242), the term mother's language has same meant with the terms motherese, parentese, and child coordinated discourse. Mother's language is the language used by adults to communicate with children who are just starting to learn the language. For example, when we talk to children who are still studying in kindergarten. We are speaking with mother's language since we will for the most part attempt to talk with taking after ways: utilizing brief and short sentences, high-pitched voice, a bit overstating within the sound, very moderate discourse, redundancy, and nicknames. It refers to the language of the family you grew up in. Often parents will use the same language as that of the region. (Moskowitz 1981; Pine 1994:15; Barton & Tomasello 1994:109) Since mother's language only concerns about the way a language is communicated toward a child, we cannot conclude that mother's language is the native language. Mother's language is just a way in communicating a language. Chomsky describes mother's language as a degenerate form of language since this kind of language is not based on rulegoverned system which makes the language not neat and nice. However, Gleitman (1997) and Snow (1997) argue that

mother's language is not as bad as Chomsky describes. On the contrary, they state that the mother's language still have many positive aspects and effects towards language learning of a child.

11. 3 Several Stages of Mother Language

Experienced by children in the process of development language covers four stages namely: (1) babbling stage, (2) holophrastic stage, (3) two words stage, and (4) telegraphic stage. Fourth this stage part of the linguistic stage. The cry or babbling counted among the pralinguistic praverbal or because of the response is just a stimulation around it, not be a creation speech.

1. Babbling stage

Six months babies started babbling in this process the child starts mixing consonant with vowels. Babies said a number of the pieces said without significance or some meaningful said just by chance. Children will learn to use sounds said right (received people) around him and cast the wrong. The start is the pattern of intonation that spoke by people around him. He will recognize intonation who expresses the sense angry, awe, happy, sad and others.



2. Holoprastic stage

This stage called the sentence of the holoprastic (holo, intact, and phrase, phrase). At the age of one year old kid started using a series of the same sound for same meanings. Example: mom (in saying that i want to eat), ma (to ask mama) is here.

- a. Links between words by behavior of the children themselves, or a desire to a behavior,
- b. To express their feeling,
- c. To gives name to something.

Words at this stage consisting of a consonant easy it is pronounced like (m, p, j, k) and vocal (as a, i, u, e, o). Investigators said the children understood the difference more than he can.

3. Two word stage

Children at least year two years have started to utter speech two words, for example “mi’ cu” which means the child wants drinking milk. Some phrases uttered often do not have subject as inflections, the pronoun, and the plural unused. In the mind of the subject + consisting of a noun + predicate noun, as “peda Opi” which means Opi asked to take his bicycle; or combine adjective + nouns, as “dirty patu” which means these shoes is dirty, and so on.

4. Telegraphic stage

After passing the age of two years, children can string three, Four sentences even more. The syntax connection in the sentence is obvious. Even though up to this age the topic of conversation is the matter of him., that was in place and that was here and now.

Children at this age gradually learn their mother tongue in their own way. The sentence that he put together resembles a telegram means using more lexical words

(content word) like: cat stand up table (cat standing on table), no sit here (don't sit here), and so the development stage above is related to the cognitive development of the child. Piaget named the cognitive period of the baby (0-2 years) in centomotoris terms, This is because the cognitive development has to do with acceptance and processing of information received through sensory organs or senses.

At the next stage, age 2-7 by Piaget called pre-optinal stage, which is that the period of children starting to learn to use language to show an object through the image and the words. At the age of 7-11 a child can consistently think logically about objects and events. Eleven years old and up, Piaget explains that the new child can think in abstract and hypothetic form.

In general, language and speech development in children can be achieved divided into three phases, namely:

- a. preverbal phase (0-1 year),
- b. early verbal phase (1 – 2.5 years), and
- c. differentiation phase (2.5 – 5 years).

Children learn to speak through the stages of understanding (passive language) and through speech (active language).

Next on how children learn the language, some theories are put forward to answer this question. Some experts consider children learn from copying or doing the imitation process. The child is considered to have acquired language when he is able to imitate the speech of an adult.. Imitation that the child does includes not only a variety of vocabulary but also intonation. Some others assume that children learn the language from reinforcement. Meanwhile, others argue that children learn the language by making analogies.

11. 4 Factors That Can Development In Language Development

Not a few factors that are considered to play a role in the development of language, But in this book only three are raised mainly among them: the age factor, environment and individual differences.

1. Age factor

Age factors are often considered to play a role in determining the success of the acquisition of a language. This conclusion is drawn from the easy tendency of children rather than adults to get new languages.. The true process of the acquisition of a language has the same sequence when it starts at an early age or if it starts at an adult age. The only difference in terms of skill is that it has something to do with the hypothesis of the critical period of language acquisition.. These differences include :

- Children are better at the mastery of the phonology system, and so they can resemble the original speakers.. This is because exposure to another language is not much like adult exposure.
- Adults are better at morphological and syntax acquisitions at least at the beginning of the acquisition.
- Children are better at acquisition but not always faster than adult language.

2. Environmental factor

The development of a good language always begins early.. A child's chance to tell a story, communicating with others will be a great help in the development of the language. Children need to get a chance to talk, expressing ideas and ideas, communicate with the others to make a deal.

Cognitively language development is also influenced by contextual things, so that the child can further develop his thinking power. Such mindfulness can be seen from his

ability to reveal more information from the learning sources around him. When his cognitive function increases, his negotiating ability also developed into the negotiation stage.

A negotiation is someone's ability to bargain, Argument, Give each other an opinion, and made a deal so that it got something better. The ability of this negotiation also compensates for the ability to explain things in detail, let's say that all kinds of phenomena, comparing one thing to another, making conclusions and stuff.

This process is useful in forming constructs of understanding of own knowledge and the ability to develop relational thinking, associative and synthesis.

3. Individual differences

With the knowledge of differences between individuals in the language-creation process will apply to early detection difficulties and language learning problems as well as the exact determination of the proper method to maximize language yielding. Differences between individuals are found in many such factors as intelligence, talent, cognitive model, Personality, auditory memory, Study readiness, emotion, An interest and so on. In the following discussion the first three factors, It's intelligence, cognitive talents and models, is considered most influential.

a. Intelligence

Intelligence tests originally developed by Binet in France, Burt in England as well as Stanford and Terman in the United States today raises controversy.. This is because the test was designed to measure cognitive capacity with a psychometry point of view., But the test couldn't measure the actual cognitive function.

In language encrypting, Intelligence is not an important factor. Even in children with mental tardiness with low intellectual functions can still develop language skills.

Most intelligence tests are in mother language these days. Although it has begun to develop non-language-based intelligence tests such as the wechsler scale for children, But language is still the primary tool of conceptual formations in intelligence tests. That can happen wrongly because if the child fails to understand the meaning of the question in the intelligence test it'll be considered low intelligence even if it doesn't. In language encrypting context, With strong learning motivation, people of above intelligence and below average can achieve success in language mastery.

b. Talent

Talent tests include knowledge of language and auditory abilities. Special language tests give the best predictions when associated with accomplishments in other studies and the measurements of interest. Even so, the tests that have been there still measure by short-term memory have not measured the actual cognitive process.

c. Cognitive model

Cognition is a mental process such as thinking, found, alignment, symbolizing, guessing, using complex rules, Solve the problem, imagination, trust and make a point. This process involves transformation, reduction, storage, recovery and use of sense input (reber in bogdashina, 2005).

Cognitive models involve the habit of processing such information as those involving sentence imitation capabilities. Self-study language learners can imitate sentences more fully than learners who tend to imitate sentences globally by eliminating parts of sentences. This is related to the reflectivity of speakers that review language input before deciding how information will be processed.

11. 5 Three Main Theories How Language Acquisition Works

1. Behaviorism from skinner

Skinner argued that children acquired language under the principles of reinforcement, that they associated words with meanings.

Correct utterance is positively reinforced. The children learn by imitation, reinforcement that comes from the environment.

Example : If a baby correctly pronounces the word “milk” and the mom smiles and gives to the baby the milk, he or she will be encourage to pronounce the word again.

2. Social cognition from Piaget

Jean Piaget’s theory of cognitive development suggests that children move thoughts for deifferent stages of mental development. Stages of sensorymotor (birth to 2 years), preoperational stage (age 2 to 7 years), concrete operational stage (age 7 to 11), formal operational stage (age 12 and up). His theory focuses not only on understanding how children acquire knowledge, but also on understanding the nature of intelligence.

3. Universal grammar from Chomsky

Language acquisition is a innate structure, or function of the human brain. He proposed the theory of Universal Grammar is considered to contain all the grammatical information needed to combine these categories, into phrases.

According to the universal grammar theory, children instinctively know how to combine a noun (e. g. a boy) and a verb (to eat) into a meaningful, correct phrases (A boy eats).

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BAB 12

SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Oleh E. Wityasminingsih

12. 1 Introduction

12. 2. 1 Definition and Importance

Second language acquisition (SLA) is learning a new language in addition to one's native language(s). Second language acquisition (SLA) is the process by which people learn a second language in addition to their native language(s). It is a complex and dynamic process influenced by various factors such as age, cognitive abilities, motivation, social environment, and exposure to the target language.

Second Language Acquisition (SLA) studies how individuals learn and acquire a second language distinct from their native language(s). It encompasses many processes, theories, and factors that influence language learning. Understanding SLA is essential for educators, researchers, and language learners, as it provides insights into effective teaching methods, language development, and human communication.

Key Components of SLA:

1. **Language Learning vs. Language Acquisition:** SLA involves learning explicit linguistic knowledge, such as grammar rules and vocabulary, and acquiring implicit language skills, such as fluency and pronunciation. While learning can be taught through instruction, acquisition often occurs through exposure and interaction.

2. **Theories of SLA:** Various theories have been proposed to explain how second languages are acquired. These theories include the Input Hypothesis, which emphasizes the importance of comprehensible input; the Interactionist Approach, which highlights the role of social interaction in language learning; and the (Krashen, 1988) Monitor Model, which describes the relationship between conscious language learning and subconscious language acquisition.
3. **Factors Influencing SLA:** SLA is influenced by many factors, including age, aptitude, motivation, and socio-cultural context. For instance, younger learners often acquire languages more easily than adults, while motivation and language anxiety can affect learners' willingness to engage in language learning activities.
4. **Critical Period Hypothesis:** One prominent theory in SLA is the Critical Period Hypothesis, which suggests a biologically determined window of opportunity during which language acquisition is optimal. Language learning becomes more challenging after this critical period, typically thought to end in adolescence.
5. **Pedagogical Implications:** Understanding SLA theories and principles can inform language teaching practices. Educators can design instruction that aligns with language acquisition theories, such as providing meaningful input, encouraging interaction, and creating a supportive learning environment.

In conclusion, Second Language Acquisition is a dynamic and multifaceted field that explores how individuals learn and acquire additional languages. By examining theories, research findings, and practical applications, SLA offers valuable insights into the nature of language learning and effective teaching strategies (Selinker, 1994).

The importance of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) is multifaceted and extends to various aspects of individual and societal development:

1. **Enhanced Communication:** SLA enables individuals to communicate effectively in multilingual contexts, fostering intercultural understanding and collaboration. Proficiency in multiple languages facilitates communication in diverse settings, such as international business, diplomacy, and cultural exchange.
2. **Cognitive Benefits:** Learning a second language has been linked to cognitive benefits, including improved memory, problem-solving skills, and multitasking abilities. It stimulates brain plasticity and enhances cognitive flexibility, contributing to lifelong cognitive health.
3. **Educational Opportunities:** Proficiency in a second language opens doors to educational opportunities, including study abroad programs, international scholarships, and access to academic resources in other languages. It enhances academic achievement and promotes global citizenship.
4. **Career Advancement:** In an increasingly globalized world, proficiency in multiple languages is an asset in the job market. Multilingual individuals have a competitive edge in diverse fields such as tourism, translation, diplomacy, international business, and education.
5. **Cultural Understanding:** SLA fosters cross-cultural awareness and appreciation by providing insight into different linguistic and cultural perspectives. It promotes tolerance, empathy, and respect for diversity, contributing to social cohesion and harmony.
6. **Personal Enrichment:** Learning a second language is personally enriching, offering opportunities for self-expression, creativity, and self-discovery. It broadens horizons, fosters lifelong learning, and enriches one's world understanding.
7. **Preservation of Heritage:** SLA plays a crucial role in preserving and promoting linguistic diversity and

cultural heritage. By learning and maintaining minority and endangered languages, individuals contribute to their preservation for future generations.

8. **Global Citizenship:** Proficiency in multiple languages empowers individuals to engage as citizens, participating actively in international dialogues, addressing global challenges, and promoting cross-cultural understanding and cooperation.

Second Language Acquisition is not merely about learning a new language; it is about fostering connections, broadening perspectives, and enriching personal, educational, and societal lives. It shapes a more interconnected, inclusive, and culturally diverse world.

12.1.2 Key Theories and Concepts in SLA

Here is an overview of some key theories and concepts in Second Language Acquisition (SLA):

1. **Input Hypothesis:** Proposed by Stephen Krashen, this theory suggests that language acquisition occurs when learners are exposed to comprehensible input slightly beyond their current proficiency level. The focus is on exposure to meaningful language that learners can understand, which helps facilitate language acquisition (Krashen, 1988).
2. **Monitor Model:** Krashen describes the "monitor" role in language acquisition. The monitor is the conscious, learned grammar that learners use to edit and correct their language output. According to this model, the monitor has a limited role in language acquisition and is only used for self-correction when learners have time to think about their language use consciously.
3. **Affective Filter Hypothesis:** Another theory by Krashen suggests that learners' emotional states, such as anxiety or motivation, can affect their ability to acquire a second language. A low-affective filter (i.e., low anxiety and high

motivation) facilitates language acquisition, while a high-affective filter inhibits it.

4. **Interactionist Approach:** This approach emphasizes the importance of social interaction in language learning. According to this perspective, learners acquire language through meaningful interaction with others, during which they negotiate meaning, receive feedback, and engage in collaborative learning activities.
5. **Sociocultural Theory:** Developed by Lev Vygotsky, this theory posits that language acquisition is a social and cultural process. According to this perspective, learners acquire language through interaction with more knowledgeable others who provide scaffolding and support, allowing them to gradually internalize language skills and concepts.
6. **Cognitive Approaches:** These approaches focus on the cognitive processes involved in language learning, such as memory, attention, and problem-solving. Cognitive theories of SLA emphasize the role of explicit learning strategies, metacognitive awareness, and individual differences in learners' cognitive abilities.

These are just a few of the key theories and concepts in SLA, and understanding them can provide valuable insights into how languages are acquired and how to facilitate language learning effectively. Overall, second language acquisition is a multifaceted process influenced by a wide range of factors, and understanding these factors can help educators design effective language learning programs and interventions (Krashen, 1981a).

12.2 Factors in SLA

12.2.1 Age

The critical period hypothesis first addressed age (Penfield & Roberts, 1959). The strict version of this hypothesis states that there is a cut-off age of about 12, after which learners lose the ability to learn a language fully. However, the exact age

marking the end of the critical period is debated and ranges from age 6 to 13, with many arguing that it is around the onset of puberty (Loewen & Reinders, 2011).

Children who acquire two languages from birth are called simultaneous bilinguals. In these cases, both languages are spoken to the children by their parents or caregivers, and they grow up knowing the two languages. These children generally reach linguistic milestones simultaneously with their monolingual peers. Children who do not learn two languages from infancy but learn one language from birth and another at some point during childhood are referred to as sequential bilinguals. People often assume that a sequential bilingual's first language is their most proficient language, but this is not always true. Over time and experience, a child's second language may become their strongest. It is especially likely to happen if a child's first language is a minority language spoken at home and the child's second language is the majority language learned at school or in the community before age five. Proficiency for both simultaneous and sequential bilinguals depends upon the child's opportunities to engage in meaningful conversations in various contexts. (Kohnert, 2008) (Altarriba & Heredia, 2008).

12.2.2 Motivation

Motivation plays a crucial role in Second Language Acquisition (SLA), influencing learners' engagement, persistence, and success in acquiring a new language. Here are some key points about motivation in SLA:

1. **Intrinsic vs. Extrinsic Motivation:** Motivation in SLA can be categorized as intrinsic, stemming from internal desires such as interest in the language, personal enjoyment, or a desire for self-improvement, or extrinsic, driven by external factors such as grades, rewards, or social approval. While both types of motivation can drive language learning, intrinsic motivation tends to be more

sustainable and conducive to long-term language acquisition (Piasecka, 2011).

2. **Goal Orientation:** Learners' goals and aspirations significantly influence their motivation in SLA. Goals can vary widely, from practical objectives such as passing an exam or obtaining a job to personal goals such as connecting with others, exploring different cultures, or expressing oneself creatively in another language. Clear, achievable goals can enhance learners' motivation and focus.
3. **Attitudes and Beliefs:** Learners' attitudes and beliefs about the target language, the learning process, and abilities also shape their motivation. Positive attitudes, such as a growth mindset that views mistakes as opportunities for learning and beliefs in the value and attainability of language proficiency, can foster motivation. Conversely, negative attitudes, anxiety, or self-doubt can hinder motivation and impede language learning progress.
4. **Autonomy and Self-efficacy:** Providing learners with autonomy and opportunities for self-directed learning can enhance their motivation in SLA. When learners feel empowered to choose their learning path, set their own goals, and take ownership of their progress, they are more likely to be motivated and engaged. Building learners' self-efficacy, or belief in their ability to succeed in language learning tasks, also promotes motivation and persistence.
5. **Social and Environmental Factors:** Social interactions, peer support, and a positive learning environment can bolster learners' motivation in SLA. Collaborative learning experiences, opportunities for meaningful communication in the target language, and supportive feedback from teachers and peers can enhance motivation and foster a sense of belonging within the language-learning community.
6. **Maintenance of Motivation:** Motivation in SLA is not static; it fluctuates over time and can be influenced by

various factors, including learners' experiences, progress, and changing circumstances. Therefore, educators play a crucial role in maintaining learners' motivation by providing engaging, relevant learning experiences, fostering a supportive learning environment, and nurturing learners' intrinsic interests and passions.

Motivation is a dynamic and multifaceted construct that significantly impacts learners' engagement, effort, and achievement in Second Language Acquisition. Understanding and cultivating motivation is essential for promoting successful language learning experiences and facilitating learners' long-term language proficiency and fluency.

12.3 Language Learning Processes

12.3.1 Input and output

Input and output are two fundamental Second Language Acquisition (SLA) concepts that play crucial roles in language learning. Here is a breakdown of each:

1. Input:

- **Definition:** Input refers to the language learners are exposed to through listening or reading. It includes spoken language from conversations, lectures, audio recordings, and written language from books, articles, or online texts.
- **Importance:** Input is essential for language acquisition because it gives learners examples of vocabulary, grammar structures, pronunciation, and discourse patterns in context. Through exposure to comprehensible input (language that learners can understand with the help of context or prior knowledge), learners unconsciously internalize linguistic features and gradually develop their language skills.

- **Input Hypothesis:** Proposed by linguist Stephen Krashen, the Input Hypothesis suggests that language acquisition occurs when learners are exposed to comprehensible input slightly beyond their current proficiency level. According to this theory, understanding meaningful language input is the primary mechanism through which learners acquire language.

2. Output:

- **Definition:** Output refers to the language learners produce through speaking or writing. It includes verbal communication in conversations, presentations, or discussions and written communication in essays, reports, or emails.
- **Importance:** Output is crucial for language development because it allows learners to practice using their acquired language, experiment with new vocabulary and grammar structures, and receive feedback on their language production. By producing language, learners reinforce their understanding of linguistic features and develop fluency and accuracy in communication.
- **Output Hypothesis:** The Output Hypothesis, proposed by linguist Merrill Swain, suggests that language output plays a critical role in language acquisition. According to this theory, producing language, particularly during communicative tasks that require learners to negotiate meaning and express their ideas, promotes language learning **by** pushing learners to notice gaps in their linguistic knowledge and seek out appropriate language forms.

In summary, input and output are complementary aspects of Second Language Acquisition. Input provides learners with linguistic input to internalize and process. At the same time, output allows learners to practice using their acquired language

and refine their language skills through active communication and interaction. Both input and output are essential components of effective language learning and contribute to learners' overall language proficiency and communicative competence (White, 2003).

12.3.2 Learning Strategies

Learning strategies in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) refer to the conscious and purposeful techniques and approaches learners use to enhance their language learning process. These strategies help learners manage their learning, overcome obstacles, and maximize their language proficiency. Here are some common types of learning strategies in SLA:

1. Cognitive Strategies:

- **Metacognitive Strategies** involve planning, monitoring, and evaluating one's learning process. Examples include setting goals, self-assessment, and reflecting on learning strategies.
- **Memory Strategies:** Techniques to aid in memorization and retention of vocabulary, grammar rules, and language patterns. Examples include mnemonic devices, repetition, and visualization.
- **Comprehension Strategies:** Methods for understanding and interpreting spoken or written language. Examples include predicting, summarizing, and asking for clarification.
- **Problem-solving Strategies:** Approaches to address language-related difficulties or gaps in understanding. Examples include guessing meaning from context, using dictionaries, and seeking clarification from others.

2. Metacognitive Strategies:

- **Setting Goals:** Establishing clear, achievable language learning objectives to guide learning.

- **Planning:** Developing study plans and schedules, organizing materials, and selecting appropriate learning resources.
- **Self-monitoring:** Reflecting on one's progress, identifying areas for improvement, and adjusting learning strategies accordingly.
- **Self-Evaluation:** Assessing one's language proficiency and identifying strengths and weaknesses.

3. Social Strategies:

- **Interaction Strategies:** Techniques for communicating and interacting with others in the target language. Examples include asking for clarification, paraphrasing, and negotiating meaning.
- **Cooperation Strategies:** Collaborating with peers or native speakers to practice language skills, exchange feedback, and support each other's learning.
- **Imitation:** Observing and mimicking the language use of proficient speakers to model pronunciation, intonation, and language patterns.

4. Affective Strategies:

- **Managing Anxiety:** Coping with feelings of anxiety or apprehension related to language learning through relaxation techniques, positive self-talk, and stress management strategies.
- **Building Confidence:** Boosting self-confidence and motivation through positive reinforcement, celebrating small successes, and setting realistic expectations.
- **Seeking Support:** Seeking encouragement, guidance, and emotional support from teachers, peers, or language learning communities.

5. Compensatory Strategies:

- **Guessing:** Inferring the meaning of unfamiliar words or expressions based on context, prior knowledge, or linguistic clues.
- **Using Synonyms or Circumlocution:** Substituting known words or describing concepts roundaboutly when the exact word is unavailable.
- **Overcoming Communication Barriers:** Finding alternative ways to convey meaning, such as gestures, facial expressions, or drawing.

Effective language learners often employ a combination of these strategies, adapting their approach based on their learning goals, preferences, and the specific language learning context. By developing and using learning strategies intentionally, learners can enhance their language acquisition process and become more autonomous, confident, and proficient language users (Flynn, 2007).

12.3.3 Error correction

There are various approaches to error correction in SLA, including:

1. **Immediate vs. Delayed Correction:** Immediate correction involves addressing errors as soon as they occur, while delayed correction occurs after learners have completed a communication task or activity. Both approaches have advantages, and the choice depends on factors such as learners' proficiency level, the nature of the task, and instructional goals.
2. **Direct vs. Indirect Correction:** Direct correction involves explicitly pointing out errors and providing the correct form, while indirect correction focuses on providing hints, recasting, or eliciting self-correction from learners. Both approaches have their merits, and a

balanced combination of direct and indirect correction strategies is often recommended.

3. **Selective vs. Comprehensive Correction:** Selective correction targets specific errors or language features, such as grammar or pronunciation, while comprehensive correction addresses errors across multiple language domains. Choosing between selective and comprehensive correction depends on learners' needs, priorities, and learning objectives.
4. **Error Tolerance:** Error correction strategies should balance promoting accuracy and maintaining learners' motivation and confidence. Overly strict or frequent correction may discourage learners and inhibit their willingness to take risks and communicate in the target language.

Overall, error correction is essential to language teaching and learning in SLA. When implemented thoughtfully and effectively, error correction improves learners' language development, accuracy, and communicative competence. Teachers must employ error correction strategies and tailor their approach to their learners' needs and preferences (James, 1998).

12.4 Current Trends and Future Directions

12.4.1 Technology in SLA

Technology has increasingly integrated into Second Language Acquisition (SLA) practices, offering innovative tools and resources to enhance language learning experiences. Here is how technology is utilized in SLA:

1. **Online Language Learning Platforms:** Numerous websites and apps provide interactive language lessons, exercises, and practice activities tailored to learners' proficiency levels and language goals. Platforms like Duolingo, Rosetta Stone, and Babbel offer engaging, self-

paced language learning experiences accessible anytime, anywhere.

2. **Language Learning Apps:** Mobile applications offer convenient access to language learning materials, allowing learners to practice vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, and cultural knowledge on their smartphones or tablets. Apps like Memrise, HelloTalk, and Tandem facilitate language exchange and communication with native speakers worldwide.
3. **Virtual Reality (VR) and Augmented Reality (AR):** VR and AR technologies provide immersive language learning environments that simulate real-world contexts, allowing learners to practice language skills in interactive, 3D environments. VR language learning apps and simulations enable learners to engage in virtual conversations, cultural experiences, and language immersion scenarios.
4. **Language Learning Software:** Advanced language learning software programs offer multimedia resources, interactive exercises, and adaptive learning features to cater to individual learners' needs and preferences. Software such as Rosetta Stone, FluentU, and LingQ provide a range of activities, including videos, audio recordings, quizzes, and games, to reinforce language skills.
5. **Online Language Tutors and Conversation Partners:** Web-based platforms connect language learners with qualified tutors and conversation partners for personalized language instruction and practice sessions via video conferencing tools like Skype, Zoom, or Google Meet. Websites like Italki, Preply, and Verbling offer a wide selection of tutors for various languages and proficiency levels.
6. **Language Learning Communities and Social Media:** Online forums, discussion groups, and social media platforms enable language learners to connect with peers, exchange language learning tips, resources, and experiences, and engage in collaborative learning

activities. Platforms like Reddit, Facebook Groups, and language-specific forums provide peer support and community-building opportunities.

7. **Digital Language Resources:** Digital libraries, podcasts, audiobooks, and online newspapers offer many authentic language materials for learners to explore and practice their language skills. Accessible through the internet or mobile apps, these resources provide exposure to real-life language use and cultural content.
8. **Language Learning Management Systems (LMS):** Educational platforms and LMS tools facilitate the delivery of online language courses, assessments, and learning materials, enabling instructors to organize, manage, and track learners' progress effectively. Moodle, Canvas, and Blackboard offer customizable language teaching and learning features.

Technology offers diverse opportunities to enhance language learning experiences, promote learner engagement and autonomy, and facilitate personalized, flexible, and interactive language instruction in SLA contexts. By leveraging technology effectively, educators and learners can optimize language learning outcomes and adapt to evolving trends and preferences in language education (Chun, 2016).

12.4.2 Multilingualism

Multilingualism plays a significant role in Second Language Acquisition (SLA), influencing learners' language learning processes, outcomes, and experiences in various ways. Here is how multilingualism intersects with SLA:

1. **Language Transfer:** Multilingual individuals may draw upon their knowledge of one or more languages when learning a new language. Language transfer occurs when learners apply linguistic structures, vocabulary, and communication strategies from their native or other learned languages to the target language. While language

transfer can facilitate language learning by providing a foundation of shared linguistic patterns, it may also lead to interference or errors, particularly if there are differences between the languages.

2. **Cross-Linguistic Influence:** Multilingual learners may experience cross-linguistic influence, where features of one language affect the acquisition or use of another language. This influence can manifest in various ways, such as lexical borrowing, code-switching, or adopting language-specific pronunciation or grammatical patterns.
3. **Metalinguistic Awareness:** Multilingual individuals often develop heightened metalinguistic awareness, or the ability to reflect on and analyze language as a system. Exposure to multiple languages fosters sensitivity to linguistic diversity, language structures, and language use conventions, enhancing learners' ability to compare, contrast, and analyze languages.
4. **Language Learning Strategies:** Multilingual learners may employ language learning strategies that draw upon their experiences with multiple languages. Strategies such as code-switching, translation, and language mixing may be used strategically to facilitate comprehension, communication, and language acquisition in diverse linguistic contexts.
5. **Cognitive Benefits:** Research suggests multilingualism is associated with cognitive benefits, including enhanced cognitive flexibility, problem-solving skills, and metalinguistic awareness. Multilingual individuals often exhibit greater executive control and cognitive reserve, which can support language learning and adaptation to new linguistic environments.
6. **Language Attitudes and Identity:** Multilingualism shapes learners' language attitudes, beliefs, and identities, influencing their perceptions of self and others to language. Multilingual individuals may navigate multiple linguistic and cultural identities, developing complex language repertoires and flexible language

practices that reflect their diverse experiences and social contexts.

7. **Sociocultural Competence:** Multilingualism fosters sociocultural competence, the ability to navigate and communicate effectively in diverse cultural and linguistic contexts. Multilingual individuals develop intercultural sensitivity, empathy, and adaptability, enabling them to engage meaningfully with speakers of different languages and cultures.

In summary, multilingualism enriches Second Language Acquisition by providing learners diverse linguistic experiences, cognitive advantages, and cultural insights. Multilingual individuals bring unique perspectives, skills, and resources to language learning contexts, contributing to SLA's dynamic and multifaceted nature. Understanding the intersection of multilingualism and SLA is essential for educators, researchers, and policymakers seeking to promote inclusive, effective, and culturally responsive language education practices (L. Aronin, 2009).

12.4.3 Neurocognitive research

Neurocognitive research in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) explores the neural mechanisms underlying language learning and the cognitive processes involved in acquiring a second language. This interdisciplinary field integrates neuroscience, cognitive psychology, linguistics, and education findings to understand better how the brain processes and learns languages. Here is an overview of key areas of neurocognitive research in SLA:

1. **Neural Plasticity:** Neurocognitive research investigates the brain's capacity for plasticity, or its ability to reorganize and adapt in response to language learning experiences. Studies use neuroimaging techniques such as functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) and

electroencephalography (EEG) to examine changes in brain structure and function associated with language learning.

2. **Critical Period Hypothesis:** Neurocognitive studies explore the neural basis of the Critical Period Hypothesis, which suggests a biologically determined window of opportunity during which language acquisition is optimal. Research investigates how age-related changes in brain structure and function affect language learning outcomes and the neural basis of language plasticity across the lifespan.
3. **Language Processing:** Neurocognitive research examines the neural mechanisms involved in language processing, including phonological, morphological, syntactic, and semantic processing. Studies investigate how bilingual individuals' brains manage and switch between multiple languages, revealing insights into the organization and representation of language in the brain.
4. **Lexical and Semantic Learning:** Research explores the neural basis of lexical and semantic learning in second language acquisition. Studies investigate how learners acquire and store vocabulary, retrieve words, and comprehend meaning in a second language, shedding light on the cognitive processes involved in word learning and semantic integration.
5. **Grammar Learning:** Neurocognitive studies examine the neural mechanisms underlying grammar learning and syntactic processing in second language acquisition. The research investigates how learners acquire grammatical rules, process sentence structures, and produce grammatically correct utterances in a second language, revealing insights into the neural circuits involved in syntax acquisition.
6. **Language Aptitude and Individual Differences:** Neurocognitive research explores differences in language aptitude and their neural correlates. Studies investigate how working memory capacity, executive functions, and

neural connectivity influence language learning outcomes and the acquisition of specific linguistic skills.

- 7. Language Disorders and Language Rehabilitation:** Neurocognitive research in SLA extends to studying language disorders, such as aphasia and developmental language disorders, and the neural basis of language rehabilitation interventions. Studies examine the effects of language training programs, neurostimulation techniques, and pharmacological interventions on language recovery and neuroplasticity in individuals with language impairments.

Overall, neurocognitive research in SLA offers valuable insights into the neural basis of language learning and the cognitive mechanisms underlying second language acquisition. By elucidating the brain processes involved in language learning, this research informs the development of effective language teaching methods, interventions for language disorders, and strategies to promote optimal language learning outcomes across diverse learner populations (Kersten, 2022).

12.5 Conclusion

In conclusion, Second Language Acquisition (SLA) is a multifaceted and dynamic field that studies how individuals learn and acquire additional languages. Throughout this exploration, several key points emerge:

- 1. Complexity of Language Learning:** SLA involves intricate processes influenced by many factors, including linguistic, cognitive, social, and affective variables. Learners navigate a complex interplay of input, interaction, motivation, and individual differences as they strive to achieve proficiency in a second language.
- 2. Diversity of Learners and Contexts:** Learners come from diverse linguistic backgrounds, cultural contexts,

and educational experiences, each with unique needs, goals, and learning trajectories. SLA research recognizes the importance of acknowledging and valuing this diversity and considering the sociocultural, political, and institutional contexts that shape language learning experiences.

- 3. Role of Theory and Research:** Theoretical frameworks in SLA, such as the Input Hypothesis, Interactionist Approach, and Critical Period Hypothesis, provide lenses to understand and interpret language learning phenomena. Empirical research in SLA contributes valuable insights into language acquisition's cognitive, neural, and social processes, informing theory development and educational practice.
- 4. Pedagogical Implications:** Understanding SLA theories and research findings has practical language teaching and learning implications. Educators can design instruction that aligns with principles of effective language acquisition, incorporating communicative tasks, meaningful input, learner autonomy, and culturally responsive practices to promote language proficiency and intercultural competence.
- 5. Continued Exploration and Innovation:** SLA is a dynamic field characterized by ongoing exploration, innovation, and interdisciplinary collaboration. Advances in technology, neuroscience, and educational psychology continue to shape our understanding of language learning processes and inform the development of new methodologies, interventions, and tools to support language learners.

Second Language Acquisition is a rich and evolving field with profound implications for individuals, communities, and societies in an increasingly interconnected world. By embracing the complexity of language learning, honouring the diversity of learners and contexts, integrating theory and research into practice, and fostering a spirit of inquiry and innovation, SLA scholars and practitioners can contribute to the advancement of language education and promote linguistic diversity, cultural understanding, and global citizenship.

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BAB 13

LANGUAGE VARIETIES

Oleh Puspa Fortuna Zulfa

13. 1 Introduction

Language is an important bridge for communicating with others. The message can be delivered as clearly as possible and it makes two sides can understand each other. Communities of speech have a specific set of norms in language use through life and interaction together, and therefore they can emerge between all groups that frequently interact and share certain norms and ideologies. Every community have different characteristic suitable with their culture where they live. Family relationships, workplace, friendships, and social class can also be causes of language variety. Therefore, a variety can mean something greater than a single language and also something smaller, even less than something traditionally called a dialect (Wardhaugh, 2006). Language varieties can be similar with *lect* that is defined as a general term for any distinctive language or linguistic expression form. Linguists use this term for covering the overlapping language subcategories, such as dialect, register, jargon, and idiolect. In this chapter, we would like to explain clearly about language varieties covering subcategories of language, language varieties from social status, social class, gender, education, age, occupation and also religion. Generally, the subs will discuss: language varieties in terms of speakers, language varieties in terms of use, language varieties in terms of

formality, language varieties in terms of means, and the example cases of language varieties.

13.2 Language Varieties

Through sociolinguistic studies, we can find out language varieties as well as social groups or classes in society. (Chaer & Agustina, 2010) suggest that there are two views regarding language varieties. First, varieties of language are seen as a result of the social diversity of language speakers and the diversity of language functions. Second, varieties of language already exist to fulfill their function as a means of interaction in diverse societies. This can be seen from gender, education, social status, social class, age, occupation, religion and social institutions so that language varieties emerge. For example, the language used by lecturers, teachers, clerics and various other professions is certainly different from the language used by pedicab drivers, meatball sellers, and market sellers. The language used by students is certainly different from the language used by shoe factory workers whose average education ends at junior high or high school level. Language variety is a type of language variety whose use is adapted to the function and situation without producing basic rules that apply in the language concerned (Suwito, 1985).

13.2.1 Language varieties in terms of speakers

Language varieties in terms of speakers are individual language varieties and language varieties from a relatively large number of individuals who reside in one place/region or area (idiolects and dialects).

1. Dialect

Evolving from the fields of historical linguistics and dialectology, variationists are particularly interested in how languages change over time and how these changes lead to linguistic differences and linguistic varieties across space (Campbell-Kibler, 2010). Language varieties from a group of relatively numerous speakers who reside in one particular place, region or area (areal dialect, regional dialect, geographical dialect). In addition, they have added important dimension based on how language spreads and changes through not only the time and geographic space, but social space also, with detail social structures like socio-economic status, age, gender, and race. In life, a person may live with one dialect, but not only live with one register, because in his life as a member of society, there are definitely more than one field of practice. Dialect came from the word *dialektos* which was originally used in the Greek language at that time. There are five kinds of differences in dialects/forms (Waridah, 2017), namely:

- a. Phonetic differences, polymorphism or allophonics. This difference is in the field of phonology, and usually speakers of these dialects are not aware of this difference
- b. Semantic differences
- c. Anomasiological differences that denote different names based on a single concept given in several different places
- d. Semasiological differences are the giving of the same name to several different concepts
- e. Morphological differences

The mention of a dialect of a language is influenced by the growth in the number of uses, different places and times which give rise to differences and the origin of the identity of the users. For example, England is not only British, but

also America, Australia, even Asia and Europe (Suwarna, 2021).

2. Idiolect

Idiolect means individual language (Hazen, 2006). This term came from the Greek word *idio*, which means personal, private, own, peculiar, separate, distinct with a back-formation of dialect. This variety relates to voice color, word choice, language style, sentence structure, etc. A simple example of an idiolect is if we are already familiar with someone, just by hearing their voice, we already know who they are because their distinctive voice is already familiar to our ears. Further, its meaning regions mostly fall into two categories:

- a. The total number of a person's languages, including all possible utterances.
- b. The linguistic output of a person (i.e., only what the person says and not the internal knowledge in his mind). For some experts, the emphasis here is on the constellation of patterns of language varieties that differentiates a person from other speakers of the same dialect.

Everyone has their own idiolect. The existence of an idiolect means that there is a characteristic in the language that emphasizes the language within itself (Qory'ah, et al., 2019). Idiolect is influenced by various factors, one of which is the individual's internal factors. These factors can be the family background or education of the speaker which influences differences in language acquisition. This factor gives rise to the formation of a unique language style for each speaker. Idiolect is one of the differences between individual ways of speaking.

3. Chronolect

Chronolect varieties or temporal dialects, namely varieties in language used by social groups at certain times. Varieties of Indonesian in the thirties, varieties of the language in the fifties and varieties used today. The language varieties of the three eras are certainly different in terms of pronunciation, spelling, morphology and syntax. What is most visible is usually in terms of the lexicon because this field is very easy to change due to changes in socio-culture, science and technology (Yusup, et al., 2022). The following are the examples of chronolect used in the initial year where Bahasa Indonesia was not used standardly after Youth Pledge Day (1928):

“Doeloe” is pronounced “Dulu”

“Poetosan” is pronounced “Putusan”

“Pemoeda” is pronounced “Pemuda”

Apart from that, there is prokem language or slang which was introduced later. Prokem language is characterized by the Betawi dialect in which the last two phonemes are cut off and then the -ok form is inserted in front of the remaining final phonemes. For example, the word “Bapak” is cut off by “Bap” and then inserted with -ok to become “Bokap” (Yusup, et al., 2022). The Prokem language emerged and dominantly developed as the Betawi language which experienced a shift in meaning among Jakarta teenagers until it spread to the Yogyakarta, Semarang and other areas. The development of the prokem language itself until now has been very significant, with the existence of slang languages from the youth community which are borrowings, acronym, abbreviations or puns. The examples are as follows:

"Gpp" is pronounced "Nggak pa-pa" (Tidak apa-apa/Nevermind)

"Gamon" is pronounced "Gagal move on" (Failed to move on)

"Begitu sulit" is pronounced "Begitu sulit" (So difficult)

4. Sociolect

Language varieties are not absolutely caused by speakers alone, but also by social interaction factors carried out by speakers. Sociolect or social dialect is a variety of language that is related to the status, class and social class of its speakers. Sociolectic varieties discuss the personal problems of the speakers, such as age, education, gender, occupation, level of nobility, and socio-economic conditions. Social status is usually related to work and education. Meanwhile, if we look at the age and gender of the speaker, the older a person is, the more vocabulary they have and they have a good understanding of language structure. In connection with language varieties relating to the level, group, status and social class of the speakers, people usually refer to language varieties as acrolect, basilect, vulgar, slang, colloquial, jargon and prokem. Acrolect is creole varieties tend to be respected because their grammatical structure does not deviate significantly from the standard variety. On the other hand, basilect is a language variety that is considered less prestigious or of lower standing. Vulgar is a variety of language that shows that the speaker is uneducated people. While, slang is a variety of language that is special and secret because it is used by a certain community and non-community people are not allowed to understand it. Next, colloquial is a variety of language that is commonly used every day in informal situations. Jargon is a variety of language that is only understood by certain

groups in society. Prokem is a non-standard variety of Indonesian that was common in Jakarta in the 1970s which was later replaced by a variety called slang.

13.2.2 Language varieties in terms of use

Language varieties regarding their use or function are called functionalities or varieties (Nababan, 1984). There is also the term register, a description of the variety of languages used in certain fields and language use based on situations (formal/informal) or language means.

1. Use in certain fields

This concerns the use of language in certain fields or activities, such as journalism, education, economics, trade, military, and so on. The use of language in each field has certain characteristics. In the field of journalism, language is usually communicative and not long-winded. However, it is different in the military sector, which often uses firm language and is full of instructions.

2. The use of language is based on situations and language means

Every situation has a different language. If the situation is happy, then usually someone will use friendly, cheerful language and express that joy. On the contrary, if the situation is grieving, then usually someone will use vocabulary worth patience, sorrow, and so on. If we look at the language means used, there will be differences between spoken and written language. Often people use spoken language more dominantly than written language. This is because spoken language contains intonation and emphasis which are useful for providing understanding to the interlocutor. Meanwhile, written language does not have it or is flat, depending on who reads it and each person who reads it also has their own perception.

13.2.3 Language variations in terms of formality

There are several language varieties based on formality, including:

1. Static or frozen register

It is the most formal language variety, and is usually used in formal ceremonies or solemn events. Usually, since it is formalized, it is produced via recitation rather than spontaneous speech. It is called the most careful and elegant variety, reserved for pivotal or symbolic moments. Further, it is frozen in time and form as well as it does not change and is often learned by rote. The example is prayers, Biblical verse and Pledge of allegiance.

2. Formal register

This register is often used in writing (although it is not rarely used in spoken language), impersonal and professional as well as it is called the generally serious level of language. It also avoids slang and speaks in complete sentences. For example : in official meetings, state speeches, official correspondence, religious lectures, textbooks, academic and medical language. In its use, the speaker uses 'have not' instead of 'haven't'.

3. Consultative register

Business style or consultative style is a variety of language that is commonly used in ordinary conversations at school, and in meetings or discussions that are results or production oriented. It is also called as the plain everyday style. In this register, background technical information is provided and interruptions are allowed. Besides, the use of words like 'I see' or 'uh huuh' are commonly spoken.

4. Casual register

Relaxed style or casual style is a variety of language used in informal situations to chat with family or close friends while resting, exercising, etc. Casual register is a

two-way speech participation characterized by slang, ellipsis, and non-verbal aids (body-language). Interruptions are very common. For example : In its use, it is very common to call someone with some terms like 'sis, bro, bestie, girl'.

5. Intimate register

This register is usually used between two loved ones, or talk with the family, close friends, etc. Here, in a private intimate setting, intonation is more important than words and grammar. Incidentally, this register is also associated with the language of sexual harassment. We would like to avoid using this register in public and professional situations.

13.2.4 Language variations in terms of means

Based on the means, language varieties consist of spoken and written varieties. Between the two, there are significant differences. The variety of spoken language is characterized by non-segmental (non-linguistic) elements in the form of intonation, facial expressions and gestures when expressing a language. On the other hand, delivery in various written languages is expressed in written form and this makes it unlimited in space and time, anywhere and at any time.

13.2 The example case of Language Varieties

1. Sociolect

Taken from Sari et al's (Sari, et al., 2018) research report entitled *Sosiolek Komunitas Waria di Kota Pontianak Menggunakan Pendekatan Sociolinguistik* (Sociolect of Transgender Community in Pontianak using Sociolinguistics Approach), there are four parts of language variations used based on a) language variations in terms of speakers, 2) language variations in terms of age, 3) language variations in terms of sex, and 4) language variations in terms of

occupation. The function of the language variations expressed by transgender speakers is to 1) attract the attention of others, 2) express one's emotions, 3) communicate desires, 4) carry out social integration and adaptation, and 5) carry out social control. Examples of language variations that they have that are different from people in general or only those among themselves who understand it: Apose (Apa/What), Barakuda/Baronang (Baru/New), Eike/Akika (Aku/I), etc.

2. Language Varieties Use in Terms of Formality and Means

Taken from Hasanah et al's (Hasanah, et al., 2020) research report entitled *Analisis Variasi Bahasa Pada Komunitas di Jejaring Sosial WhatsApp: Kajian Sociolinguistik* (Analysis of Language Varieties of Community in WhatsApp: Sociolinguistics Studies), it was found that the use of language variations such as 1) dialect, 2) Vulgar, 3) Slang, and 4) Colloquial. For example, "Bujuran (Benar/Right-Code mixing of two languages, Banjar and Indonesia), Anjir (from the word Anjing/Dog-animal's name), and Otw (On the way-the abbreviation). The purpose of these expressions is to facilitate communication within the community between its members.

3. Chronolect

Taken from Bieswanger's (Bieswanger, 2008) research report entitled *Varieties of English in Current English Language Teaching*, he stated that the vast majority of English speakers/users today are not native users of the language, there is great diversity in the varieties of English used today and even native English speakers rarely speak the very common traditional Standard English. Furthermore, as a result of globalization, the function of English as a tool of international communication needs to be rethought in the English class. This not only includes

linguistic skills to understand various accents and be understood by others, but also includes knowledge of other cultures that equip students with the ability to respond comprehensively to problems arising from cultural differences between international communication participants (Gnutzmann and Intemann in (Bieswanger, 2008)). From those statements, he concluded that varieties of English are still not represented in ELT today. It is because the use of English in classroom is sometimes different from the English used by native speakers in a conversation and appears confusion of students although they had had more years to learn in secondary school.

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BAB 14

LANGUAGE, SOCIETY, AND CULTURE

Oleh Haliah Batau

14. 1 Introductoion

Language is a form of communication used by humans. Society is an organization or club formed for a particular purpose or activity. Culture can be defined as all the ways of life including arts, beliefs, and institutions of a particular population that are passed down from generation to generation. Language, society and culture have relationship each other.

Language, society, and culture can shape the way humans communicate, interact, and understand the world around them. At the heart of this nexus lies language is a dynamic system of communication comprised of symbols, rules, and conventions. Language not only facilitates communication but also serves as a reflection of societal norms, values, and identities. In turn, society provides the context within which language is used, influencing linguistic variation, usage, and meaning. Culture, deeply intertwined with both language and society, imbues language with layers of symbolic meaning, encoding cultural knowledge, beliefs, and practices.

This introduction sets the stage for exploring the multifaceted relationship between language, society, and culture. We will delve into how language operates as a social phenomenon, reflecting and shaping social structures, power dynamics, and identity constructions within society. Additionally, we will examine the role of culture in influencing language structure, usage, and interpretation, highlighting how

cultural context shapes linguistic expressions and meanings. Throughout this exploration, we will uncover the ways in which language, society, and culture intersect and influence one another, ultimately shaping human communication and social interactions in diverse cultural contexts.

14. 2 Definition

14. 2. 1 Language

Language is commonly defined as a form of communication that is nonstereotyped and nonfinite. So, it is learned and creative. By creative we generally mean that language is unlimited in its scope. Speakers of language are able to produce and interpret an unlimited number of utterance that they have never before heard.

Definition of language is given by several linguists. Clark and Clark (1977 : 3) said that language stands at the center of human affairs, from the most prosaic to the most profound. It is used or haggling with store clerks, telling of umpires, and gossiping with friends as well as for negotiating contracts, discussing ethics, and explain religious beliefs. It is the medium through which the manners, morals and mythology of society are passed on to the next generation. Indeed, it is a basic ingredient in virtually every social situation. The thread that runs through all these activities is communication, people trying to put their ideas over to others. As the main vehicle of human communication, language is indispensable.

Language is a system of communication consisting of symbols and rules is widely acknowledged in linguistic literature. One of the sources that provides a comprehensive definition of language is "Language Files: Materials for an Introduction to Language and Linguistics" by Ohio State University's Department of Linguistics 2016 : 3), it defines language as:

"Language is a system of communication using sounds or gestures that are put together in meaningful ways

according to a set of rules. Human language can be spoken or signed, but it can also be written or conveyed in other ways, such as through body movements. "

This definition encapsulates the core components of language, including its use of symbols (sounds or gestures), rule-governed structure, and diverse modalities of expression.

Another authoritative source for defining language is "An Introduction to Language" by Victoria Fromkin, Robert Rodman, and Nina Hyams (2018 : 3), it defines language as follows:

"Language is a system of symbols and rules for combining these symbols in ways that can generate an infinite number of possible messages and meanings. "

This definition succinctly captures the essence of language as a symbolic system with rules for combining symbols to convey meaning. It highlights the generative capacity of language, emphasizing its ability to produce a limitless variety of expressions and interpretations.

Another notable definition of language can be found in "Linguistics: An Introduction to Linguistic Theory" by Bruce Hayes, Robert Kirchner, and Donca Steriade (2004 : 4). define language as:

"Language is a cognitive system that enables humans to communicate information about the world, using a socially shared code made up of conventionalized symbols (sounds, words, gestures) and a set of rules for manipulating them. "

This definition emphasizes language as a cognitive faculty essential for communication, grounded in a socially shared code comprising symbols and rules. It underscores the dual nature of language as both a cognitive capacity and a social phenomenon, reflecting its intricate relationship with human cognition, society, and culture.

14. 2. 2 Society

Society is an organization or club formed for a particular purpose or activity. Society is synonymy with association or club. According to Oxford Dictionary society is a group of individuals, all of the same species, in which there is some degree of co-operation, communication, and division of labour. There are some definitions about society given by linguists.

A definition of society can be found in "Sociology: A Brief Introduction" by Richard T. Schaefer (2018 : 5) defines society as society is a group of people who share a culture and a territory. This concise definition captures the essence of society as a collective of individuals bound together by shared cultural norms, values, and practices within a defined geographic area. It highlights the interplay between culture and social organization, emphasizing the role of both cultural commonalities and spatial proximity in shaping social relationships and interactions.

Another definition of society can be found in "Sociology: The Essentials" by Margaret L. Andersen and Howard F. Taylor (2017 : 4). define society as:

"A society is a large social grouping that shares the same geographical territory and is subject to the same political authority and dominant cultural expectations."

This definition emphasizes the structural aspects of society, including its territorial boundaries, political organization, and cultural norms. It underscores the importance of shared geographical space, political governance, and cultural coherence in defining the boundaries and characteristics of a society.

Another definition of society can be found in "Sociology: Exploring the Architecture of Everyday Life" by David M. Newman (2017 : 7). defines society as:

"A society is a large group of people who live in the same area and participate in a common economy or culture."
"

This definition encapsulates the social and economic dimensions of society, emphasizing the shared geographical space and participation in common economic and cultural activities as defining features. It highlights the interconnectedness of individuals within a larger social framework, where economic and cultural factors play significant roles in shaping social life and interactions.

14. 2. 3 Culture

Culture can be called as the way of life for an entire society. As such, it includes codes of manner dress, language, religion, ritual and art. We can also say that culture is a way of life of a group of people – the behaviors, beliefs, values, and symbols that they accept, generally without thinking about them, and that are passed along by communication and imitation from one generation to the next.

A definition of culture can be found in "Cultural Anthropology: A Toolkit for a Global Age" by Kenneth J. Guest (2017 : 44). defines culture as:

"Culture consists of the shared beliefs, values, and practices that people learn, share, and transmit from generation to generation. "

This definition succinctly encapsulates the core components of culture, including beliefs, values, and practices, while also emphasizing the processes of learning, sharing, and transmission across generations. It highlights the dynamic and socially constructed nature of culture, acknowledging its role in shaping individual and collective identities, behaviors, and worldviews.

Another definition of culture can be found in "Intercultural Communication: A Contextual Approach" by James W. Neuliep (2017 : 17). defines culture as:

"Culture consists of the shared values, norms, rules, and behaviors of a group of people who have been socialized into their ways of thinking, feeling, and acting. "

This definition provides a comprehensive understanding of culture by incorporating shared values, norms, rules, and behaviors, while also emphasizing the socialization process through which individuals internalize cultural practices. It underscores the collective nature of culture, highlighting its role in shaping cognitive, affective, and behavioral patterns within specific social groups.

Another definition of culture can be found in "Cultural Anthropology: A Perspective on the Human Condition" by Emily A. Schultz and Robert H. Lavenda (2019 : 40) define culture as:

"Culture is a system of knowledge, beliefs, patterns of behavior, artifacts, and institutions that are created, learned, and shared by a group of people. "

This definition provides a holistic view of culture, encompassing various elements such as knowledge, beliefs, behaviors, artifacts, and institutions. It emphasizes the dynamic and socially constructed nature of culture, highlighting the processes of creation, learning, and sharing within a specific social group. Additionally, it acknowledges the diversity of cultural expressions and the interconnectedness of different cultural components within a larger social context.

14. 3 Relationship

14. 3. 1 Relationship Between Language and Society

The relationship between language and society is multifaceted and profound, influencing various aspects of human interaction, identity, and social structure. Here are some key aspects of this relationship:

1. Communication and Social Interaction

Language serves as the primary means of communication within society. It enables individuals to convey thoughts, emotions, and intentions, facilitating social interaction and cooperation. The structure and use of language are shaped by societal

norms and conventions, influencing how individuals express themselves and interpret others' messages.

2. Social Identity and Group Membership

Language plays a crucial role in shaping individual and group identities within society. Dialects, accents, and language varieties serve as markers of social identity, reflecting factors such as region, ethnicity, class, and education level. Language can also be used to assert group membership and solidarity, fostering a sense of belonging and community among speakers of the same language or dialect.

3. Socialization and Cultural Transmission

Language is central to the process of socialization, through which individuals learn the norms, values, and behaviors of their society. From infancy, individuals acquire language skills through interaction with caregivers and peers, internalizing cultural knowledge and worldview embedded in language. As such, language serves as a medium for the transmission of cultural heritage across generations.

4. Power and Social Hierarchies

Language can reflect and perpetuate power dynamics within society. Dominant languages often enjoy privileged status and serve as a marker of social prestige and authority. Linguistic discrimination based on accent, dialect, or proficiency can contribute to social inequalities and marginalization. Language policies and practices may reinforce existing power structures or challenge them by promoting linguistic diversity and inclusivity.

5. Cultural Expressions and Social Practices

Language reflects and shapes cultural norms, practices, and values within society. Different languages encode unique ways of understanding and interacting with the world, influencing social rituals, expressions of politeness, and forms of address. Cultural concepts and ideologies are often embedded

in language through idioms, metaphors, and linguistic nuances, shaping societal attitudes and behaviors.

6. Social Change and Globalization

Language evolves in response to social, economic, and technological changes within society. Globalization and increased interconnectedness have led to the spread of dominant languages, cultural exchange, and language contact phenomena such as code-switching and borrowing. These processes can result in linguistic hybridity, cultural adaptation, and the emergence of new forms of expression in response to shifting societal dynamics.

In summary, language and society are deeply intertwined, with language serving as both a reflection of social structures and a powerful force that shapes social interactions, identities, and cultural practices. Understanding the complex relationship between language and society is essential for comprehending the dynamics of human communication and social organization in diverse cultural contexts.

14. 3. 2 Relationship Between Language and Culture

The relationship between language and culture is intricate and symbiotic, with each influencing and shaping the other in profound ways. Here are some key aspects of this relationship:

1. Language as a Carrier of Culture

Language serves as a primary vehicle for expressing and transmitting cultural knowledge, values, and traditions. Through language, individuals communicate shared beliefs, customs, and practices that constitute their cultural identity. Linguistic expressions, such as idioms, proverbs, and metaphors, often encapsulate cultural concepts and convey cultural nuances that may be difficult to translate into other languages.

2. Cultural Influence on Language Structure and Usage

Culture influences the structure and usage of language, shaping vocabulary, grammar, and discourse patterns. Different cultures prioritize certain concepts and phenomena, leading to variations in linguistic categories and expressions. For example, some languages may have specific vocabulary to describe aspects of local flora, fauna, or traditional practices that are culturally significant.

3. Cultural Context and Meaning Construction

Language is interpreted within a cultural context, with cultural norms and values influencing how meanings are constructed and understood. Cultural differences in communication styles, politeness norms, and conversational patterns can impact interpersonal interactions and cross-cultural communication. Understanding cultural context is essential for accurately interpreting linguistic expressions and avoiding misunderstandings.

4. Identity and Cultural Affiliation

Language plays a central role in shaping individual and group identities within cultural contexts. Language serves as a marker of cultural affiliation and belonging, with speakers identifying with particular linguistic communities based on shared language and cultural heritage. Language choice and proficiency can influence perceptions of identity, social status, and belonging within society.

5. Language Maintenance and Cultural Preservation

Language preservation efforts are often closely linked to cultural preservation initiatives. Minority languages and dialects are repositories of cultural knowledge and heritage, embodying unique ways of understanding the world. Language revitalization efforts aim to safeguard linguistic diversity and

preserve cultural traditions threatened by globalization, assimilation, and language shift.

6. Cultural Adaptation and Language Change

Language evolves in response to cultural changes and societal developments. Contact between different cultures through trade, migration, or colonization can lead to language contact phenomena such as borrowing, code-switching, and creolization. Cultural influences shape language change, influencing lexicon, syntax, and phonology over time.

In summary, language and culture are deeply intertwined, with language serving as both a reflection of cultural values and practices and a means of preserving and perpetuating cultural heritage. Understanding the dynamic relationship between language and culture is essential for fostering intercultural understanding, promoting linguistic diversity, and navigating diverse cultural contexts in an increasingly interconnected world.

14. 3. 3 Relationship Between Language, Society, and Culture

The relationship between language, society, and culture is complex and interconnected, with each influencing and shaping the others in profound ways. Here's an exploration of this relationship:

1. Language as a Social Phenomenon

Language is inherently social, existing within the context of human interaction and communication. It is the primary means through which individuals within a society express themselves, share information, and interact with one another. Language reflects and reinforces social structures, norms, and power dynamics within society. For example, linguistic variations such as accents, dialects, and registers often

correlate with social factors such as class, ethnicity, and education level, serving as markers of social identity and status.

2. Language as a Carrier of Culture

Language is intricately intertwined with culture, serving as a vehicle for transmitting cultural knowledge, values, and traditions across generations. Cultural concepts, beliefs, and practices are encoded within language through vocabulary, idioms, and linguistic expressions. Language reflects cultural norms and worldviews, influencing how individuals perceive and interpret the world around them. Moreover, language plays a central role in shaping individual and group identities within cultural contexts, with language choice and proficiency often serving as markers of cultural affiliation and belonging.

3. Language Policies and Social Dynamics

Language policies enacted by governments and institutions can have significant implications for societal dynamics and cultural identity. Official language mandates, bilingual education programs, and language planning initiatives shape linguistic landscapes and influence access to resources, opportunities, and social mobility within society. Language policies may reflect broader social and political tensions related to issues of identity, power, and inclusion, with debates over language rights and linguistic diversity often intersecting with broader social movements for equality and social justice.

4. Cultural Influence on Language Structure and Usage

Cultural norms and values influence language use in various contexts, such as politeness norms, speech rituals, and conversational styles. Moreover, cultural context plays a crucial role in interpreting linguistic expressions and understanding meaning, with cultural

differences impacting cross-cultural communication and interaction.

5. **Language Change and Cultural Evolution**

Language evolves in response to social, cultural, and historical factors, reflecting broader societal shifts and cultural transformations over time. Contact between different cultures through trade, migration, or colonization can lead to language contact phenomena such as borrowing, code-switching, and creolization. Cultural influences shape language change, influencing lexicon, syntax, and phonology. Moreover, technological advancements and globalization have accelerated the pace of language change and cultural exchange, leading to the emergence of new linguistic and cultural phenomena in contemporary society.

The relationship between language, society, and culture is dynamic and multifaceted, with each exerting influence on the others in complex ways. Understanding this relationship is essential for comprehending the intricacies of human communication, social interaction, and cultural diversity in diverse cultural contexts.

How is language used in culture and society.

Language and variation within languages play both a unifying and a diversifying role in human society as a whole. Language is a part of culture, but culture is a complex totality containing many different features, and the boundaries cultural features are not clear-cut, nor do they coincide.

How does culture and society influence language development ?

Culture and society play a significant role in shaping our language development. Children learn language through social interaction and exposure to the language used in their environment. The language

spoken in a culture reflect the values, beliefs, and customs of that society.

14.4 Summary

Language in turn is often said to help make humans human. Because we can learn the symbol system of our language, we can refer to the past and to the future. We can develop and remember concepts and things about and communicate about things we have never seen or heard or felt for ourselves. From these concepts and communications, these memories of the past and ideas of the future we largely develop a concept of ourselves and of others and our relationship to them. Thus, language seems to be a necessary basis for our personal and social identity and for our social relationships.

The relationship between language, society, and culture is intricate and interconnected. Language serves as a social phenomenon within society, reflecting and reinforcing social structures, norms, and power dynamics. Additionally, language is deeply intertwined with culture, serving as a carrier of cultural knowledge, values, and traditions. Cultural influences shape language structure and usage, influencing vocabulary, grammar, and discourse patterns. Moreover, language policies and social dynamics intersect with broader cultural and societal tensions, impacting issues of identity, power, and inclusion. Language change occurs in response to cultural evolution and societal shifts, reflecting the dynamic nature of human communication and cultural exchange. Understanding the complex relationship between language, society, and culture is essential for navigating diverse cultural contexts and promoting intercultural understanding and communication.

To clarify, a culture represents the beliefs, practices and artifacts of a group. While society represents the social structure and organization of the people who share those

beliefs and practices. Neither society nor culture could exist without the other.

14. 5 Questions for Discussion

Here are some questions for discussion related to the relationship between language, society, and culture:

1. How does language serve as a reflection of social identity within a society? Provide examples to illustrate your answer.
2. Discuss the role of language in transmitting cultural knowledge and traditions across generations. How does language preserve and perpetuate cultural heritage?
3. How do cultural norms and values influence language structure and usage? Provide examples of how cultural context shapes linguistic expressions and meanings.
4. Explore the impact of language policies on societal dynamics and cultural identity. How do language policies reflect broader social and political tensions?
5. Investigate the phenomenon of language change in response to cultural evolution and societal shifts. How do technological advancements and globalization contribute to language change and cultural exchange?
6. Discuss the challenges and opportunities of navigating linguistic and cultural diversity in contemporary society. How can individuals and communities promote intercultural understanding and communication?

These questions can serve as prompts for discussion, reflection, or research on the intricate relationship between language, society, and culture.

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BAB 15

LANGUAGE IN COMMUNICATION

Oleh Yunus Busa

15. 1 Introduction

Language in Communication is something that highlights the role and function of language in the process of human communication. Language is the main tool used by humans to convey thoughts, ideas, and emotions to others. In the context of communication, language has a very important role because it is a medium used to interact, share information, build relationships, and understand the world around us. **The themes described are:**

1. **Basic Concepts of Language:** This chapter can begin by discussing the basic concepts of language, including the definition of language, elements of language (such as phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics), as well as the functions of language in human life.
2. **Human Communication:** The next description may discuss the concept of human communication, including communication models, elements of communication (message, sender, receiver, channel, and context), and types of communication (verbal and non-verbal).
3. **The Role of Language in Communication:** This chapter can describe in detail the role of language in the process of human communication, such as as a tool for conveying information, self-expression, shaping social identity, influencing others, and building relationships between individuals.

4. **Communication Context:** The descriptions in this section may emphasize the importance of understanding the context of communication in language use, including cultural, social, psychological, and situational contexts that can influence the meaning and interpretation of messages.
5. **Errors in Communication:** This chapter can discuss some common mistakes in verbal communication, such as language vagueness, ambiguity, euphemisms, etc., as well as strategies to avoid such mistakes.
6. **Communication Skills Development:** Finally, this chapter can outline several strategies and techniques that can help readers to develop effective communication skills, including proper language use, listening skills, and awareness of the context of communication (Mailani, Nuraeni, Syakila, & Lazuardi, 2022).

Thus, the explanation entitled "Language in Communication" will give the reader a deep understanding of the importance of language in human communication processes, as well as strategies for using language effectively in various communication contexts.

15. 2 Basic Concepts of Language

Basic Concepts of Language refers to the fundamental principles that form the basis of the structure and function of language. The following is a more detailed explanation of the Basic Concepts of the Language:

1. **Language is** a complex communication system used by humans to convey thoughts, ideas, and emotions. In general, language consists of sound units (phonemes), words (morphemes), and syntactic rules used to form sentences (Harahap & Adeni, 2021; Mislikhah, 2014).
2. **Language Elements:**
 - a. **Phonology:** The study of sound systems in a language, including sounds (phonemes) and phonetic rules governing pronunciation.

- b. **Morphology:** Pays attention to the internal structure of words, including word formation, inflection, and derived word formation.
- c. **Syntax:** Examines the rules governing the wording of sentences to create clear and structured meaning.
- d. **Semantics:** Is the study of meaning in language, including the relationship between words, phrases, and sentences with the real world (Harahap & Adeni, 2021; Mislikhah, 2014).

3. Language Functions:

- a. **Communication:** Language is used to convey messages and interact with others.
- b. **Self-Expression:** Language allows individuals to convey personal thoughts, feelings, and experiences.
- c. **Social Identity:** Language also plays a role in shaping social and group identities, including ethnic, cultural, and social groups.
- d. **Influence:** Language has the power to influence others, either directly or indirectly, through the use of persuasive or convincing words.
- e. **Abstract Thinking:** Language allows humans to think abstractly and complexly, organize ideas, and create new concepts (Harahap & Adeni, 2021; Mailani et al., 2022).

4. Language Variations:

- a. Language is a dynamic and constantly changing phenomenon, and has a variety of variations according to the context in which it is used, such as dialects, accents, slang, and jargon.

- b. Language variation can also be influenced by social, cultural, geographical, and historical factors (Harahap & Adeni, 2021; Mailani et al., 2022).

5. Language Learning:

Basic Language Concepts are also relevant in the context of language learning, where an understanding of phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics helps learners to understand the structure and function of the language being studied. By understanding the Basic Concepts of Language, one can have a better understanding of the structure and function of language, as well as how language is used in various contexts of communication and social interaction (Mailani et al., 2022; Winda, 2016).

15. 3 Human Communication

Human Communication is the process of exchanging information, ideas, feelings, and meanings between individuals involving various elements and factors. The following is a more detailed description of Human Communication:

➤ Communication Model:

Komunikasi manusia dapat dipahami melalui berbagai model komunikasi yang menggambarkan komponen-komponen utama dalam proses komunikasi, seperti model linier (pengirim-pesan-penerima), model interaktif (pengirim-pesan-saluran-penerima-feedback), dan model transaksional (interaksi yang dinamis antara pengirim dan penerima) (Nurrohim & Anatan, 2009; Pandaleke, Waleleng, & Grace, 2020).

➤ Communication Elements:

- a. **Message:** Information conveyed by the sender to the recipient through various media.

- b. **Sender:** The person or entity that generates and delivers the message.
- c. **Recipient:** The person or entity that receives and processes the message.
- d. **Channel:** A medium or means used to transmit a message, such as oral, written, visual, or electronic.
- e. **Context:** The environment or situation in which communication takes place, including factors such as culture, time, place, and interpersonal relationships between sender and receiver.
- f. **Feedback:** The response or response given by the recipient to the message he receives (Nurrohim & Anatan, 2009; Pandaleke et al., 2020).

➤ **Communication Type:**

- a. **Verbal:** Communication uses spoken or written words to convey messages, such as conversations, speeches, letters, or text messages.
- b. **Non-verbal:** Communication through facial expressions, body movements, body language, voice intonation, and other visual signs that do not use words.
- c. **Verbal and Non-verbal:** A combination of words and non-verbal expressions that are often used in everyday communication to convey messages effectively (Basuki, 2015; Pandaleke et al., 2020).

➤ **Communication Function:**

- a. **Information:** Conveying information, facts, or data to others.
- b. **Self-Expression:** Conveying personal feelings, thoughts, and experiences to others.
- c. **Interpersonal Relationships:** Establishing and maintaining interpersonal relationships between

individuals in a variety of contexts, such as family, friends, and co-workers.

- d. **Influence:** Influencing the thoughts, attitudes, or behavior of others through the messages conveyed (Basuki, 2015; Pandaleke et al., 2020).

➤ **Errors in Communication:**

- a. Errors in communication can occur due to vagueness of the message, ambiguation, technical glitches, or differences in perception between sender and receiver.
- b. Understanding and resolving communication errors is key to ensuring messages are delivered clearly and effectively.

➤ **Communication Skills:**

- a. Effective communication skills involve active listening skills, speaking clearly and regularly, crafting structured messages, understanding the context of communication, and adapting to the recipient's communication style and preferences (Basuki, 2015; Pandaleke et al., 2020).

By understanding the concepts and elements of Human Communication, a person can improve his or her communication skills, improve interpersonal relationships, and become a more effective communicator in a variety of situations and contexts.

15. 4 The Role Of Language In Communication

The role of language in communication is very important because language is the main tool used by humans to convey thoughts, ideas, feelings, and information to others. The following are some of the key roles of language in the human communication process:

1. **Conveying Information:** Language is used to convey information, facts, and data to others. Through carefully selected words and arranged in the right sentences, one can communicate complex ideas and thoughts clearly and structured.
2. **Self-Expression:** Language allows individuals to convey personal feelings, emotions, and experiences to others. By using appropriate words, a person can express their happiness, sadness, worry, or anxiety to others.
3. **Building Relationships:** Language plays a key role in establishing and maintaining interpersonal relationships between individuals. Through conversations, discussions, and other verbal interactions, people can strengthen emotional and social bonds with others, form friendships, and deepen family or professional relationships.
1. **Influence:** Language has the power to influence the thoughts, attitudes, and behavior of others. Through persuasive words, strong argumentation, or retorika Effectively, a person can influence others to change their views, take certain actions, or consider new ideas.
2. **Understanding the World:** Language helps humans to understand and interpret the world around them. Using language, people can describe abstract objects, events, or concepts, and share their knowledge and understanding with others.
3. **Social Identity:** Language is also an integral part of a person's social identity. A person's dialect, accent, distinctive vocabulary, and speaking style often reflect their geographic origin, culture, or social group. Through language, individuals can sense a sense of belonging and identify themselves with a particular group (Mailani et al., 2022; Mislikhah, 2014).

Thus, the role of language in communication is very complex and important in human life. Language is not only a tool for communication, but also an integral part of identity, interpersonal relationships, and understanding the world.

15. 5 Communication Context

Communication Context refers to the environment or situation in which the communication process occurs. This context is very important because it can affect the meaning and interpretation of the message conveyed and affect how the message is received by the recipient. The following are some important aspects of Communication Context:

1. **Cultural Context:** Culture has a great influence on the communication process. Cultural norms, values, and beliefs can influence how people speak, how to convey messages, and how to understand messages. For example, in some cultures, there are certain norms that govern how to speak to older or more powerful people.
2. **Social Context:** Social factors, such as social status, interpersonal relationships, and power differences, can also affect communication. People may communicate in different ways depending on whether they are talking to a friend, boss, or family member.
3. **Psychological Context:** An individual's psychological state, such as mood, emotional state, and perception, can affect how they communicate and the way they perceive messages. For example, someone who is angry may deliver a message in a higher tone or harsh words.
4. **Situational Context:** Situational context refers to the physical and environmental factors in which communication occurs. This includes the place, time, and circumstances in which the communication interaction takes place. For example, the communication that happens in the classroom will be different from the communication that happens at a party or at work.
5. **Historical Context:** Historical context includes historical factors or temporal context that can influence the meaning of a message. For example, a word or symbol may have a

certain meaning in the context of history or events that occurred in the past (Nurrohim & Anatan, 2009; Ramadania, Wulandari, & Nahlini, 2018).

Understanding the Context of Communication is important as it can help in interpreting messages more precisely and effectively. When a person understands the context in which communication takes place, they can pay more attention to the norms, values, and circumstances of the environment that might affect the meaning of the message. It also helps in correcting misunderstandings and ensuring that the message is conveyed appropriately and effectively.

15. 6 Communication Errors

Error in Communication is a mismatch between the message intended by the sender and the message received or understood by the recipient. This kind of error can occur for a variety of reasons, including vagueness of the message, differences in perception between sender and receiver, or technical glitches in communication channels. The following are some common examples of Communication Errors:

1. **Message Vagueness: Vague** or ambiguous messages can lead to misunderstandings or incorrect interpretations by the recipient. For example, the use of vague words or ambiguous phrases can make the message difficult to understand.
2. **Difference in Perception:** The receiver of the message can have different perceptions of the meaning or intention of the message conveyed by the sender. This can happen due to differences in cultural background, personal experience, or individual viewpoints.
3. **Technical Interference:** Technical interference in a communication channel, such as signal interference, noise, or other technical problems, may interfere with sending or

receiving messages. This can lead to loss or distortion of the information conveyed.

4. **Lack of Communication Skills:** Lack of communication skills can lead to errors in conveying messages clearly and effectively. For example, lack of listening skills or poor speaking skills can lead to misunderstandings or confusion.
5. **Language or Culture Differences:** Language or cultural differences between the sender and receiver of messages can cause misunderstandings or confusion in communication. Phrases, idioms, or cultural norms unfamiliar to the recipient can complicate the understanding of the message.
6. **Misinterpretation:** Sometimes the recipient of the message can misinterpret or expose the received message, especially if the message contains humor, irony, or more complex meanings (Anggraini, 2016; Pandaleke et al., 2020).

Communication errors can have significant consequences, including misunderstandings, conflicts, or failures in achieving communication goals. To avoid this kind of mistake, it is important to ensure that the message is conveyed clearly and precisely, as well as to pay attention to the context of the communication and the needs of the recipient of the message. Active listening, asking if there are any uncertainty, and ensuring feedback are some of the steps that can help in avoiding or correcting Errors in Communication.

15. 7 Development of Communication Skills

Communication Skills Development is a process to improve skills and effectiveness in communicating with others. Good communication skills are essential in many aspects of life, be it in professional, social, or personal contexts. Here are some steps you can take to develop communication skills:

1. **Practice Speaking Clearly and Regularly:** Practice speaking clearly, regularly, and structured can help improve verbal communication skills. Focus on proper use of words, appropriate intonation, and clear articulation.
2. **Active Listening Skills:** Active listening is an important skill in effective communication. This involves giving the speaker your full attention, avoiding distractions, asking relevant questions, and responding well to what is being conveyed.
3. **Developing Writing Skills:** Good writing skills are also important in communication. Regular writing exercises, such as taking notes, letters, or emails, can help improve the ability to convey thoughts and ideas in writing clearly and effectively.
4. **Understanding the Communication Context:** It is important to understand the context of communication, including culture, situations, and interpersonal relationships, in order to communicate messages appropriately. Adapting to a communication style that is appropriate to the context will help improve communication effectiveness.
5. **Receiving and Managing Feedback:** Receiving feedback from others is an effective way to improve communication skills. Being willing to accept constructive criticism, learn from mistakes, and continually make self-improvement will help improve communication skills.
6. **Body Language Comprehension:** Body language, including facial expressions, body movements, and other body language, is also an important part of communication. Understanding body language and using appropriate non-verbal cues can help improve overall comprehension and communication skills.
7. **Practice Communicating in Groups:** Communicating in groups or teams is an important skill in many contexts, especially in the workplace or in collaborative projects.

Participating in discussions, meetings, or group projects can help develop interpersonal communication skills.

8. **Learning from Examples:** Observing and learning from people who have good communication skills can be a source of inspiration and learning. Pay attention to their communication style, how they convey messages effectively, and the strategies they use in communicating (Harahap & Adeni, 2021; Nurrohim & Anatan, 2009).

By taking these steps consistently and continuously, a person can improve their communication skills significantly. Good communication skills not only allow a person to interact with others more effectively, but can also help in building strong relationships, achieving personal and professional goals, as well as being an effective leader.

A deep understanding of the importance of language in human communication processes, as well as strategies for using language effectively in a variety of communication contexts.

A deep understanding of the importance of language in human communication processes enables individuals to appreciate the role of language in conveying information, building relationships, understanding the world around them, and influencing others. The following are some of the reasons why language is so important in human communication:

1. **Conveying Information:** Language is the main tool used by humans to convey information, ideas, and thoughts to others. By using the right words and arranged in structured sentences, individuals can clearly convey their message to others.
2. **Self-Expression:** Language allows individuals to express their personal feelings, emotions, and experiences to others. By expressing themselves through language, individuals can gain a better understanding of themselves and build deeper relationships with others.
3. **Building Relationships:** Language plays a key role in establishing and maintaining interpersonal relationships

between individuals. Through conversations, discussions, and other verbal interactions, people can strengthen emotional and social bonds with others, form friendships, and deepen family or professional relationships.

4. **Influence:** Language has the power to influence the thoughts, attitudes, and behavior of others. Through persuasive words, strong argumentation, or effective rhetoric, a person can influence others to change their views, take certain actions, or consider new ideas.
5. **Understanding the World:** Language helps humans to understand and interpret the world around them. Using language, people can describe abstract objects, events, or concepts, and share their knowledge and understanding with others (Juriana, 2018; Mailani et al., 2022).

To use language effectively in a variety of communication contexts, here are some strategies that can be applied:

1. **Adjust Communication Style:** Adapt your speaking style and tone to the audience and context of communication. For example, the language and tone used in an informal conversation with a friend will differ from the language used in a formal presentation at work.
2. **Active Listening:** Give the speaker your full attention as they speak, and show your interest by nodding your head or giving verbal feedback. This shows that you pay attention and respect for what they have to say.
3. **Using Proper Body Language:** In addition to words, body language also plays an important role in communication. Use proper facial expressions, body movements, and eye contact to support your message.
4. **Avoid Unfamiliar Jargon or Slang:** Avoid using jargon or slang that your audience may not be familiar with, especially if they come from different cultural or linguistic backgrounds.

5. **Clarifying and Asking for Feedback:** If you feel that your message is not well understood, do not hesitate to clarify or ask for feedback from the recipient of the message. This helps ensure that your message is conveyed clearly and understood correctly (Mailani et al., 2022).

By understanding the importance of language in human communication and implementing effective strategies, individuals can become more effective communicators and be able to establish better relationships with others in a variety of communication contexts.

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Penulis lahir di Sidoarjo tanggal 3 April 1992. Penulis adalah seorang anak pertama dari pasangan Bambang Eko Sunarso dan Rindah Susanti. Penulis saat ini adalah dosen tetap pada Program Studi Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris Fakultas Keguruan dan Ilmu Pendidikan, Universitas Mayjend Sungkono Kota Mojokerto. Menyelesaikan pendidikan S1 pada Jurusan Sastra Inggris dan melanjutkan S2 pada Jurusan Ilmu Linguistik Universitas Brawijaya, Kota Malang. Penulis menekuni bidang Menulis.

Penulis pernah menjadi guru Bahasa Inggris SMP Taruna Nusa Harapan Kota Mojokerto selama satu tahun, kemudian melanjutkan studi S2. Setelah lulus S2 sampai saat ini menjadi Dosen.

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MetLife Assurance

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The writer is a lecturer at the Piksi Ganesha Polytechnic in Bandung. Linguistics is her interest and specialty; therefore, her research interests are Semiotics, Pragmatics, Forensic Linguistics, and Critical Discourse Analysis. **Tyas** is the short name of the author. She was born in Java, precisely in Surabaya, on November 11, but grew up in Papua, making her rich in various Indonesian cultures. A job that could take him on a journey has been a dream since childhood. The world of education gives it the meaning that learning is a never-ending process. Writing is a hobby that he always cultivates, and there are already two works with other fellow lecturers. The book chapters she has written with GetPress are Easy Grammar, ESP, Translating, Grammar The Sentence, and several book chapters that are still in the process of work. Also, the anthology of poetry has been published; some are in the process of publishing.

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The author was born in Curio-Enrekang, South Sulawesi, Indonesia on 10 October 1969. The author completed his undergraduate studies at Alauddin State Islamic University Makassar and S2 at Hasanuddin University Makassar full scholarship from the Ministry of Education & Culture of the Republic of Indonesia, and his doctoral studies at Makassar State University, with the same scholarship. The author currently has a career as a Lecturer at the Nonformal Education Study Program, Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Muhammadiyah Enrekang. University and has served as a Record at the same campus since 2020, having previously served as Chair for two periods when the campus was still a College.

Prior to that, the author worked as the Head of Curio Village, 2015-2020. Previously, from 1995-2020, he had the opportunity to become an employee at PT Inamco Varia Jasa Timika who was seconded to the work area of PT Freefort

Indonesia in Tembagapura. Alhamdulillah, since 2008 the author has been involved and very active in the Muhammadiyah management structure, starting from the Branch level, at the Assembly level and member of the Enrekang PDM until now, the author's leadership talents began to be honed in organisations even at the student level, where at that time the author was active in the Osis and the Muhammadiyah Student Association (IPM), then developed when he became a student in Makassar, namely while being active in the Muhammadiyah Student Association (IMM) as well as in the Massenrempulu Student Student Association (HPMM), and even served as General Secretary of PP-HPMM for the 1990-1994 period.

Since 2008, the author has also been involved in the development and empowerment of the Farmer Group Association (Gapoktan) in Enrekang Regency, a programme initiated by the Ministry of Agriculture from 2008-2017. The author has published several reputable articles according to scientific fields, among others. "Facing Covid-19 In Indonesia: Variations Of Learning Media And Online Teaching Learning Through You Tube And Zoom Application", "Journal of Critical Reviews 7 (19), 7427-7432 vol., 2020". "Contextualisation Of Zakat Policy In Challenging Poverty: A Study Of Zakat Management Policy In Enrekang District", "IOSR - JHSS., 2022".