

INTRODUCTION TO LINGUISTICS



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GETPRESS INDONESIA

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dan dengan cara apapun tanpa izin tertulis dari penerbit.

KATA PENGANTAR

Dengan mengucapkan puji syukur kehadirat Allah SWT, atas limpahan rahmat dan hidayahNya, maka Penulisan Buku dengan judul *Introduction to Linguistics* dapat diselesaikan dengan kerjasama tim penulis. *Introduction to Linguistics* merupakan buku yang memberikan pemahaman mengenai seluk beluk bahasa. Buku ini berisikan bahasan mengenai what is linguistics, phonetics: the sounds of language, phonology: functions and patterns voice, syntactic structures, semantics: analisis of meaning, the diversity of language, historical linguistics: language change, languages of the world, second language acquisition, dan pragmatics.

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, September 2023

Penulis

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CHAPTER 1

WHAT IS LINGUISTICS

By Novi Sriwulandari

1.1 Language and Languages

1.1.1 Language Definition

Language is a systematic, basically oral symbol that represents meanings related to life situations and experiences. Moreover, it has social functions (Nasr 1984; Francis 1958). It means that without language society would not exist. In addition, language is a social aspect of human life. It means that languages are concerned with preserving and prolonging patterns of relationships among individuals such as marriage, customs, and kinship relations (Soekemi 1994). In addition, a language is what the members of a particular society speak (Wardhaugh 2006). In other words, language is a means of communication. Language is a finite system of elements and principles that allow speakers to construct sentences to accomplish specific communication tasks. In other words, language is a means of communication (Mariani 2007).

Language consists of the various words and sounds used in a particular system and communicated between people through speech, writing, and gestures. Language is understood as the special human ability to receive and use complex written and phonetic structures as well as motor signals for specific thoughts and feelings. Language is also used to share expertise and experience. The problem on Earth is that language structures vary greatly from region to region. The diversity is so great that some people cannot understand the languages of members from different

districts or countries. To overcome such obstacles, people switch languages and exchange data between audio systems of different local languages.

1.1.2 Language Functions

Language is the combination of words, clauses, or sentences. Sentence forms in a language usually serve a specific function. The Purposes of sentence formation are to tell something or someone about it to the public. It means the sentences formed are called statements. Then, it is used to ask a question about something or someone. Next is to ask or order anyone to do something. The last is to show a surprise to anyone or anything.

Traditionally, languages have three functions. These three features of the language are interrelated. The main features of Language have been thought to be cognitive. It means language is used to express ideas, concepts, and thoughts. The second function is for evaluation purposes. It means language was seen as a vehicle for communicating attitudes and values. A third function of language is called emotion. It is the language used by speakers to convey feelings and emotions (Mariani 2007). There are six functions of a language (Finocchiaro in (Mariani 2007). They are as follows:

a. Personal

The personal function enables the user of a language to express his innermost thought such as love, hatred, sorrow, desires, etc.

b. Interpersonal

The interpersonal function enables him to establish and maintain good social relations with individuals and groups such as to express praise, sympathy, or joy at another's success, success, to apologize, to invite, etc.

- c. Directive
The directive function enables humans to control the behavior of others through advice, warnings, orders, persuasion, etc.
- d. Referential
The referential function enables him to talk about objects or events in the immediate setting or environment and to discuss the past, present, and future.
- e. Metalinguistics
Its function enables humans to talk about language. For example "what does.....mean?."
- f. Imaginative
The imaginative function enables humans to use language creatively in composing poetry, writing, or even speaking.

1.1.3 Human Distinctive Language Features

Based on the definitions of a language, there are some characteristics of human language (Soekemi 1994; Akmal, Saiful 2017; Mariani 2007) as follows:

- a. A language is a system of system
Every language consists of several levels including phonological, morphological, lexical, semantic, and syntax levels. Each level is a system in itself and each language is a system of all these levels. A language is called a system, so it must be systematic in nature. The system of language can be recognized by the fact that if we consider language to be made up of sounds, humans found that in all languages where these occur only certain sounds happen in definite normal and conventional patterns. A sentence is a combination of multiple words and they are not arranged randomly. In this context, we cannot say "*Eat I banana every morning*". English has its ordering pattern for constructing Words that make up a sentence. The

pattern of order is that the language must be systematic. The idea of language as a system implies the idea of predictability, as expressed in word placement. In English sentences, Nouns are usually preceded by a determiner, and when someone hears a determiner, He can predict what nouns will come after it. This noun as the subject of a sentence is followed by a verb. This verb ends in -s or -es. The subject preceding noun is the third person singular, actor and the sentence is in simple present tense (Ramelan in (Mariani 2007)).

b. Language is systematic

Language is systematic means any language can be represented by a limited number of symbols. The number of letters in any alphabet is always limited. It is also true that the number of phonetic symbols is limited, yet it can be used to represent the phonological aspects of any language.

c. A language is arbitrary

Language should be arbitrary. This means that it will be created first based on social consensus. This relationship makes no sense. Furthermore, language is arbitrary means that there is no direct connection between the nature of the things or ideas the language deals with and the words or combination of words by which these things or ideas are expressed. For instance, in reality, there are different words for the word love in English-for example, Indonesian *Cinta*, Korean *Sarang*, Arabic *Habun*, Chinese *Ai*, Hindi *Pyaar*, and so on. If there were a direct connection between the natures of the things the language talked about and the words used to express them. There would only be one word for love in all languages. Distinguishing this general fact about language leads to the conclusion that the properties of linguistic signs are arbitrary relationships to the objects they represent.

d. A language is social

In social contexts, language is more than just a means of communication but it is also an important medium for establishing and maintaining social relationships. For example, two people are sitting in a waiting room. They introduce themselves and start talking to each other. In short, they know each other. They build social connections by getting to know each other. They probably will continue to maintain social relationships. Based on the illustration above, the use of language is necessary to establish and maintain social relationships.

e. A language is spoken or sound

Mainly one language is always spoken. This statement means that people all over the world are always talking, regardless of race or ethnicity. In other words, they always have a way to communicate their idea that utilizes sounds emitted from language organs. In addition, language is what people utter or hear. The sounds of language come before and are more important than their representation in writing. The writing system of a language has its systematic features. All writing systems represent only part of the important signals given in speech.

f. A language is productive or creative.

Another characteristic of human language is productive and creative. It means the first aspect of creative language is human. It is the ability of native speakers to understand and produce sentences never heard by native speakers before. By using a finite number of rules a native speaker can generate an infinite number of utterances and each utterance can differ completely in reference from other utterances. As native speakers, they can produce new sentences or understand new sentences produced by other native speakers.

- g. A language is complete for its native speakers.

Language is a part of human culture; it is used for expressing human culture. A language is whole for its native speakers to communicate their own culture. If a language is regarded as a system of symbols, it can be used as constitutive, cognitive, expressive, and evaluative symbols (Mariani 2007). A constitutive symbol refers to a symbol of human belief in God or supernatural power; for instance, human beings pray to God by using language. Next, a cognitive symbol refers to a symbol created by human beings to recognize and introduce human knowledge about their environment for instance Javanese people recognize some terms such as "*mangan*", "*maem*", "*dhahar*", and "*nedha*" meanwhile English people know them as "*eat*". Other examples, is a plant like "*rice*", in English whether it is as a plant or being cooked, they call it "*rice*". But in Javanese, the name of "*rice*" will be different. When it is as a plant, it is called "*pari*". Then when it is harvested it is called "*gabah*", and when it is a seed it is called "*beras*" and when it is cooked it is called "*sego*" or "*nasi*" in the Indonesian language. Then, an expressive symbol refers to a symbol used by human beings to convey their feeling. Last, an evaluative symbol refers to a symbol used by the human being to state something good or bad, honest or dishonest, and the like.

- h. Language is meaningful

Language is meaningful means the sounds which are produced in a language are connected almost with every fact of human life and communication. There is a relation between the kinds of sounds the speakers of a language make and their culture. Through the learning of a language, a child becomes an active member of the community.

i. Language is conventional

Language is conventional means it is only when we consider an item of language by itself that we recognize how arbitrary it is, however in a language no linguistic unit stands by itself. Any linguistic unit is a part of the language system. While the use and formation of linguistic units are so regular that those units seem to be used according to an agreement among the speakers. Thus a language can be considered to be conventional.

j. Language is a system of contrasts

A language is a system of contrasts or differences and how these differences are made is not very important. As an example, parrots cannot produce sounds exactly like human speakers simply because they do not have the same vocal apparatus that men have. Yet they can be trained to produce various sounds which differ from each other like speech sounds and are understood to represent human speech. Individuals do not and cannot speak exactly like each other; they speak alike, and in the same language when they produce the same number of phonetic and grammatical distinctions as other speakers.

k. Languages are unique

Languages are unique since they are arbitrary. For instance, reduplication is a common phenomenon in Indonesian languages. However, the way reduplication is realized in these languages is different from one language to another. In Indonesia, there is *Taman Kanak-Kanak*, in Madurese *taman nak-kanak* means kindergarten in English.

l. Language is similar

All languages have many things in common apart from differences that belong to languages. For example, all languages consist of words, phrases, and sentences. The words of languages can be classified as content words and function words. The content words can be

classified further as nouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs while function words can be classified further as determiners, prepositions, etc.

m. Language as a tool of communication

Language is the best means of all self-expression. The purpose of language is to practice communication. Language allows us to communicate ideas, feelings, and aspirations to communities and other people in other modern and ancient cultures. Humans can also use language to distinguish between present, past, and future in their lives.

n. Language is displacement

Displacement is the human ability to understand something. It transcends the immediate realms of space and time. These distinctive features guarantee that words are still compatible without visualization.

1.1.4 Language in Social Context

Humans are social beings who are always dependent on the help of others. It is hard to imagine them living alone in the woods without companions. In reality, humans cooperate and live together. Therefore, it can be said that humans are social beings who have to live in a community. In addition, cooperation among members of social groups works well when using a means of communication known as voice. By using language, people can express their thoughts and desires to others when they need help. There is close cooperation between members of the group.

In social contexts, language is not only a means of communication but also a means of building and maintaining social relationships among those who speak the language. As an illustration, they are two people in the hospital who do not know each other. They start to talk to each other to overcome their boredom. They give information to each other. This is the function of language as a means of creating

social relationships. If they are from different social and geographical backgrounds, they will use different dialects. If one of them is someone speaking the Indonesian language, who is Javanese will probably use the Indonesian language with a certain accent spoken by Javanese people; and the other will probably use the other dialect (Madurese dialect) if he is from Madura. Besides, there is a social dialect. This kind of dialect refers to a variety of languages spoken by a group of people belonging to a certain social class. For instance, if someone is a middle-class businessman, he will use the variety of language associated with men of this type (Trudgill in (Mariani, 2007)).

1.2 Linguistics

1.2.1 Linguistics Definition

Every human knows at least one language, whether spoken or written. Linguistics is the scientific study of language or it is the science of language involving sounds, words, and grammatical rules. The words of a language are finite, but sentences are not. It is the creative aspect that distinguishes human language from animal language which is naturally stimulus responsive.

In addition, linguistics is the scientific and systematic study of human language. It analyzes a system that simultaneously combines form, meaning, and context time. Linguistics is involved in almost every part of human communication. Studying linguistics is about expanding insight into one of the most central aspects of human beings. People can communicate through language. By studying linguistics, people will be able to know how the language works, how the language is used, and how the languages are changed and saved.

There are three subfields of linguistics study. They are theoretical linguistics, descriptive linguistics, and applied

linguistics. The studies circumscribed to theoretical linguistics are most concerned with developing models of linguistic knowledge. Then, the studies restricted to descriptive linguistics deal with the objective analysis and description of how languages are spoken by people in their speech communities. Last, the studies limited to applied linguistics deal with identifying, investigating, and offering solutions to language-related real-life problems (Rata 2013).

1.2.2 Branches of Linguistics

Studying linguistics likes standing at the intersection of every discipline since it uses the scientific method of language study that embraces more than form, meaning, and context. The scope of linguistics can be seen in Figure 1.1.

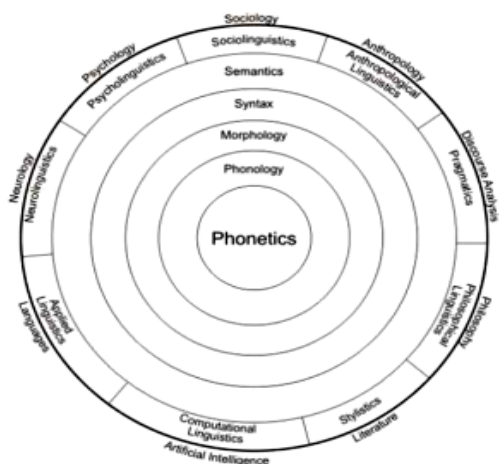


Figure 1.1 Scope of linguistics (Akmal, et.al 2017)

The major branches of linguistics are phonetics, phonemics, morphemics, syntax, semantics, pragmatics, sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, neurolinguistics, and discourse analysis (Soekemi 1994; Mariani 2007; Fasold 2006). Each of them can be explained as follows:

a. Phonetics

It is a branch of linguistics that deals with sound features or qualities and their arrangement into speech sounds, or phones. In addition, Phonetics is the study of sound. This study specifically investigates how speech is produced through the use of speech organs. Phonetics also demonstrates the speech production mechanism.

b. Phonemics or Phonology

It is a branch of linguistics that deals with phones and their arrangement into groups or families called phonemes. In addition, Phonology essentially describes the phonetic systems and patterns in language. It is based on the theory that all speakers of a language subconsciously know about the sound patterns of that language.

c. Morphemics

It is a branch of linguistics that deals with speech sounds and their arrangement into meaningful groups called morphs. It is also concerned with the arrangement of these morphs into family groups called morphemes and the combination of morphemes into words. In addition, Morphology is the study of the analysis of the expressive system of a language and is concerned with identifying morphemes and how they are distributed or combined into longer utterances.

d. Syntax

It is a branch of linguistics that deals with syntactic structures which are called phrases, clauses, and sentences. Additionally, syntax is the study of arranging words into phrases, clauses, sentences, or syntactic structures. The smallest unit of syntax is a word. When two or more words are arranged in a certain way, the results are related to syntax construction.

e. Semantics

It is a branch of linguistics that deals with the study of the meaning of language. Semantics is part of the actual grammar, the study of the inner workings of the language. In general, this work deals with explanations of the meaning of words and sentences .

f. Pragmatics

An important element in the interpretation of texts is the body of knowledge, often called pragmatics. These include the attitudes and beliefs behind speakers and receivers, understanding the context in which sentences are uttered, and knowledge of how language is used to convey information.

g. Sociolinguistics

Sociolinguistics is the study of the relationship between language use and the structure of society (Radford, Andrew 2009). Sociolinguistic terms are derivatives. The two words that make it up are sociology and linguistics. Sociology refers to the science of society and linguistics refers to the science of language. The study of language from a social perspective can be viewed as linguistics and sociology. Some researchers have pointed out that this creates a distinction between sociolinguistics and linguistic sociology. Some consider sociolinguistics to be the sociology of language. It is a study that examines the relationship between language and the context in which it is used. In other words, it examines the relationship between language and society. It explains how humans speak differently in different social contexts. It describes the social functions of language and how language is used to convey social meaning.

h. Psycholinguistics

The term "psycholinguistics" is a combination of psycholinguistics and linguistics. Both are fields of science. Psychology is the systematic study of human

experience and behavior or the science that studies the behavior of humans. There are several fields of psychology such as social psychology, communication psychology, developmental psychology, educational psychology, and linguistic psychology. The final branch of psychology is often called psycholinguistics. Another definition of psycholinguistics is that it is the study of language comprehension, language production, and language acquisition of human languages.

i. Neurolinguistics

Neurolinguistics learn the neural system within the human brain that controls comprehension, generation, and language acquisition.

j. Discourse analysis

Discourse is the use of language beyond sentences. It explains how people use language in texts and contexts. Discourse analysts focus on people's actual utterances and try to figure out how those utterances look the ways they do.

1.2.3 Perspective in Linguistics

The perspective of linguistics deals with theoretical and functional linguistics, macro and micro linguistics, and modern and classical linguistics (Akmal, Saiful 2017). They will be explained as follows:

a. Theoretical and Functional Linguistics

Theoretical linguistics is often called generative linguistics. It is a stem Performance idea about Chomsky's ability and language. This perspective attempts to explain the nature of human linguistics knowledge (Hayes et.al in (Akmal, Saiful 2017). On the other hand functional linguistics is theoretical linguistics. It is believed that language is a fundamental tool. Languages are best evaluated in terms of the functions they perform in the first place Language level (phonology, semantics, syntax, and pragmatics).

b. Macro and Micro Linguistics

Macro linguistics studies the language by using main changes as the parameter of assessment. Macro linguistics deals with comparative studies among language, areal linguistics, language branches, or language development. Then, micro linguistics focuses on the study of small transformations in linguistics that may affect larger social context. Micro linguistics is interested in grammar, phonetics, and the internal level of language analysis.

c. Modern and Classical Linguistics

Modern linguistics relates to the 18th-century development of linguistics. In this era, linguistics study was marked by the rise of the structuralist school of language studies (Ferdinand de Saussure, Edward Sapir, and Leonard Bloomfield). Whereas Classical linguistics confirm the relic of ancient compositions of the early printed versions and interpretations of human dialect and communication. The most questions were the classical philology (composed of authentic sources, such as scholarly writings and records).

1.2.4 Developmental Linguistics

Children obtain a language by watching individuals around them utilizing the language, and the set of expressions within the dialect to which the child listens (and the settings in which they are utilized) within the course of obtaining the dialect constitutes the child's etymological encounter of the dialect. This encounter serves as input to the child's dialect workforce, which gives the child a set of strategies for dissecting the involvement in such a way as to plan a linguistic use of the dialect being procured. Chomsky's theory that the course of dialect securing is decided by a natural dialect workforce is known famously as the innateness hypothesis. Chomsky visualizes the obtaining process of language as below:

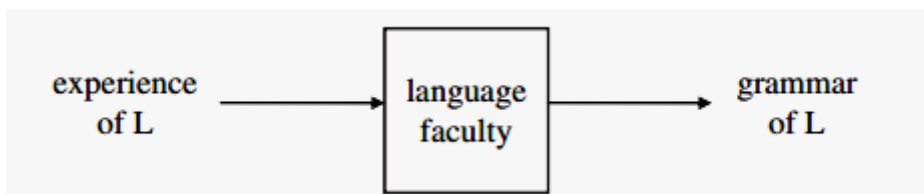


Figure 1.2 The Language Acquisition Process (Radford, Andrew 2009)

Chomsky keeps up that the foremost possible clarification for the consistency and quickness of beginning dialect procurement is to set that the course of procurement is decided by an organically blessed natural dialect staff (or dialect securing program, to borrow a computer program representation) inside the human brain. This gives children with a hereditarily transmitted set of strategies for creating a linguistic use that empowers them to produce and get sentences within the dialect they are procuring on the premise of their phonetic involvement.

Children develop these different types of language skills simultaneously, and there are many interactions between these different areas of development. Nevertheless, it is useful for researchers and students of language development to distinguish between language subcomponents include communication, Phonology, Lexicon, Morphology and Syntax (Hoff 2009). The components of oral language development can be seen below.

Components	Definitions	Examples
Communication	Communicate information to others in a socially appropriate manner	Raise requests, make comments, and be consistent in conversations and explanations
Phonology	Language sound system	Able to differentiate between /vat/ and /bat
Lexicon	Vocabulary and derivational morphology processes	Knowing the meaning of verb and know how to form a new verb, for instance beauty (noun), beautiful (adjective)
Morphology and Syntax	Systems governing inflectional forms and word combinations	Knowing the difference in meaning between a girl scratches cat and cat scratches a girl, knowing that a girl scratch cat and scratch a girl cat are both ungrammatical

Table 1.3 Components of Oral Language Development

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CHAPTER 2

PHONETICS :THE SOUNDS OF LANGUAGE

By Sam Hermansyah

2.1 Introduction

The process of acquiring the first language in children linguistically can be emphasized in aspects phonological wrong only one that is voice and pronunciation (sounds and pronunciation). According to (Susan M. Gass and Larry S, 2008) on process stages voice and pronunciation there is difference between pronunciation child and person mature. A number of voice can distinguished in beginning just like: difference between consonant in [ta] and [da]. Besides that, when language on children use words which not enough more resembles the words of adults, so both meanings also have differences in pronunciation. For example, removing the syllable in the word 'dedo' which refers to the word 'potato', namely 'potato', then there is deletion voice for say 'tein which refers on say 'train' that is 'train', and process simplification like say 'fis' which refers on say 'fish' that is 'fish'.

Earnings language first in children is an activity of one or more languages that can be learned in the family environment, acquisition language first which intended is all language which used by children or the set of languages a child picks up before they enter school age . On study phonological voice and pronunciation in perspective pragmatic is ability sound which generated by children with pragmatic rules according to their age. Based on this background mechanism acquisition language on child age early that is age between two until with four year covers process acquisition language on child and ability language child when speak. Language which spoken by the child will be studied in the form of research, because the first language is language person old and followed by child. Wrong

one which will become uniqueness alone in study this is if the child has differences in language acquisition and stages of the linguistic process with almost the same age. That is, between one child and another will have a difference in language process which will later be associated with theory as a reference. (Kidd, Donnelly, & Christiansen, 2018) in his research explain that there is difference characteristic features language on child- children present in many ways, through observable variations at each level of description to the social aspect. Linguistic and psycholinguistic theory allow meaningful differences in Language in between each individual. On period acquisition language child more lead on function communication from the form of the language, several stages starting from the initial stage of acquisition in form babbling until with reach peak when child can form sentence. Which almost resemble language person mature. In the process, Language on child will started with produce sound. That is, the earliest sound that has no meaning and is irregular.

Then, if possible child will start produce ethnic group say, phrase, until sentence Which thank. Study entitled "Individual Differences in Language Acquisition and Processing" refers to the concept research that is looking for differences in the characteristics of humans in many ways, with observable variations on each level description until aspect social. kindly traditional, theory linguistics and psycholinguistics has possibility difference meaning in Language in between individual. However, become the more clear that there is significant variation among speakers at any age and across ages. Latest research in psycholinguistics, and argues that the focus on individual differences in providing resources critical evidence that strongly supports core issues in language acquisition and processing theory; specifically, role experience in language mastery, processing, achievement, and architecture system language.

According to (Ingram, 1989) the speech perception theory was first coined by the behaviorists, nativism, constructionism, and maturationism. Generally ability a child in acquire a first language not suddenly and incompletely along with all the rules. It means, the first language is acquired in several stages and each subsequent stage is closer to grammar language like adults. There are several theories that support the acquisition of language in children, including:

Behaviorism, namely theoretical studies that highlight aspects of linguistic behavior which can directly observed and relationship between stimuli (stimulus) and reaction (response). Behavior language which effective is make reaction which appropriate to something stimulation, reaction the will be one habit which is good if it is justified in its application to children so that children study first language properly and correctly. For example, when a child says the word 'bikali' for say which intended 'perhaps', in case the naturally no correct, so good person old or who just which hear say so that it does not become a bad habit in pronunciation. Speaking ability and understand language by children is also obtained through stimulation from environment. Nativism that is something understand which trust that each child born. Already provided with something tool for obtain something language which called with LAD (language acquisition device).

Regarding what language will be obtained by child depending on which language Which used or commonly referred to as the target language / TL (Target Language), the target language refers to on language what which studied by child. for example, a child which raised in America different from children who grew up in China, in this case related to language first, so it can be said that every child can learn any language used in the environment. Theory nativism in acquisition first language can be said that during process acquisition, little boy by opened up his lingual skills a bit which is genetic programmed. So, environment the same very no own influence in process acquisition (acquisition), matter this is reinforced by Chomsky's statement which states that language considered too complex for studied in time which near through method imitation (imitation) like presumption clan behaviorism. nurture and nature you're welcome each other support.

It means nature needed Because without stock naturally impossible son can language, while nurture needed because without inputs from the natural surroundings stock which natural that no will materialized. Cognitivism states that development language must based on change which more fundamental and more general in in cognition. It means, sequences development cognitive determine in in form Skills speak. Theory cognitivism in acquisition language first for

example on child age 0 ;18 month, language considered not yet there is, it means child only understand world through her five senses. On end age One year, stage next is child already can understand that object own permanent properties so began to use symbol to present object which no present before him. This symbol then will develop into words beginning which be spoken by child. In acquisition language first really influenced by each son, this is what states that ability language to children has there is since born. (Thornton, 2012) in the research " Studies at the interface of child language and models of language acquisition" explain about a number of assumption general about mastery language first, including: that children are born with an innate tendency to acquire a language. Besides that, also predicts that children have a certain built-in language with a modular architecture. On design experimental, show that methodology which not enough optimal can cause error in children (and adults) which is sometimes interpreted as coming from another source, studies syntax-discourse stands out as an issue and source of much debate about interlanguage transfer which not yet resolved.

Pragmatics is part from behavior language, so acquisition language also need observe how child develop ability its pragmatic. According to (Sarah A Lizka, 2004) in study " Exploring the effects of first language influences on second language pragmatic processes from a syntactic deficit perspective" try consider function grammatical which can contribute to pragmatic processing at the level of explication formation or recovery, with the assumption that the logical decomposition of grammatical knowledge initiates the development of pragmatic ones needed for formation. This study uses the theoretical framework of Sperber and Relevance Wilson. In addition (Wehberg et al., 2007) in his research " Danish children's first words: Analysing longitudinal data based on monthly CDI parental reports "a first language acquisition study that performed on children in Denmark longitudinally every month (8-30 months). Study focuses on production, to study the early lexical development of the child's first words ie around 100 say which produced, Then share period to in stages say First: -1, -10, -25, -50, - 50 and-100.

Then the stages of analyzing the first words of Danish children are connected with content semantic-pragmatic, structure voice, and composition lexicon beginning based on on category Language formal. Stage final that is compare results from Language Denmark Which disclose Good the overall overall first words of Danish children as well as the stark differences for some single word. The research is quite interesting using the Danish adaptation of the inventory communicative development (CDI). Case studies of language acquisition in children are also influenced by parenting contingents and conversation partners, as well as by other consequences of aspects of speaking, according to (Petursdottir & Mellor, 2017) reinforcement contingencies play a major role in children's language acquisition. A number of decades study which sustainable has document how arrange contingency strengthening for support mastery skills language and communication on children with varying degrees of language impairment.

Existing expertise in this area should be put to good use in design model gift service which give opportunity for contingency strengthening which effective for operate throughout day and support acquisition skills which fail develop through interactions that occur naturally, whereas (Baptista, Gelman, & Beck, 2014) stated for test in a manner experimental mastery language with application observation object, then with first experimental to clarify the notion of similarity by varying the degree of and the kind of similarity expressed by the speaker. (Veneziano, 2010) in "Conversation in language development and use: An Introduction" develops conversational skills in children and relation to language acquisition. The centrality of conversation with language development is recognized with good for identify two approach key study that is impact from process conversation on the mastery of the language itself, and how the basic ways in which language skills are used for interaction in something conversation.

Based on a number of study in on show that study acquisition language on child has been carried out and has a fairly extensive study. There are some interesting parallels for

investigated so that can beneficial in development knowledge knowledge. The similarities is examines the acquisition of the first language in children, while the difference is from the object research that examines the languages of various foreign children and their influences, while the author using Indonesian child objects which are focused on the stages of the language acquisition process the first is linguistically which emphasizes the phonological aspect, namely sound and pronunciation (sounds and pronunciation) in perspective pragmatic that is ability sound Which generated children with rule pragmatic in accordance with his age. With thereby, question can put forward as following: How are the stages of sound and pronunciation in pragmatic acquisition in children aged 2 to 4 year?

2.2 Method

This type of research is qualitative by using a cross sectional approach , namely by collecting data from children aged two to four years at the same time in order to obtain complete and fast data so that it can describe each individual in the acquisition process the language. The research sample is five children aged two to four years who use Indonesian. The focus of the research is all sounds or sounds that are spoken or produced by children in a pragmatic view, namely when they are communicating. The sub focus in the research is children's voice and pronunciation according to theory (Susan M. Gass and Larry Se, 2008). Data collection process use notes daily, tool record, and interview Which done to person old child. Process analysis data as a whole in order to find a concept through observed phenomena and can be used to explain the phenomena, themes, and patterns of case studies. Process of data analysis as well analyze pattern in form text or incident Which happen. (Kelly, Forshaw, Nordlinger, & Wigglesworth, 2015) in his research method explains that first language acquisition in child need take into account data from diverse typology Language and environment learning Language For identify the universal potential in children's language development, how to interact with the mechanism of socio-cultural acquisition. The field-based literature also shows

diversity in the number of participants and age groupings to be studied, as well as the length of time studied by children.

2.3 Results

Beginning commencement study language on a child is with determine about language what just which heard by child. In process mastery system language like: phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, and pragmatics subconsciously brought by each child from birth. As for stages process acquisition Language First on child is: babbling (babbling), stages which happen at around six months, that is, babies switch to a more language-like sound called 'babbling' or babbling'. In the process of babbling most often occurs that consists of consonant-vowel sequences like: 'bababa, dadada, then bada'. Words (words), namely the stages of the emergence of the initial word that can be said to have a function as a fulfillment of the needs of children. For example, when a child refer to something object, like say 'ba' for 'bottle' so can said children can show various functions of grammar, noting one child (age 19-20 months) namely children often exaggerate exaggerate the meaning of the words they know. For example, using the word 'rabbit' to refer to doll, picture person, bear, chair, light, puzzles, train fire, and etc. Sounds and Pronunciation (voice and pronunciation), on stages beginning pronunciation child no the same with pronunciation person mature. Syntax (syntax), after through stages One say, children start combining several words usually occurs around the age of two. The hallmark of this phase is the words that use content between nouns and verbs.

Functions of words such as prepositions and endings grammatical is very lacking, but the utterances used are similar to the usual utterances used when sending message. For example, utterances made by children: Aaron go home, Seth play toy, or Ethan no go. Morphology, Brown in (Ingram, 1989) revealed that emergence morpheme grammatically consistent in children and related to the child's overall development. In morphological acquisition, namely in the two-word sentence period, a child has started to make sentence and in process stringing sentence,

changes happen on choice say which using affixes and then followed by morphological differentiation, that is when a child begins using a variety of word classes.

The following is data through the results of observations and recording. The first discussion is a child named Alula Farzana Ayunindya (AFA), born in December 10, 2016. The background of his parents both use Javanese in communication daily, However For communicate with child use Language Indonesia. As the first child in speaking or communicating Lula who is 2 years and 8 months old answered several questions with very short and simple spoken words, to ask for something more often pointing to the desired object and then followed by one or two words that end in many words behind it. The process of eliminating sound can be seen in the words that designate some animals like: ' pih → cow , ' uda → horse', ' japah → giraffe' . At the initial stage of language acquisition in children usually children produce simplified adult words to make it easier to understand be spoken However in a manner meaning Lula Already understand like animal Which intended on deletion ethnic group say 'em, defender ' → 'goat'.

Second, Rizki Sidata Putra (RSP) was born on January 25 2017. He is the third child her two older siblings have entered school age, namely grade VIII and junior high school sixth grade elementary school. As a boy of the same age as Lula, Rizki is a child talkative and fluent in pronunciation. From the results of interviews with his parents, can It is known that Rizki has good language skills. The sentences he delivered already can understandable by person other. In conversation even he already can use words which connecting cause and effect . In addition, Rizki is also very smart and critical in speaking, he often using Indonesian and English through television viewing. From some of the answers explained very clearly that he was very fluent and easy to digest what was asked by the researcher to him, even the things he didn't ask he told it like enough telling long. In speak child Rizki Also often use Language Indonesia raw in the conversation. The number of utterances spoken is relatively long and very easy to understand. He is able to tell something to an

adult very fluently, in the process of sound and pronunciation found deletion of sound in the word 'kumsalam' which refers to the answer to the greeting 'waallaikumsalam'. It's just that, there are some speeches that are not well structured, for example "not yet, my sister is already at school, when she comes home in the afternoon she takes ojol" and "no, eggs are delicious, I like to eat with soy sauce (talk egg then to topic other)".

Third, Syaif Arkhan Fahrudin (SAF) was born on February 18 2017, he is the son of First with background behind person old which speak Java. In communicate daily use Indonesian as well as Javanese. In speaking, Fahrul was more silent and deep say more words in fragments. In such cases it is seen that on children aged 2 years 5 months are actually able to communicate well even though they are not fluent. Limited communication is experienced by Fahrul if asked by other people, namely indirectly answered, usually silent and then called his mother. In the conversation that was held with Fahrul's son there is deletion of sound in the words 'thum → mother', 'anyway → fell', 'yes → Azalea', 'la → Fayola', 'fa → Nadhifa', 'din → For mention Name complete Shaif Arkhan Fahrudin'. With thereby, child Fahrul still tend to be egocentric and not very clear in speaking. Pronunciation is still very simple, meaning that it can be said that Fahrul can only produce one or two words to express what which he wanted.

Fourth, Muhammad Reyhan (MR) was born on January 22, 2016, he is a child First from two brothers. Mastery Language which mastered Reyhan which aged can said Enough well, based on the observation of the pronunciation process in turn to answer questions from interlocutor fluently and sentences that are relatively complete. From the results of interviews with his parents Reyhan small Already active invited speak and often brought to school place he asked work so that he have better speaking skills when compared to children at the age of three In general, they are able to compose sentences in speech but are still very simple and limited. In MR children the authors found the pronunciation process in children who used the words that more or less resembles adult words, so there is no difference in either meaning or depth pronunciation.

Fifth, namely Ananda Syifa Aquina (ASA) was born on February 2, 2015, at the age of four the acquisition of the Syifa language at the level of pronunciation is quite good. This can be seen from the data obtained. At this age he has started to speak in simple sentences then become sentence Which complex. Besides That, in do conversation Syifa also already understand meaning from each he said nor against he said. Good speech nor pronunciation relatively long andvery easy to understand. He is able to tell something to adults very fluently. This can also be caused by environmental factors, namely school because at the age of 2.5 years by people his parents already entered to guidance Study andenter school education child age early. So, processing first language mastered also strengthened by educational environment.

2.4 Conclusion

Language develops in children spontaneously, without conscious effort or formal instruction used to understandthe underlying logic. In acquiring a language, children study it through process acquisition Language Which Actually has obtained since born, matter it takes place naturally, meaning not in a way memorize vocabulary or rules in a manner grammatical. As for stages process acquisition Language First on child is, babbling, words, sounds andpronunciation , syntax, morphology , semantics, andpragmatics . In the early stages of pronunciation one child with another is not the same pronunciation as adults. Some sound can distinguished at the beginning of course such as: the difference between the consonants or the difference in the pronunciation of both in syllable removal, sound removal, andword-like simplification processes. such differences seen from the age , at the stage of the child's age it will affect the difference between consonant sounds or there is a difference pronunciation.

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CHAPTER 3

PHONOLOGY : FUNCTIONS AND PATTERNS VOICE

By Andi Sadapotto

3.1 Introduction

Phonology is a part of linguistics which has a function to analyze system sound. In addition, phonology has patterns and system to analyze various phonemes based on their function. As Ladefoged and Keith Johnson stated “phonology is the description of the pattern and system of sound that matches the language and those sounds that convey a difference in meaning (Ladefoged and Keith Johnson, 2011: 121)”. Phonology has patterns and systems for analyzing sounds based on their functions and analyzing phoneme meanings. Meanwhile, according to (Roach, 1991: 217) phonology also studies the functions of phonemes and the relationships between phonemes in language. “when we talk about how phonemes function in language, and the relationship between the different phonemes—when in order words, we study abstract side of the sound of language—we are studying a related but different subject that we call phonology”. Based on the combination of the statements above, it can be concluded that phonology is the science of sound which functions as an analysis of phonemic sounds based on their function. The science of sound in phonology is divided into two parts based on their function, namely phonetics and phonemics.

3.2 Phonetics

Phonetics or phonetics is studying science about acting sound as means or media language human. scope science phonetics covers formation sound by the maker sound until meaning message from sound by listeners sound. [1] Phonetics including to in knowledge studying linguistics about sound language. [2] Knowledge phonetics investigate sound from corner view speech or speech. [3] Phonetics is part in phonology, that is knowledge about treasury sounds (phonemes) of language and their distribution. In level linguistics, the smallest unit in Language is font or sound language, meanwhile phoneme is form abstract from sounds language. Kindly specifically, phonetics learn pronunciation sounds language . More further, phonetics is field study knowledge exploratory knowledge how man produce sounds speech, study waves sound language issued, and how tool hearing man accept sounds Language For analyzed by the brain human. Association Phonetics International has observe more of 100 sounds man different that can found in Language natural and transcribe it with Alphabet Phonetics International .

In 1886 The International Phonetic Association was formed, within that organization also formed The International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) Which explain symbols certain on phonemes. Phonetic alphabet this can be used for writing sound all Language in a manner more appropriate and relatively easy be read. According to (Ladfoged, 2001: 155) phonetics is knowledge about production that sound has various functions based on the research objectives themselves. "Phonetics is concerned with describing speech. There are many different reasons for wanting to do this, which means that there are many kinds of phoneticians to analyze different sounds, pathological speech, looking for ways to make computers talk, and help speak a particular form of english". Just as Ohala said (Irawan, 2017: 11) explains that phonetics is a scientific discipline about how sound is produced and received. In addition to the science of producing sound, phonetics is also a science that studies segmental knowledge such as consonants, vowels "phonetic is the part of phonology which study of vowels, consonants, and how the sound is produced

(Maryamah andAsih Prihandini, 2018)”.

Based on the statement above, it can be concluded that phonetics is the science of how sounds are produced andperceived by speech organs andlearning about sound differences without analyzing sound meanings andlearning about segmental science such as vowels andconsonants. Phonetics as the science of sound is divided into three parts based on how sound is produced (articulatory phonetics), how sound is physically involved (acoustic phonetics), andhow sound is perceived (auditory phonetics) (Irawan, 2017: 23).

Articulatory phonetics is that part of phonetics that examines the sounds produced in the organs of speech. The function of the articulatory phonetics is to find out the organs that become the articulators andhow the mechanisms of these organs work when sounds are pronounced (Irawan, 2017:27). This phonetics focuses on the function of the speaker as a message sender. Acoustic phonetics is a science that combines phonetics and acoustics, this phonetics analyzes sound indications andsound physics. The acoustic domain is sound components such as frequency, intensity, andduration. Sound wave energy is marked by black lumps andis seen in the form of waves (Irawan, 2017:28). Meanwhile, auditory phonetics is part of phonetics whose function is to perceive sound. This phonetic focus is how the auditory function as a message is received (Irawan, 2017:29).

1. Phonetics Acoustic

Acoustic phonetics is branch science which there is in knowledge phonetics that combines the science of acoustics andphonetics. This phonetics has a function to analyze physical sound after articulation and before being operated into auditory called acoustic phonetics (Ball Martin andOrla lowry, 2001:134) : “Acoustic phonetics looks at speech once it has left the organs of articulation and before it operates on the organs of hearing up. In studying this area of phonetics, we need to know about how sound actually travels through the air, andthe various parameters we can measure as it does this, in order to classify speech sounds according to their

acoustic make-up". Acoustic phonetics has a characteristic component of measuring sound waves and visualizing them with waveforms voice. In sound waves, sound energy is indicated by black lumps and is shown in a spectrogram. The darker the energy, the higher the frequency of the sound produced. Fricatively, acoustic phonetics have a distinctive high frequency due to a hissing sound which causes air to be forced through a narrow channel (Ball Martin andOrla Lowry, 2001:136).

According to Harrington (Irawan, 2017: 28) phonetic acoustics is a discipline that combines three branches of knowledge, namely engineering (electronics), linguistics (phonetics), and psychology (cognitive). Technicians observe speech as an acoustic signal that has an acoustically related sound channel. Linguistic study speech as an object that forms the structure of language. Meanwhile, psychologists see speech as an acoustic signal that contains information on the structure of language. Acoustic phonetic components are frequency, formant, duration, intensity (Irawan, 2017: 28).

2. Frequency

Frequency is one of the important components of acoustic phonetics. Frequency is divided into three parts, namely the basic tone (lowest frequency), the final tone (frequency highest), andrange tone (center frequency) (Irwan, 2017: 54). Tone in frequency determines the duration and intonation or volume of the sound. This affects the small size of the frequency generated. The blacker the frequency wave voice, the more tall energy Which generated (Irwan, 2017: 54). The clarity of the voice also determines the energy, the clearer the sound, the frequency is produced, the greater the frequency spoken "the clearer the pronunciation, the greater the frequency spoken (Maryamah andAsih Prihandini, 2018)". The unit of measurement for frequency is Hertz, usually abbreviated as Hz. Frequency is closely related to sound waves. Like periodic waves, it has a

fundamental frequency provided by the lowest frequency of the sine waves that make up sound (Irawan, 2017:51). Voiceless phoneme sounds have no fundamental or harmonic frequencies, because there is no vibration of the vowel folds during their production. In this study, frequency is the focus of the aspects that will be examined with data and then tested using statistical tests.

3. Duration

Duration is one of the important components in acoustic phonetics. Each acoustic phonetic energy is related to time and the aspect of time determines the characteristics of speech sounds such as syllables, words, and paragraphs (Irawan, 2017: 56). In addition, duration is a measure that a language has a system of vowels and short vowels, or long consonants (geminate) or short consonants. Duration is also related to pause and silence (Yusup, 2011). Informants who say the word faster, the shorter the duration.

4. Intensity

Another component of acoustic phonetics is intensity. Intensity called as a loud sound that indicates the loudness or softness of the sound "intensity is proportional to the amplitude, or size of displacement in a sound vibration, and is measured in decibels (dB) (Ball and Joan Rahilly, 2013:276)". Intensity can be said to be proportional to amplitude, which is a measure of the displacement in sound vibrations which is measured in decibels (dB). The greater the intensity spoken, the louder the sound will be heard. According to Fry and Lehiste in *Phonetic Acoustics* (Irawan, 2017:59) loud sounds are influenced by other acoustic phonetic components. The farther the sound travels, the smaller the intensity it gets.

3.3 Wave Sound

Sound waves traveling through some medium (usually air), propagate outward from the source in a manner similar to ripples in a pond, until they reach the listener's eardrum and cause it to vibrate (Irawan, 2017: 79). Each sound has its own characteristic waveform determined by the position and work of the vocal organs during sound production. The simplest type of sound wave is a sine wave, the other types are more complex sound waves. Complex sound waves are divided into periodic and aperiodic.

Sound waves are the result of the displacement of air molecules during sound made. Displacement This caused by variation pressure air, Which generated by movement organs vocals speaker Matter This supported by the statement (Ball and Orla Lowry, 2001: 198) "Sound waves are produced by the displacement of air molecules, which occur when a sound is made. This displacement is caused by variations in air pressure, which if the sound in question is a speech sound are generated by movements of the speaker's vocal organs" the sound wave of sine wave. Picture it shows the displacement line curves upwards from the axis (representing rest), and then curves downwards, meets the axis again and continues downwards to show displacements in the opposite direction. When it curves upwards to meet the axis a second time, it can be said that one cycle has been completed. This cycle continues, although no without limit time, like in in practice, energy lost due to friction and air resistance. This process is known as damping (Ball and Orla Lowry, 2001:124). The spectrum or wave line determines the type or characteristics of a sound wave. A spectrum that has a regular pattern is characteristic of a periodic or sine wave, while a spectrum that has an irregular pattern is aperiodic wave characteristic. Usually these waves have a large energy that comes from hissing sound so as to produce a smaller and irregular spectrum.

1. Classification Voice

In phonetics, classification voice divided into two parts that is segmental and suprasegmental. Phonemes that can be segmented are segmental. Segmental sounds have segments based on their identity, namely vowels and consonants. According to (Ladefoged, 2001: 258) vowels are phonemes which in articulation do not have any obstructions in the vocal tract. Meanwhile, consonants are phonemes which in articulation have disturbances or obstacles in the vocal tract. It is supported with Davenports statement and SJ Hannahs (Davenport and SJ Hannahs, 2005:233) below: "Vowel and consonant in phonetic usage, the sounds with a free passage of air are termed vowels and those with a blocked or turbulent airflow are called consonants. For consonants there is some kind of obstruction in the oral tract, whereas for vowels there is no such hindrance to the outflow of the air. Vowels are far enough apart to allow the airflow to exit unhindered that is with open approximation".

Vowels are sounds with free airflow, while consonants are sounds with blocked or turbulent airflow. Vowels and consonants are related to each other in speech sounds. According to (Roach, 1991:185) the position of a consonant is a movement at the beginning or end of a vowel. Based on the segmentation of speech sounds into consonants, sounds divided into obstruent and sonorant. Obstruent is a consonant with a clear airflow limiting the articulation in full or near approximation (Davenport and SJ Hannah, 2005: 249). These consonants are divided into three parts based on how they are pronounced, namely stops, fricatives and affricatives. Whereas a sonorant is a consonant that has no boundaries in the vocal tract or is open nasal, it means that air freely passes through the vocal tract (Davenport and SJ Hannah, 2005: 255). Sonorants are divided into a number of parts based on method pronunciation like nasals, liquids, and glides.

2. Method and Place Articulation

According to Davenport and SJ Hannah (Davenport and SJ Hannah, 2005:324) the way of articulation refers to the vertical relationship between active and passive articulation, the distance between structures from adjacent ones, preventing air from expanding, becomes wide apart, allowing air to flow unhindered. The way of articulation is divided into several parts: stops, affricates, fricatives (Davenport and SJ Hannah, 2005:251).

- a. Stops : are characterized by involving complete closure of the oral tract, preventing flow air go out through mouth good that orally or nasal. Stop own several phonemes [p,b,m,t,d,n,k,g, dʒ,ʔ,tʃ].
- b. Affricatives : produced like plosives involving closing stages, approximation stages, and stage release. In affricatives, articulator active still near with passive articulators and produce friction when air passes between them. The phoneme of the affricative is [dʒ,tʃ].
- c. Fricatives : produced when airflow moves in the oral tract with full or near closure and produces a hissing sound. Fricative has several phonemes like [f,v, ð,s,z,ʃ,ʒ,ʝ,x,h].

3. Articulation Voice

Unlike the rules of articulation, the place of articulation is the position of the highest point from articulators active with movement a number of part tongue but lips lower is also an active articulator related to a passive articulator. “Place of articulation is the position of the highest the point of the active articulators (usually some part of the tongue but the lower lip may also be the active articulators) in relation to the passive articulators (Davenport and SJ Hannah, 2005:257). Several places of articulation which include the movement of the tongue or lips are (Ladefoged, 2001: 223):

- 1) Bilabial : lips on and down close.

- 2) Labiodental : lips lower near lips on.
- 3) Dental : end position tongue in near tooth front on.
- 4) Alveolar : end or leaf tongue which touch with or in near the alveolar ridges.
- 5) Post-alveolar : the tip of the tongue behind the lower teeth and the blade of the tongue touches the front of the roof of the mouth just behind the alveolar ridges.
- 6) Palatal : end tongue near palate mouth which hard.
- 7) Velar : the back of the tongue is in contact with the velum (soft palate).
- 8) Labiovelar : two lips each other nearby temporary part behind the tongue lifts toward the velum.

4. Fricative

Fricatives are consonants that are produced by a stream of air being forced out through a narrow channel to produce a hissing sound. This is supported by the statement (Davenport and SJ Hannah, 2005: 271) that: "Fricatives are produced when the active articulator is close to but not actually in contact with the passive articulator, the position close approximation means that as the water exists forced through a narrow passage between the articulator, resulting inconsiderable friction". Fricative consonants are produced when the active articulators are close but not really touch with articulators passive, so that channel air go out narrows between the articulators. These consonants are divided into voiced and voiceless consonants. Voiceless fricative consonants are produced by non-vibrating vowel folds and produce hissing sounds by the frictional resistance of air as it moves through a narrow slit (Roach, 1991:213).

In terms of acoustic characteristics, fricatives have the production of consonants in which there is no complete cessation of air, as is the case in plosives. However, air is forced through a narrow channel between the two articulators. This process produces fizz energy which occurs

at very high frequencies which are present on the spectrogram according to their place of articulation. Resonant acoustic features of the vocal tract that are most prominent are high, irregular, noisy tones, similar to the screeching of the wind when it blows in a corner.

Based on the place of articulation, consonants are divided into labiodental, dental, alveolar, palato-alveolar, glottal. Each has its own features and characteristics such as the labio-dental fricative which does not show assimilation even though [f] is often a voiceless word as in the word of in a piece of cake. Dental fricatives can also be omitted when they precede [s] or [z]. Whereas alveolar fricatives are often assimilated by glide [j] or palatal-alveolar [ʃ] by pulling the active articulator to the palatal-alveolar position. Different from consonants another fricative, the glottal fricative having no contrasting voiced equivalent, does not appear at the end of the word.

5. Consonant Fricative Palatal-Alveolar [ʃ]

Palatal-alveolar is part of the air articulation found in fricative consonants. The process of palatal-alveolar speech is partly palatal and part of the alveolar with the position of the tip of the tongue just behind the lower teeth and the leaves of the tongue touch the roof of the mouth. "During the consonants, the the tip of your tongue may be down behind the lower front teeth or up near the alveolar ridge, but the blade of the tongue is always close to the back part of the alveolar ridge (Ladefoged, 2010 : 122)". Process This almost the same with pronunciation phoneme [s] and [z]. Matter this supported by statement Roach (Roach, 1991:134). "The tongue is in contact with an area slightly further back than that for s,z. If the place of articulation is right at the back edge of the alveolar ridge, just before its boundary with the arch of the hard palate, it is called post-alveolar or palatal-alveolar".

The position of placement of the palatal-alveolar articulation is on the back edge of the alveolar end which is adjacent to the hard palate. Fricative consonants produced with the tongue leaf has its own symbol, [ʃ, ʒ], and is the sound of the English [ʃ] in 'shop' and [ʒ] in 'treasure' until recently these sounds were called palato-alveolar (Ball and Joan Rahilly, 2013:234). "Fricatives made here, with the blade of the tongue (and so, are 'lamino-post-alveolar'), have their own symbols, [ʃ, ʒ], and are the sounds of English 'sh' in 'shop' and 's' in 'treasure'. Until recently these sounds were termed 'palato-alveolars' and this usage may still be encountered."

From some of the above statements it can be concluded that palatal-alveolar is a fricative consonant phoneme with an articulation position almost the same as the articulation position of phonemes [s] and [z]. However, the palatal-alveolar position, that is, the tip of the tongue is located in behind tooth lower with leaf tongue touch palate mouth. Which hard and part end behind tongue is at in edge alveolar. Which soft (Ladefoged and Keith Johnson, 2010: 156).

a. Visualisation of fricative frequency Characteristics

As shown in fig.5 the fricative consonant [ʃ] has more energy on frequency. Which a little more low, centered on a little in on 3000 Hz (Ladefoged, 2001: 272). Fricative This has tone more low than consonants [s]. Number This more low than tone consonant. Consonant fricative [s] on sight words and the fricative consonant [sh] in shy has a greater amount of energy (indicated by a black lump in the spectrogram) than the other voiced fricative consonants. This matter makes this consonant a hissing fricative consonant. The hissing sound has a higher energy and indicates frequency. On picture the consonants [s] and [ʃ] have a high energy frequency of more than 10,000 Hz and a low energy frequency below 3,500 Hz. The sound [ʃ] has a slightly lower energy than the consonant [s], indicated by the black lump in the figure. The black lump in [ʃ] is thinner

than in [s]. Low frequencies start at 2500 Hz and energy is dissipated above 3000 Hz.

b. Visualisation of fricative frequency Characteristics

On picture consonant above [ʃ] has a lower frequency, around 2000 Hz. Because [s] and [ʃ] have a relatively large acoustic intensity, they produce blacker lumps than [f] or [θ]. This consonant too characterized by a characteristic formant transition. Based on the book *Introducing Phonetics & Phonology* (221) the fricative consonant [ʃ] has a resonance of about 3000 Hz, 5000 Hz for [θ] and consonant [f], between 4500 and 7000 Hz. As stated above, it can be concluded that the energy frequency is consonant palatal-alveolar [ʃ] started around 2,000 Hz until 3,500 Hz and the peak is centered around 3,000 Hz to 5,000 Hz. The resulting energy is also darker and the highest frequencies can gain frequencies of more than 10,000 Hz than other fricatives. This indicates that the fricative consonant [ʃ] has more energy when the sound is pronounced. In addition, based on the example above, the characteristics of the fricative sound have a frequency of around 2000 Hz for the lowest frequency, 2500 Hz for the energy center and more than 10,000 Hz for the highest energy.

Table 3.1 References for Pronunciation of Consonant [ʃ] at the Beginning of Words Based on Books *Vowels and Consonants* and *A Course in Phonetics*.

Frame		
Aspect Frequency	Limit Min	Limit Max
Frequency Highest	10,000 Hz	-
Frequency Center	3000 Hz	5000 Hz
Frequency Lowest	2500 Hz	3500 Hz

6. Tool Analysis Phonetics

Phonetic Analysis Computer Program or Praat is one such tool speech recognition that can display analysis tools such as waveforms, spectrograms, Linear Predictive Coding (LPC), and Fast Fourier Transform Spectrum (FFT spectrum) in one application (Irawan, 2017:56). Acoustic component will be analyzed to determine the tools used in research. As well as this study analyzes the basic components of acoustic phonetics: frequency, duration, and intensity wave voice so tool Which Which used that is spectrogram. These aspects are components that will analyze and measure data with two software, waveform and spectrogram in the Praat application. Both of these software are quite convincing in accurately analyzing and measuring phonetic acoustic components (Irawan, 2017:61).

7. Waveforms

Waveform is software that visualizes sound based on time domain. This software can measure duration, amplitude and fundamental frequency. In addition, waveforms can also adjust sound editing, such as eliminating noise that is not the object of research (Irawan, 2017:62).

8. Waveforms and speech sound

This software has advantages and disadvantages in the aspect of speech sounds. The advantage of wavefoem is that it can describe sound characteristics through sound wave patterns visualized in the wave window. In addition, by using distortion waveforms in sound signals, it can detect dirty sounds in sound saying. On the contrary, Wrong One lack using this software is consuming a lot of space in memory on the computer. Second, waveforms are difficult to interpret certain sounds such as waveforms that are considered sensitive to variations in the phase of sound waves that are not significant for analysis.

9. Spectrogram

Spectrogram is an analysis software based on time and frequency domain. The spectrogram window displays acoustic components such as fundamental frequency, duration, intensity, and formant frequency (Irawan, 2017:65). In a spectrogram, vertical lines represent the vibrations or tones of a note. The horizontal black lines represent the frequency formants. The spectrogram is marked by the mass frequency of black and white contrasting colors which mark sound energy (Irawan, 2017:65).

Within the Praat app, the spectrogram window shows additional marks for analyze phonetics acoustic. Line red Which displayed in The spectrogram window is for identifying formant frequency measurements. The blue line is to identify the tone, while the yellow line is to identify the intensity (Irawan, 2017:67). These are lines that can be hidden in the spectrogram window without losing the score of each component.

Gamabar above shows appearance arrangement spectrogram. In view In this case, the researcher can adjust the clarity of the sound by adjusting the size of the frequency range in the sound. View range (Hz) is foam to adjust the clarity of sound frequencies, for example in the spectrogram window the frequency visualization is too thick or too bright, this foam can clarify the visualization of energy in frequency. Window length is foam to set the width of the spectrogram window in window wave. While the dynamic range is a foam to adjust the dynamics of sound at sound frequencies. In this study, the authors set the spectrogram settings with a range of 0-25,000 and a dynamic range of 55-75 dB.

10. Analysis Statistics

In quantitative research data analysis techniques usually use statistics. The term "statistics" comes from the Latin word "status" or the Italian word "statista" which

means form of politics or government "(Sukestriyarno, 2014:2). According to Nother (Sukestiyarno, 2014:14), says: "Statistics is the science of the collection, classification, and measured evaluation of facts as a basis or inference. It is a body of techniques for acquiring accurate knowledge from incomplete information: a scientific system for the collection, organization, analysis, interpretation and presentation of information which can be stated in numerical foam".

Meanwhile, according to Moore (Sukestiyarno, 2014: 16), explained briefly that "statistics is the science of collecting, organizing, and interpreting numerical facts". These definitions are summarized by Sukestiyarno that statistics is a science that includes activities including data collection, data presentation, data analysis, data interpretation (Sukestiyarno, 2014:3). Shorter according to Andriyana (2010) in a module entitled SPSS, statistics is a science related to the activities of collecting, summarizing or presenting, analyzing, and interpreting it into information.

The task of statistics is to collect data includes grouping, arrange, in a row and sort the data (Sukestiyarno, 2014:3). In statistics there is an application called SPSS. SPSS functions to test the validity of the data with various techniques inside. SPSS stands for Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, used by various type researcher For analysis data statistics Which complex. SPSS is a computer software that is used as a tool in processing statistical data with fast, precise and durable which reliable Andriyana (2010). SPSS software is built for the management and statistical analysis of social science data. Originally introduced in 1968 by SPSS Inc., and later acquired by IBM in 2009.

SPSS is formally designated as IBM SPSS Statistics, most users still refer to it as SPSS. As the world standard for social science data analysis, SPSS is highly sought after because of its direct, English-like command language and meticulous user guide. Anova is wrong one part from SPSS which function for determine is there is statistically significant

difference between the means of two or more independent (unrelated) groups. There are two kinds of statistics used for data analysis in statistical research namely descriptive statistics and statistics parametric interference.

11. Statistics Descriptive

Descriptive statistics is an activity in statistics to collect and describe using simple statistical assistance or percentages with diagrams (Sukestiyarno, 2014:3). According to (Sugiyono, 2017: 147) descriptive statistics are statistics that are used to analyze data by describing or depicting data have accumulated. Based on these quotations it can be concluded that descriptive statistics serve to describe the sample data do not draw conclusions For population that sample taken. Whereas according to Andriyana (2010) descriptive statistics is a branch of industrial statistics which contains the collection and summarization of data on an event, processing the data and presenting it in the form of tables and graphs or curves.

Descriptive statistics are divided into five tests which are divided based on their respective functions Andriyana (2010), namely:

- a. Olap Cube , this test is used to summarize quantitative data or qualitative data practically, which includes many variables, but no inference (decision analysis) is carried out on the data but only an illustration.
- b. Case Summaries , this test aims to present a summary of a variable (quantitative or qualitative data) with the appearance of each case with certain criteria.
- c. Frequency, this test is used to make a frequency distribution table and calculate values such as mean, median, mode and also the value of central tendency (central tendency).
- d. Descriptive, aims to provide an overview of data, both qualitative and quantitative data such as mean, standard deviation, variance, and so on. This study uses a

descriptive test to find the mean value of all values.

- e. Explore, the same as the descriptive test that is doing a description of the data and testing it: the data used can be either qualitative or quantitative.

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CHAPTER 4

SYNTACTIC STRUCTURES

By Tiyas Saputri

4.1 Introduction

Syntactic structure or syntax is a structural arrangement of Sentence in English grammar which refers to how words, phrases, and clauses are put together to form a sentence. This structural arrangement, also known as or, is necessary for a phrase to operate or have meaning grammatically. In general, the composition of the Subject, Predicate, Object, and Adverb (which relate to syntax function) constitutes the syntactic structures. Nouns, verbs, adjectives, and numerals related to syntax category (Linzen & Baroni, 2021). While actors, sufferers, and recipients with regard to the role of syntax. The existence of the smallest syntactic structure is supported by word order, word form, and intonation (Nafinuddin, 2020). It can also be added with a connector which is usually called a conjunction. The roles of the three syntactic tools are not similar between one language and another.

According to Francis in Sipahutar (2017), there are four kinds of syntactic structures, namely, (1) Structure of predication, (2) Structure of modification, (3) Structure of complementation and (4) Structure of coordination. The head and the modifier are the two main parts of the modification structure. The modifier's meaning can be used to qualify, narrow down, alter, or otherwise influence the meaning of the head. Subject and predicate are the two immediate components of the predication structure. In a clause, the subject and predicate are crucial components. Verbal Element and Complement are the two basic components of complement structures. In a coordination structure, two or more syntactically comparable units are connected together to form a structure that performs the

functions of a single unit. Any portion of speech, a function word, or a more complicated structure can be one of the linked units.

4.2 Syntax Unit

4.2.1 Word

Words serve as category markers, fillers of syntactic functions, and coupling in connecting units or sections of syntactic units because they are the smallest unit in syntax. Two types of words, full words and word assignment, must be distinguished from words used as syntactic unit fillers. A word is considered to be fully formed if it contains lexical meaning, the potential to go through morphological change, belongs to an open class, and may function independently as a class unit. Adjectives, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, and numeralia are examples of whole words. For example, a mosque means 'a place of worship for Muslims'. While the word task is a word that lexically has no meaning, it does not undergo morphological processes, is a class closed, and in the rules he can not stand alone. Which includes the word assignment is the category of prepositional words and conjunctions. For example, and does not have a lexical meaning, but has the syntax for combining adds two constituents. Words that are full words have absolute freedom, or almost absolute freedom can fill in syntactical functions. While the word assignment has the freedom that limited, always bound by the word behind it (for prepositions), or which is in front of it (for postpositions), and with the words it strings together (for conjunctions) (Clark, 2011).

4.2.2 Phrase

1. Definition of Phrases

A common phrase is a grammatical unit that takes the form of a grouping of words that are non-predicative (i.e., there is no subject-predicate structure or predicate-object relationship between the two elements that make up the phrase), also known

as a grouping of words that fulfill one of the syntactic functions in a sentence.

2. Phrase Types

a. Exocentric Phrases

A phrase is considered exocentric if any of its constituent parts do not exhibit the same syntactic behavior as the phrase as a whole. Exocentric phrases are typically distinguished from exocentric phrases that are directive or called prepositional phrases (the first component is in the form of a preposition, such as *in*, *to*, and *from*, and the second component is a word or group of words, which is typically categorized as a noun) and non-directive (the first component is an article, such as *si* and *sang* while the components of both are in the form of words or groups of words categorized as nouns, adjectives, etc.

b. Endocentric Phrases

Endocentric phrases have one part or component that behaves syntactically in the same way as the entire phrase. In other words, one of its parts might take the place of the entire. Because its second component, the non-core or upstream component (English head), modifies or restricts the meaning of the main or upstream component, this phrase is also known as a modifier phrase. Because one of its components, the phrase's core, functions as the superior component while the other, the limiting component, functions as the subordinate component, it is also known as a subordinate phrase. According to the core categories, there are verbal phrases (endocentric phrases whose essence is in the form of a verb, so it can replace the position of a verbal word in syntax), nominal phrases (endocentric phrases whose essence is in the form of a noun or pronoun), adjective phrases (endocentric phrases whose essence is in the form of adjectives), and numeralia phrases.

c. Coordinating Phrases

Coordinating phrases are those whose constituent parts include two or more identical and equal parts that may be

connected by coordinating conjunctions. Parataxic phrases are coordinating clauses that do not expressly employ conjunctions.

d. Appositive Phrases

An appositive phrase is a coordinating phrase in which the two parts relate to one another, allowing the parts to be switched around in any sequence.

e. Extension Phrases

Phrases may be enlarged, which is one of their characteristics. In other words, depending on the ideas or meanings that will be presented, phrases may be given new additions. The extension of terms in Indonesian appears to be quite beneficial. Among other reasons, this is due to the fact that unique, extremely special, or very special notions are typically articulated lexically. The second issue is that, unlike flexion languages, the idea of tense, modality, aspect, kind, quantity, denial, and delimitation is communicated by lexical items rather than by affixes. Another aspect is the requirement to describe an idea in great detail, particularly for noun concepts.

4.2.3 Clause

1. Definition of Clause

A syntactic unit in the form of a series of words with a predicative construction is called a clause. To put it another way, certain parts of the composition, such as words or phrases, serve as predicates, while the others serve as the subject, object, and adverb. As a clause already includes the subject and predicate, which are required grammatical functions, it has the potential to become a complete sentence. If a final intonation is added, phrases and words can also take on the form of sentences, albeit minor sentences as opposed to big sentences, which can happen with clauses.

2. Clause Type

According to their structural characteristics, clauses can be divided into independent clauses (clauses with complete elements, at least having a subject and predicate; and having the potential to become a major sentence) and bound clauses (clauses with incomplete elements, possibly only having a subject, only having an object, or only having an adverb). The subordinate clause, also known as the subordinate clause, is the subordinating conjunction that comes before a dependent clause. Independent clauses, also known as the major clauses, are the clauses that follow dependent clauses in compound sentences. It may be identified as verbal clauses (clauses whose predicate is in the category of verbs) based on the category of segmental parts that become the predicate. There are four types of clauses based on the type of verb: (1) transitive clauses, which have a transitive verb as their predicate; (2) intransitive clauses, which have an intransitive verb as their predicate; (3) reflexive clauses, which have a reflexive verb as their predicate; and (4) reciprocal clauses, which have a reciprocal verb as their predicate. Clauses whose predicate takes the form of a nominal noun or phrase are known as nominal clauses. Adjective clauses (clauses with an adjective as the predicate, whether in the form of a word or a phrase) Clauses classified as prepositions known as adverbial clauses have a predicate that is a sentence. serves as a subject as well.

4.2.4 Sentence

1. Definition of Sentences

The definition of a sentence as "an orderly arrangement of words containing a complete thought" links the phrase's function as a vehicle for interaction with the completeness of the message or content to be communicated. In contrast, that sentence is a syntactic unit in relation to smaller syntactic units (words, phrases, and clauses) and is made up of fundamental components, most of which take the form of clauses, which are

occasionally reinforced by conjunctions, and which are followed by final intonation. It follows that the fundamental elements and ending intonation make up a sentence and serve as its foundation, but conjunctions are only used when necessary. There are three types of final intonations that define sentences: declarative, which is indicated by a period in written language; interrogative, which is indicated by a question mark; and exclamatory, which is indicated by an exclamation point in written language.

3. Sentence Types

a. Core Sentences and Non-Key Sentences

In written language, a period indicates a declarative intonation, a question mark indicates an interrogative intonation, and an exclamation point indicates an exclamatory intonation. These three final intonations are what give sentences their distinctive sound. For example:

NP + VP + NP + NP : Grandpa reads grandma's magazines

Note: NP=Noun Phrase; VP=Verbal Phrase;
AP=Adjective Phrase; NumP=Numeral Phrase;
PP=Prepositional Phrase (Chomsky, 1985).

Core sentences can be changed to non-core sentences with various transformation processes:

Core Sentence + Transformation Process = Non Core Sentence

Note: The transformation process includes passive transformation, denial transformation, questioning transformation, governance transformation, conversion transformation, release transformation, addition transformation.

b. Simple Sentences and Compound Sentences

A simple sentence is a sentence that has only one clause. While a compound sentence is a sentence that has more than one clause. It is classified into the following categories depending on how the clauses of a sentence are: (1) coordinating compound sentences/ equivalent compound sentences, namely compound sentences whose clauses have the same status, are equivalent, or are equivalent. Explicitly connected by coordinating conjunctions and usually the same elements are compounded or combined so that they are called compound compound sentences. (2) Subordinative compound sentences are compound sentences in which the relationship between the clauses is not equal or equal. One clause is the superior clause and the other is called the subordinate clause.

The two clauses are connected by a subordinating conjunction. The process of forming this sentence can be seen from two conflicting angles. First, it is seen as the result of the process of combining two or more clauses, where one clause is considered the superior clause and the other is called the subordinate clause. The second view is that the construction of subordinate sentences is considered as the result of the process of expanding one of the elements of the clause. (3) Compound sentences with three or more clauses, some of which are related in a coordinative manner and others in a subordinative fashion, are known as compound complex sentences. It is also known as a mixed compound sentence since this sentence combines coordinating and subordinating compound sentences.

c. Major Sentences and Minor Sentences

Major sentences have entire clauses, or at the very least, a subject and a predicate. The context can be the context of the phrase, the context of the circumstance, or even the topic of discussion, but the minor clause sentence is incomplete regardless of whether it just consists of a subject, a predicate, an object, or a description.

d. Verbal Sentences and Non-Verbal Sentences

Sentences that are created from verbal clauses are referred to as verbal sentences, as are sentences whose predicate is a verb-classified word or phrase. Nonverbal sentences, on the other hand, are those whose predicate is not a verbal word or phrase; they can also contain numeric information. Regarding the various verbal kinds, the following distinctions are typically made: (1) A transitive sentence is one in which the predicate is a transitive verb, that is, one that, if it is monotransitive, is generally followed by one object, and, if it is transitive, by two objects. (2) Intransitive verbs, or verbs without objects, are the predicate of intransitive sentences. (3) Active sentences have an active verb as the predicate. Passive phrases are denoted by the prefix *di-* or *per-*, whereas active verbs are often indicated with the prefix *me-* or *per-*. In relation to the occurrence of a number of active verbs that cannot be passive and passive verbs that cannot be employed as active verbs, there are also the words active anti-passive sentences and anti-active passive sentences. (4) Dynamic sentences are composed of a predicate that semantically expresses movement or action. Static sentences, as the name implies, have a predicate that is a verb that, semantically speaking, does not indicate action or activity. (6) Nonverbal phrases have a predicate that isn't a verb.

e. Free Sentences and Bound Sentences

Free sentences are those that have the ability to stand alone as full utterances or to begin a paragraph or discourse without the need for supporting clauses or background. Bound sentences, on the other hand, are those that require context to function as paragraph openers, discourses, or entire utterances. Usually bound sentences use one of the dependency signs, such as sequence markers, designations, and anaphoric markers. From the discussion about bound sentences, it can be concluded that a sentence is not must have a complete functional structure. The completeness of a sentence and its understanding really depends on the context and situation.

f. Sentence Intonation

Since a sentence without intonation is equivalent to a clause, and vice versa, a clause plus intonation is equivalent to a sentence, intonation is the key difference between the two. So, even if a sentence's intonation is taken away, the clause still exists. Pressure, speed, and pitch are three ways to define intonation. The suprasegmental features that go along with speech sounds are called stress. The tempo is the amount of time required to recite a stream of speech. The loudness of a segment in a stream of speech is used to determine the suprasegmental nature of tone. There are three different tones in Indonesian; the low tone is often represented by the number "1," the middle tone by the number "2," and the high tone by the number "3."

Example: Sweep the floor!

2 – 32t / 2 11t #

Note: n=up; t=down; the - sign above the letters = stress

Different stress causes different intonation; As a result, the whole sentence will be different.

4. Mode, Aspect, Tense, Modality, Focus and Diathesis

a. Mode

Depending on how the reader or speaker interprets what is being stated, the method is the revelation or representation of the psychological context of the event. There are many different types of modes, including: (1) indicative mode or declarative mode, which is a mode that shows an objective or neutral attitude; (2) optative mode, which is a mode that expresses hope or desire; (3) imperative mode, which is a mode that states orders, prohibitions, or mediations; (4) interrogative mode, which is a mode that states questions; and (5) obligative mode, which is a mode that expresses necessity; (6) The desiderative mode, which is the mode in which a desire or will is expressed; (7) The conditional mode, which is the method in which conditions are laid forth. In actuality, the mode is what distinguishes declarative statements from interrogative, imperative, imperative, and interjective ones.

b. Aspect

Aspect is a means to examine how time is formed internally in a condition, situation, event, or process. Because it is expressed morphemically, aspect is a grammatical category in several languages. Aspects are communicated differently and by different linguistic strategies in Indonesian instead of morphemically. There are other features of Indonesian that the verb form itself expresses intrinsically. There are many different types of aspects from different languages, such as the continuative aspect, which indicates that the action is ongoing; the inceptive aspect, which describes events or things that are just beginning; the progressive aspect, which indicates that the action is ongoing; and the repetitive aspect, which indicates that the action is repeated; (5) The emotive aspect, which asserts that the activity is finished; (6) The imperfective aspect, which asserts that the action lasts just

a small period of time; and (8) The deceptive aspect, which asserts that the action comes to an end.

c. Tenses

Tenses are details that describe the timing of an event, action, or experience that is stated in the predicate. The present, past, and future are typically expressed using this time. Some languages use morpheme marking to indicate the time, which means that the verb's form at the moment was used to indicate the inquiry. Indonesian uses lexical rather than morpheme-based time marking. Many Indonesian speakers mistakenly refer to the verbs *when*, *is*, and *will be* as adverbs of time because they believe that they have the same grammatical role. As a result of the grammar, temporal adverbs and other adverbs provide information about the entirety of the phrase. *When*, on the other hand, is bound to the verb or predicate, its position cannot be shifted to the beginning of the phrase or to another location. Terms like *already*, *presently*, and *will be* are "of a kind" with terms like *yesterday*, *earlier*, and *tomorrow* that communicate time; this last word can actually serve as an adverb, which may be the origin of the mistake. It might possibly be because the term "adverb" in conventional grammar refers to both the idea of syntactic function and the concept of syntactic category.

d. Modality

A sentence's modality refers to the speaker's attitude toward the topic under discussion, namely toward acts, situations, and occurrences, as well as the interlocutor. This mindset may be a declaration of potential, ambition, or approval. Modality is lexically conveyed in a variety of languages, including Indonesian. There are many kinds of modalities that are known to exist in the language literature, including: (1) intentional modalities, which are modalities that indicate desire, anticipation, request, or invitation; (2) epistemic modality, which is a modality that expresses possibility, certainty, and necessity; (3) deontic

modality, namely modality expressing permission or trust; and (4) silent modality, which is a modality that expresses ability.

e. Focus

A focus is a word or phrase that draws the listener's or reader's attention to a particular area of a sentence. There are certain languages that utilize specific affixes to morphologically convey this focus, but there are also others that do it in different ways. Focusing a sentence in Indonesian may be accomplished in a number of ways, such as: First, by emphasizing the phrase's focal point. Second, by giving the sentence's focus its own priority. Third, the sentence's focal points—which, about, and are highlighted by the particle *pun*. By contrasting the two clauses of the sentence, fourth. Fifth, by employing possessive antecedent anaphoric constructions.

f. Diathesis

Diathesis is a term used to describe how a sentence's actors or participants relate to the acts it describes. There are various types of diathesis, including: (1) active diathesis, which is when the subject performs an action; (2) passive diathesis, which is when the subject performs an action to himself; (3) diathesis of reflection; (4) reciprocal diathesis, which is when the subject consists of two parties performing reciprocal actions; and (5) causative diathesis, which is when the subject is the reason why something occurs.

4.2.5. Discourse

1. Definition of discourse

As a full linguistic unit, discourse is the highest and biggest grammatical unit in the grammatical hierarchy. Considering discourse to be a whole unit of language, it implies that there are concepts, ideas, thoughts, or ideas that are intact and that readers (in written discourse) or listeners (in oral discourse) may

understand without a doubt. Sentences that adhere to grammatical rules and other discursive requirements are assembled into discourse, which is the highest or biggest grammatical unit. Cohesiveness, or harmony in the relationship between the parts in the discourse such that the contents of the discourse are clean and accurate, can be created into the discourse in order to satisfy the grammatical criteria.

2. Discourse Tool

First, conjunctions, which are instruments to link sentence components, or connect paragraph by paragraph, are grammatical devices that may be utilized to make a discourse coherent. In order to avoid repeating the same portion of the statement, the pronouns he, nya, they, this, and that are used as anaphoric allusions. Third, employing ellipsis, which involves leaving out portions of a phrase that also include other sentences. A cohesive and coherent speech may be created in addition to grammatical efforts with the aid of numerous semantic features, such as: First, use the oppositional relationship between the two sentences in the discourse. Second, employing connections that are generic to particular or specific to general. Thirdly, comparing the contents of the two sentence components or the contents of two sentences inside a single discourse. Use a causal connection or substance between two sentences in a single discourse to connect the two sections of the phrase. The fifth is incorporating objective relationships into discourse content. Sixth, employing the same reference connection twice inside a single sentence or within two separate sentences.

3. Types of Discourse

There is spoken discourse and written discourse depending on whether the aim is spoken language or written language, as can be observed. It may be distinguished between prose discourse and poetry discourse based on how language is used, whether it takes the form of a description or is poetic in nature. Additionally, story discourse, exposition discourse, persuasive discourse, and argumentation discourse are the four

subcategories of prose speech based on how their contents are delivered.

4. Discourse Sub Unit

Discourse in the form of scientific essays is built by sub-units or sub-sub-units of discourse called chapters, sub-chapters, paragraphs, or also sub-paragraphs. However, in short discourses there are no sub-subunits of discourse.

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CHAPTER 5

SEMANTICS : ANALISYS OF MEANING

By Barep Sarinauli

5.1. What Is semantics Analysis?

Semantics is the Study of meaning communicated through language; it is the study of the meaning of words, phrases and sentences (Yule:2010:112). (Griffths:2006:1) said that semantics is one of the two main branches of linguistic studies. Accordingly, Akmaijan, et al (2003) argues that semantic theory should assigns expressions in a language their respective semantics properties and relationship that Semantics analysis, also known as semantic analysis or sentiment analysis, is a computational process that aims to understand and interpret the meaning, sentiment, and subjective information contained within text or speech. It involves the use of natural language processing (NLP) techniques to analyze and extract insights from textual data. One frequently identified for semantic analysis in NPL goes under the heading of ambiguity resolution. As point of you, many human utterances are open to multiple interpretations, because words may have more than one meaning (lexical ambiguity), or because certain words, such as quantifier, modals, or negative operators may apply to different stretches of text (scopal ambiguity), or because the intended references of pronouns or other referring expression may be unclear (referential ambiguity).

The primary goal of semantics analysis is to determine the sentiment or emotion expressed in a given piece of text, such as a review, social media post, or customer feedback. It involves identifying and categorizing the sentiment as positive, negative, or neutral. This analysis can help businesses and organizations understand public opinion, customer satisfaction, or market trends. Semantics analysis typically involves several steps, including:

1. *Text Preprocessing*: The text data is cleaned and prepared by removing irrelevant information, such as stop words (common words like "the," "and," etc.), punctuation, and special characters.
2. *Tokenization*: The text is divided into individual words or tokens.
3. *Part-of-Speech (POS) Tagging*: Each word is labeled with its part of speech, such as noun, verb, adjective, etc.
4. *Sentiment Classification*: Machine learning algorithms or rule-based approaches are applied to classify the sentiment of the text as positive, negative, or neutral. This can involve techniques such as rule-based analysis, machine learning classifiers (e.g., Naive Bayes, Support Vector Machines), or deep learning models (e.g., recurrent neural networks or transformers).
5. *Sentiment Analysis Output*: The final output of sentiment analysis is often represented as a sentiment score or a sentiment label indicating the overall sentiment expressed in the text.

Semantics analysis has various applications, such as social media monitoring, brand reputation management, customer feedback analysis, market research, and content moderation. By analyzing large volumes of text data, organizations can gain valuable insights to make informed decisions and improve their products, services, and overall customer experience.

5.2. How Does Semantic Analysis Work?

The specific methods used in semantic analysis can vary depending on the complexity of the task and the available resources. However, here is a general overview of how semantic analysis works:

1. *Parsing and Tokenization*: The text is broken down into individual words or tokens, and the sentence structure is analyzed to identify the syntactic relationships between the words. This step involves parsing techniques such as constituency parsing or dependency parsing.
2. *Part-of-Speech (POS) Tagging*: Each word is assigned a part-of-speech tag, indicating its grammatical category (noun, verb, adjective, etc.). POS tagging helps in disambiguating the meaning of words based on their context.
3. *Named Entity Recognition (NER)*: Named entities, such as person names, locations, organizations, or dates, are identified and categorized in the text. NER helps in understanding the entities mentioned in the text and their relationships.
4. *Word Sense Disambiguation*: Many words in natural language have multiple meanings. Word sense disambiguation is the process of determining the correct sense of a word based on the context in which it is used. This is crucial for understanding the intended meaning of a sentence.
5. *Semantic Role Labeling (SRL)*: SRL involves identifying the semantic roles played by different words or phrases in a sentence, such as the subject, object, or the action being performed. SRL helps in understanding the underlying meaning and relationships between different parts of a sentence.
6. *Sentiment Analysis*: In certain cases, semantic analysis also includes sentiment analysis, as mentioned in the previous response. Sentiment analysis aims to determine the sentiment or emotion expressed in a given piece of text, helping to understand the overall opinion or attitude conveyed.

7. *Knowledge and Ontology Integration*: Semantic analysis may involve integrating external knowledge sources, such as ontologies or semantic networks, to enhance understanding. These knowledge bases provide structured information about concepts, their relationships, and their properties, enabling deeper semantic understanding.

It's important to note that semantic analysis is a complex and challenging task, and there is no one-size-fits-all approach. Different techniques, algorithms, and models are employed depending on the specific application and requirements. Furthermore, advancements in deep learning and neural networks have also contributed to improving the accuracy and effectiveness of semantic analysis tasks.

5.3. The Advantages Of Semantic Analysis

Semantic analysis offers several advantages and benefits across various applications. Here are some key advantages of semantic analysis:

1. *Understanding Meaning and Intent*: Semantic analysis enables a deeper understanding of the meaning, intent, and context behind text or speech. By analyzing the semantics, it goes beyond surface-level analysis and helps uncover the underlying message, relationships, and nuances present in the language.
2. *Sentiment Analysis and Opinion Mining*: Semantic analysis plays a crucial role in sentiment analysis and opinion mining tasks. It allows organizations to gauge public sentiment, customer satisfaction, or brand reputation by analyzing large volumes of text data. This information can be used for market research, brand management, customer feedback analysis, and decision-making.
3. *Contextual Understanding*: Semantic analysis considers the contextual information surrounding words and phrases. It helps disambiguate words with multiple meanings based on the context in which they appear. This contextual

understanding enhances the accuracy and relevance of the analysis, leading to more meaningful insights.

4. *Entity Recognition and Relationship Extraction:* Semantic analysis facilitates the identification and extraction of named entities and their relationships from text. This can be valuable in information extraction tasks, such as identifying key entities (people, organizations, locations) and their connections in news articles or research papers.
5. *Language Understanding and Generation:* Semantic analysis is fundamental to advancing natural language understanding and generation. It contributes to tasks such as question answering, dialogue systems, chat bots, machine translation, and other applications that require interpreting and generating human like language.
6. *Knowledge Integration and Reasoning:* Semantic analysis can be used to integrate external knowledge sources, such as ontologies, taxonomies, or semantic networks. This integration allows for reasoning and inference capabilities, enabling the system to make more informed decisions, answer complex queries, and perform advanced information retrieval.
7. *Improved Information Retrieval:* By understanding the semantics of text, semantic analysis enhances the accuracy and relevance of information retrieval systems. It enables more precise search queries, better matching of user intents, and the discovery of related or relevant documents, leading to improved search results and user experience.
8. *Automated Content Analysis and Categorization:* Semantic analysis can automate the process of content analysis, categorization, and tagging. It can automatically classify documents or articles into predefined categories, making it easier to organize and retrieve information efficiently.

Overall, semantic analysis empowers businesses, researchers, and organizations to gain deeper insights from textual data, improve decision-making, enhance user experiences, and develop more intelligent and context-aware applications.

5.4. Semantic Analysis Use and Case

Semantic analysis, also known as semantic processing or semantic understanding, refers to the process of extracting meaning and context from text or speech data. It involves analyzing the structure, syntax, and semantics of language to comprehend the intended message and infer the underlying concepts. *Semantic analysis has numerous applications across various domains. Here are some common use cases:*

1. **Sentiment Analysis:** Semantic analysis can be used to determine the sentiment or opinion expressed in text or social media data. This is valuable for businesses to understand customer feedback, monitor brand reputation, and make data-driven decisions based on public sentiment.
2. **Natural Language Understanding:** Semantic analysis is crucial for building systems that can understand and respond to human language. It helps in tasks such as intent recognition, entity extraction, and question answering. Virtual assistants like chat bots and voice assistants rely on semantic analysis to provide accurate and meaningful responses to user queries.
3. **Information Retrieval:** Semantic analysis aids in improving the accuracy and relevance of search results. By understanding the meaning behind search queries and the content of documents or web pages, search engines can deliver more precise results, thereby enhancing the user experience.
4. **Document Classification and Summarization:** Semantic analysis is used to categorize and organize large volumes of text documents. By identifying the main themes and topics within a document, it becomes easier to classify, tag, and retrieve relevant information. It also enables automatic summarization of documents, creating concise summaries that capture the key information.

5. **Customer Support and Chat Analysis:** Semantic analysis helps in analyzing customer support conversations, chat logs, or social media interactions. By extracting meaning and context, businesses can identify patterns, customer needs, and common issues. This analysis can lead to improved customer service, personalized recommendations, and targeted marketing campaigns.
6. **Machine Translation:** Semantic analysis plays a significant role in machine translation systems. It helps in understanding the structure and meaning of the source language and enables accurate translation by preserving the intended semantics in the target language.
7. **Content Generation:** Semantic analysis can assist in generating high-quality content. By analyzing existing text data, it can identify patterns, generate topic summaries, and provide suggestions for generating relevant and coherent content.

These are just a few examples of how semantic analysis is utilized in various applications. Its ability to extract meaning from text data enables a wide range of automated language processing tasks, leading to improved efficiency, accuracy, and user experience in numerous domains.

5.5. The Meaning Of Sentences (Sentential Semantics)

Sentential semantics, also known as sentence semantics, is a branch of semantics that focuses on the study of meaning at the sentence level. It explores how the meaning of a sentence is composed and how it relates to the meanings of its constituent parts, such as words, phrases, and clauses. Leech said that the importance of meaning in communication is becoming the media between the speaker and the hearer to understand each other (G. Leech, 1981). According to C.K. Ogden and I.A. Richards (1923) when we use the word mean, we use it in different ways. "I mean to do this" is a way of expressing our intention. "an Olive branch

means peace” is the way indicating what the “ Olive branch” signifies. (Poesio: 2000), also explained that although sometimes presented as a general- purpose theory of knowledge predicate logic is not powerful enough to represent the intricacies of semantics meaning is fundamentally different from human reasoning. Sentential semantics examines various aspects of sentence meaning, including:

- a. **Propositional Content:** Sentential semantics investigates the propositional content or the truth conditions associated with a sentence. It explores what conditions need to be met for a sentence to be true or false. This involves understanding the logical structure of a sentence and the relationships between its constituent parts.
- b. **Semantic Roles and Relations:** Sentential semantics analyzes the semantic roles and relations expressed within a sentence. It explores how different elements in a sentence, such as subjects, objects, and verbs, interact to convey meaning and represent relationships between entities and actions.
- c. **Presuppositions and Implicatures:** Sentential semantics considers the presuppositions and implicatures associated with a sentence. Presuppositions are assumptions or background knowledge that must be true for a sentence to be meaningful. Implicatures, on the other hand, are additional meanings or inferences conveyed indirectly by a sentence.
- d. **Ambiguity and Polysemy:** Sentential semantics addresses the issue of ambiguity and polysemy in sentences. Ambiguity refers to situations where a sentence can be interpreted in multiple ways, while polysemy refers to cases where a single word or phrase has multiple meanings. Sentential semantics aims to disambiguate sentences and resolve the intended meaning based on context and linguistic clues.
- e. **Contextual Effects:** Sentential semantics takes into account the role of context in sentence interpretation. The meaning of a sentence can be influenced by the linguistic and situational context in which it occurs. Sentential semantics explores how

context shapes the interpretation of sentences and how contextual information can affect the meaning of specific words or phrases.

Sentential semantics is a complex and interdisciplinary field that draws upon logic, linguistics, cognitive science, and philosophy to understand how sentences convey meaning. It provides insights into the structure and interpretation of sentences and contributes to the broader understanding of language and communication.

5.6. Truth Value

A truth-conditional sentence, also known as a truth-conditional statement or proposition, is a type of sentence that expresses a claim or assertion about the world and can be evaluated as either true or false based on the actual state of affairs.

5.7 Truth-conditional sentences

The truth value of such a sentence is determined by whether the relationship or property described by the sentence holds in reality. Here are some examples of truth-conditional sentences:

1. "The cat is on the mat." This sentence asserts a spatial relationship between the cat and the mat. It is true if, in reality, the cat is indeed located on the mat, and false if the cat is not on the mat.
2. "Water boils at 100 degrees Celsius." This sentence states a factual property of water, its boiling point. It is true if water, under normal atmospheric conditions, does indeed reach its boiling point at 100 degrees Celsius. If water boils at a different temperature, the sentence is false.
3. "John is taller than Mary." This sentence compares the height of John and Mary. Its truth value depends on the actual heights of John and Mary. If John is, in fact, taller than Mary, the sentence is true; otherwise, it is false.

In each of these examples, the truth-conditional sentence can be evaluated by examining the state of affairs in the world. The truth or falsity of the sentence is determined by whether the described relationship, property, or fact aligns with the actual state of the entities involved. Truth-conditional sentences are fundamental in logic, philosophy, and formal semantics, as they provide the basis for analyzing and evaluating the truth values of statements and propositions.

5.8 Compositional Semantics

Compositional Semantics is an approach in semantics that focuses on the principle of compositionality, which states that the meaning of a complex expression is determined by the meanings of its constituent parts and the way they are combined.

In compositional semantics, the meaning of a sentence is built up from the meanings of its individual words or phrases and the syntactic structure that governs their combination. It emphasizes the idea that the meaning of a sentence is derived systematically from the meanings of its smaller components. Here are the key aspects of compositional semantics:

- a. **Lexical Semantics:** Compositional semantics begins with lexical semantics, which deals with the meanings of individual words or lexemes. It investigates how words contribute to the meaning of a sentence and how their meanings are related to the concepts they represent.
- b. **Syntactic Structure:** Compositional semantics takes into account the syntactic structure of a sentence, which specifies the hierarchical arrangement and grammatical relationships between words and phrases. It considers how the syntactic structure influences the meaning composition process.
- c. **Semantic Operations:** Compositional semantics employs various semantic operations to combine the meanings of constituent parts. These operations include function application, predicate modification, quantification, and logical

connectives, among others. The specific operations used depend on the formal framework being employed.

- d. **Semantic Rules:** Compositional semantics employs semantic rules that define how the meanings of constituents combine to yield the meaning of a larger expression. These rules are often based on principles of logic, formal language, or mathematical systems. They provide a systematic way to derive the meaning of a sentence based on its structure and the meanings of its constituents.
- e. **Truth Conditions:** Compositional semantics aims to assign truth conditions to sentences by analyzing the meanings of their components and their composition. It seeks to determine under what circumstances a sentence would be true or false based on the meanings of its parts and their relationships.

Compositional semantics is a fundamental approach in formal semantics and computational linguistics. It provides a systematic framework for understanding and analyzing the meaning of sentences by breaking them down into smaller units and examining how their meanings combine. By following the principle of compositionality, compositional semantics enables precise and systematic reasoning about the meanings of complex expressions in natural language.

5.9 Semantic Analytics

Semantic analytics also known as text analytics or natural language processing (NLP) analytics, refers to the application of techniques and algorithms to extract meaningful insights and knowledge from textual data. It involves analyzing the semantic structure, context, and relationships within sentences or documents to uncover patterns, sentiments, entities, and other valuable information. Semantic analytics can involve various methods and techniques, including:

- a. **Sentiment Analysis:** This involves determining the sentiment or emotion expressed in a sentence or document, such as

positive, negative, or neutral. It is useful for understanding public opinion, customer feedback, and brandsentiment.

- b. **Named Entity Recognition (NER):** NER aims to identify and classify named entities, such as names of persons, organizations, locations, and other specific entities mentioned in text. It helps in extracting valuable information and generating structured knowledge from unstructured text data.
- c. **Topic Modeling:** Topic modeling techniques, such as Latent Dirichlet Allocation (LDA), are used to automatically discover latent topics within a collection of documents. It allows for the identification of the main themes and subject matter present in the text data.
- d. **Relationship Extraction:** This technique involves extracting and understanding relationships or connections between entities mentioned in text. It helps in identifying dependencies, associations, or interactions between different elements and can be useful for knowledge graph construction or information retrieval.
- e. **Text Classification:** Text classification techniques are used to automatically categorize text documents into predefined categories or classes. It can be used for tasks like spam detection, sentiment classification, or content filtering.
- f. **Semantic Parsing:** Semantic parsing involves converting natural language sentences into structured representations, such as logical forms or semantic graphs, which capture the meaning and intent of the sentence. It enables deeper understanding and enables downstream tasks like question answering or dialogue systems.
- g. **Text Summarization:** Text summarization techniques aim to condense lengthy documents or texts into shorter summaries while preserving the essential information. It can be extractive, where important sentences are selected, or abstractive, where new sentences are generated.

These are just a few examples of how semantic analytics is applied to extract meaning and valuable insights from textual data. By leveraging advanced NLP techniques and algorithms, semantic analytics enables organizations to gain valuable knowledge from unstructured text and make data driven decisions.

5.10 Contradiction

Refers to a situation where two statements, propositions, or pieces of information cannot both be true simultaneously. In other words, a contradiction occurs when there is a logical inconsistency or conflict between two or more assertions. Key points about contradiction:

- a. **Logical Inconsistency:** A contradiction arises when there is a logical conflict between statements. If two statements contradict each other, it means that they cannot both be true at the same time in the same sense.
- b. **Truth-Value:** Contradictory statements have opposite truth values. If one statement is true, the other statement must be false, and vice versa.
- c. **Law of Non-Contradiction:** The law of non-contradiction is a fundamental principle of classical logic that states that a proposition cannot be both true and false at the same time and in the same sense.
- d. **Identifying Contradictions:** Contradictions can be identified by examining the content and logical relationships between statements. In some cases, contradictions may be explicit and easily recognizable, while in other cases, they may require careful analysis to uncover.
- e. **Resolving Contradictions:** Resolving a contradiction typically involves identifying the logical error, finding missing information, or reassessing the premises to eliminate the inconsistency. Resolving contradictions is essential for maintaining logical coherence and sound reasoning.

Examples of contradictions: "The cat is on the mat" and "The cat is not on the mat." These statements directly contradict each other regarding the cat's location. Identifying and resolving contradictions is important in logic, rational argumentation, and critical thinking to maintain logical consistency and avoid logical fallacies.

5.11 Paradoxes

A paradox is a statement or situation that appears to be contradictory or logically impossible, but upon closer examination, reveals an underlying truth or insight. Paradoxes often challenge our intuitions and lead to intriguing and thought-provoking scenarios. Key points about paradoxes:

- a. **Apparent Contradiction:** Paradoxes involve a seeming contradiction or conflict between different elements or ideas within a statement or situation. They often defy common sense or expectations.
- b. **Resolution:** Paradoxes often invite deeper analysis or a shift in perspective to resolve the apparent contradiction. They may reveal hidden assumptions or limitations in our thinking.
- c. **Philosophical Significance:** Paradoxes have been of interest to philosophers, logicians, and thinkers throughout history. They can shed light on fundamental concepts, such as truth, knowledge, identity, time, and language.
- d. **Types of Paradoxes:** There are various types of paradoxes, including logical paradoxes (e.g., the liar paradox), self-reference paradoxes (e.g., the Barber paradox), paradoxes of infinity (e.g., Zeno's paradoxes), and paradoxes of time travel (e.g., the grandfather paradox).
- e. **Paradoxical Effects:** Paradoxes can lead to interesting effects, such as the unexpected consequences of actions or statements. They may challenge our assumptions and conventional wisdom.

Examples of paradoxes:

1. The Bootstrap Paradox: In this time travel paradox, an object or information is caught in a loop of causality, with no discernible origin. It raises questions of where the object or information came from and challenges the concept of cause and effect.
2. The Sorites Paradox: Also known as the paradox of the heap, it questions the boundaries of concepts. If removing one grain of sand does not change a heap, at what point does removing grains of sand make it no longer a heap? It highlights the challenges of defining vague or imprecise concepts.
3. The Paradox of Epimenides: Epimenides, a Cretan, famously stated, "All Cretans are liars." If Epimenides is telling the truth, then he, as a Cretan, must be lying. This paradox exposes the challenge of self-referential statements and leads to logical contradiction.
4. The Unexpected Hanging Paradox: A paradoxical situation where a prisoner is told they will be hanged on a surprise day of the week, but the hanging cannot be a surprise. The reasoning leads to a contradiction that challenges our understanding of expectations and surprise.

Paradoxes are intriguing because they challenge our assumptions and encourage us to think beyond conventional boundaries. They often highlight the limits of human reasoning and provide fertile ground for philosophical exploration and intellectual growth.

5.12 Entailment

Entailment, in logic and semantics, refers to a relationship between two statements where the truth of one statement logically guarantees the truth of another. It indicates that if the first statement is true, then the second statement must also be true. Key points about entailment: Logical Implication: Entailment is a form of logical implication, where the truth of one

statement (the premise) logically implies the truth of another statement (the conclusion). The premise provides support or evidence for the conclusion.

- a. Truth Preservation: Entailment ensures that if the premise is true, the conclusion cannot be false. The truth of the premise "entails" or "necessitates" the truth of the conclusion.
- b. Directionality: Entailment is a directional relationship. If A entails B, it does not necessarily mean that B entails A. Entailment is asymmetrical in nature.
- c. Inference and Reasoning: Entailment plays a crucial role in logical inference and reasoning. It allows us to make valid deductions or draw conclusions based on given information.
- d. Entailment vs. Equivalence: Entailment should not be confused with logical equivalence. Two statements are logically equivalent if they have the same truth value in all possible situations. In contrast, entailment only requires that the truth of the premise guarantees the truth of the conclusion.
- e. Symbolic representation of entailment: In logic, entailment is often represented using symbols:

$A \models B$: Statement A entails statement B.

$A \Rightarrow B$: A implies B.

$A \rightarrow B$: A logically implies B.

- f. Relationship between Sentences: Entailment focuses on the relationship between a premise sentence (P) and a hypothesis sentence (H). The goal is to determine whether the meaning of the premise logically entails the meaning of the hypothesis.
- g. Levels of Entailment: There are different levels of entailment, including strict entailment (P entails H), partial entailment (P partially entails H), and contradiction (P contradicts H). Strict entailment means that the meaning of P fully implies the meaning of H, while partial entailment implies that P

provides some evidence or support for H. Contradiction means that P and H have mutually exclusive meanings.

- h. Inference and Reasoning: Entailment tasks require reasoning and inference based on the semantics and meaning of the sentences. It involves understanding the logical relationships, implications, and inferences between the statements.
- i. Applications: Entailment recognition has applications in various natural language processing tasks, such as question answering, information retrieval, text summarization, and machine translation. It enables systems to make inferences and draw conclusions based on textual information.

Example of entailment in computational linguistics:

1. Premise (P): "The cat is sitting on the mat."
2. Hypothesis (H): "There is a pet on the mat."

In this example, the meaning of the premise (P) logically entails the meaning of the hypothesis (H). If the cat is sitting on the mat, it implies the presence of a pet on the mat. Therefore, we can say that the premise (P) entails the hypothesis (H). Entailment recognition is a challenging task in natural language processing due to the complexity of understanding the semantics and context of sentences. It involves leveraging linguistic knowledge, machine learning models, and semantic representations to capture the entailment relationship accurately.

5.13 Paraphrase

Paraphrase refers to the restatement or rephrasing of a sentence, phrase, or passage to convey the same meaning but using different words or sentence structures. It involves expressing the original idea in a different form while retaining its essence and intended message. Key points about paraphrasing:

- a. **Meaning Preservation:** The primary goal of paraphrasing is to maintain the original meaning of the text while presenting it in a new way. Paraphrasing should accurately convey the same information, ideas, or concepts as the original text.
- b. **Different Words and Structures:** Paraphrasing involves using different vocabulary, sentence structures, and phrasing compared to the original text. It aims to provide an alternative presentation without directly copying or mimicking the original wording.
- c. **Contextual Understanding:** Effective paraphrasing requires a deep understanding of the context and meaning of the original text. It involves grasping the key ideas, concepts, and relationships within the text and expressing them in a new form.
- d. **Avoiding Plagiarism:** Paraphrasing is often employed to avoid plagiarism, which involves using someone else's work or ideas without proper attribution. By paraphrasing, you can incorporate information from other sources while giving credit and presenting it in your own words.
- e. **Style and Tone Adaptation:** Paraphrasing also involves adapting the style, tone, and level of formality of the original text to fit the target audience or context. It may require modifying sentence structures, choosing appropriate synonyms, and adjusting the level of technicality or complexity.

Examples of paraphrasing:

- 1. Original sentence: "The global economy is experiencing a significant downturn due to the ongoing financial crisis."
- 2. Paraphrased sentence: "The current financial crisis has caused a substantial decline in the global economy."

Paraphrasing is a valuable skill in writing, academic research, and effective communication. It allows you to convey information in your own words while maintaining the integrity and clarity of the original content. When paraphrasing, it is

essential to ensure that the intended meaning is accurately represented and that proper citation is provided for any borrowed ideas or information.

5.14 Ambiguities

Ambiguities refer to situations or expressions that have more than one possible interpretation or meaning. They arise when a word, phrase, sentence, or context can be understood in multiple ways, leading to potential confusion or uncertainty about the intended message or understanding. Key points about ambiguities:

- a. **Multiple Interpretations:** Ambiguities occur when a word, phrase, or sentence can be understood in more than one way. These different interpretations may arise due to different linguistic, contextual, or semantic factors.
- b. **Lexical Ambiguity:** Lexical ambiguity arises from words or phrases that have multiple meanings. Homonyms, homophones, and polysemous words are examples of lexical ambiguity. For instance, the word "bank" can refer to a financial institution or the edge of a river.
- c. **Structural Ambiguity:** Structural ambiguity occurs when the structure or arrangement of words in a sentence allows for different interpretations. Ambiguities can arise from syntactic ambiguity, such as ambiguous noun phrases or prepositional phrases, or from ambiguous sentence structures.
- d. **Semantic Ambiguity:** Semantic ambiguity arises from words or expressions that have imprecise or unclear meanings. It can result from vague language, figurative language, or cultural references that are open to interpretation.
- e. **Contextual Ambiguity:** Ambiguities can also be influenced by the context in which a word or sentence is used. The same word or phrase may have different meanings depending on

the surrounding text, the speaker's tone, or the shared knowledge between the speaker and the listener.

Examples of ambiguities:

1. "Flying planes can be dangerous."

This sentence is structurally ambiguous. It can be interpreted as "the act of piloting planes can be dangerous" or "planes that are flying can be dangerous."

2. "I saw her duck."

This sentence is lexically ambiguous. The word "duck" can be interpreted as a verb (to lower the body) or as a noun (the animal).

This sentence is semantically ambiguous. The word "old" can be understood as a long-standing friendship or as a friend who is advanced in age. Ambiguities can create confusion, miscommunication, or humorous situations. In literature, poetry, and jokes, ambiguities are sometimes intentionally used to create wordplay, puns, or humorous effects. However, in formal communication or technical writing, it is important to strive for clarity and to minimize ambiguities to ensure that the intended meaning is accurately conveyed.

- f. Lexical ambiguities refer to situations in which a single word or phrase has multiple meanings or interpretations. These multiple meanings can lead to confusion or different understandings of the intended message, especially when the word's context is not clear. Key points about lexical ambiguities:

- Multiple Meanings: Lexical ambiguities occur when a word or phrase has more than one distinct meaning. These meanings may be related or unrelated, depending on the context in which the word is used.
- Homonyms: Homonyms are words that sound alike or are spelled alike but have different meanings. For example, "bat" can refer to a flying mammal or a piece of sports equipment used in baseball.

- Homographs: Homographs are words that are spelled the same but have different meanings. For example, "lead" can refer to a metal or to guiding someone.
- Homophones: Homophones are words that sound the same but have different meanings and may be spelled differently. For example, "flower" and "flour" are homophones.
- Polysemy: Polysemy is a type of lexical ambiguity where a single word has multiple related meanings. For example, "bank" can refer to a financial institution or the edge of a river.

Examples of lexical ambiguities:

1. "I saw a man on the beach with a telescope."
Lexical ambiguity: The word "saw" can mean either "perceived with the eyes" or "used a tool to observe."
2. "The bank is closed."
Lexical ambiguity: The word "bank" can refer to a financial institution or the building where it is located.

Lexical ambiguities can be challenging in communication, especially in written texts or verbal interactions where context is not immediately clear. To address lexical ambiguities, additional context or clarifying information is often necessary to ensure that the intended meaning is correctly understood. In some cases, word choice or sentence restructuring can be used to minimize potential misunderstandings.

5.15 Metaphor

A metaphor is a figure of speech that compares two different things by stating that one thing is another, even though they are not literally the same. It is a way of describing or understanding one concept or object in terms of another, often to convey a deeper meaning or create vivid imagery. Key points about metaphors:

- a. **Comparison:** Metaphors involve drawing a comparison between two unrelated things or concepts. It highlights similarities or shared qualities between the two, even though they are inherently different.
- b. **Figurative Language:** Metaphors are a form of figurative language, as they use words or phrases in a non-literal sense to create imaginative or symbolic meaning.
- c. **Conveying Meaning:** Metaphors are used to convey complex or abstract ideas, emotions, or experiences by associating them with something more concrete or familiar. They can evoke emotions, create vivid images, and enhance understanding.
- d. **Imagery and Creativity:** Metaphors often use visual or sensory language to create vivid imagery and engage the reader's imagination. They add depth, richness, and creativity to language and writing.
- e. **Common Metaphorical Expressions:** Many metaphors have become conventionalized and are used as idiomatic expressions in everyday language. For example, "time is money" or "a heart of gold."

Examples of metaphors: "Her smile is a ray of sunshine."

This metaphor compares the brightness and warmth of a smile to the qualities of sunshine, emphasizing the positive and radiant nature of the person's smile.

5.16 Structural Ambiguity

Structural ambiguity refers to a situation where a sentence or phrase can be parsed or understood in multiple ways due to the ambiguous structure or arrangement of its components. It occurs when the sentence structure allows for more than one interpretation, leading to different meanings or understandings of the sentence. Key points about structural ambiguity:

1. **Multiple Parse Trees:** Structural ambiguity arises when a sentence can be represented by multiple parse trees, each

representing a different syntactic structure and corresponding meaning.

2. **Syntactic Ambiguity:** Structural ambiguity is primarily concerned with the syntactic structure of a sentence. It occurs when the same sequence of words can be grouped or combined in different ways, resulting in distinct grammatical structures and interpretations.
3. **Ambiguous Phrases or Constructions:** Structural ambiguity can arise from ambiguous phrases, such as noun phrases or prepositional phrases, where the grouping of words within the phrase can be interpreted in different ways.
4. **Garden Path Sentences:** Certain sentences can lead the reader or listener down a misleading or "garden path" interpretation initially, only to realize a different meaning upon reaching the end of the sentence.
5. **Contextual Disambiguation:** In some cases, the context surrounding a structurally ambiguous sentence can provide cues or additional information to disambiguate its intended meaning.

Examples of structural ambiguity: "Time flies like an arrow; fruit flies like a banana." This sentence has a structural ambiguity in the phrase "time flies." It can be understood as "time passes quickly like an arrow" or "insects called 'time flies' like an arrow."

Structural ambiguity poses challenges in language understanding and can lead to misinterpretations or different understandings of a sentence. It highlights the importance of considering the context, employing syntactic analysis, and relying on additional information to disambiguate the intended meaning.

5.17 Anomaly: No Sense and Non Sense

Anomaly refers to something that deviates from what is considered normal, expected, or typical. It indicates a deviation, irregularity, or exception from a standard or established pattern. Anomalies can occur in various domains, including language, behavior, data, or systems.

- a. **Linguistic Anomaly:** In linguistics, an anomaly refers to a word, phrase, or sentence that does not conform to the usual grammatical or semantic patterns of a language. It may involve incorrect syntax, nonsensical combinations of words, or violations of linguistic rules. Linguistic anomalies can be intentional (for creative or rhetorical purposes) or unintentional (due to errors or linguistic constraints).
- b. **Example:** "Colorless green ideas sleep furiously." This sentence, coined by Noam Chomsky, is grammatically correct but nonsensical, as it combines contradictory terms.
- c. **Semantic Anomaly:** Semantic anomalies occur when a word or phrase is used in a context that violates its typical meaning or associations. It creates confusion or incongruity between the intended message and the conveyed meaning.
- d. **Example:** "The sun is a square." This sentence is semantically anomalous because it attributes a geometric shape to the sun, which contradicts its known characteristics.
- e. **Behavioral Anomaly:** In the context of human behavior, an anomaly refers to actions, responses, or patterns that deviate significantly from what is considered normal or expected. Behavioral anomalies can be used to identify abnormalities or deviations from typical behavior, such as in anomaly detection systems.
- f. **Data Anomaly:** In data analysis, anomalies refer to data points or patterns that significantly differ from the expected or normal behavior of the dataset. Anomaly detection techniques aim to identify these unusual or outlier data points that do not conform to the overall data distribution.
- g. **System Anomaly:** In complex systems, anomalies can indicate malfunctions, errors, or deviations from expected behavior. Anomaly detection methods are employed to

monitor system performance and identify abnormal events or conditions.

Anomalies can be valuable in identifying errors, discovering novel patterns, or detecting potential problems. However, they can also introduce challenges in language understanding, data analysis, and system monitoring. Identifying and interpreting anomalies require careful analysis, contextual understanding, and domain knowledge to distinguish between intentional deviations and errors or irregularities.

5.18 Idiom

Idioms are expressions or phrases that have a figurative or metaphorical meaning that differs from the literal interpretation of the individual words. They are specific to a particular language or culture and are often used to add color, emphasis, or nuance to language. Idioms are deeply rooted in the language and may not make sense when translated literally. Key points about idioms:

1. **Figurative Meaning:** Idioms use words or phrases in a non-literal sense, often relying on metaphorical or symbolic associations. The meaning of an idiom cannot be deduced by understanding the individual words alone.
2. **Cultural and Linguistic Context:** Idioms are closely tied to the cultural and linguistic context in which they are used. They may reflect historical events, traditions, values, or customs of a specific language community.
3. **Fixed Expressions:** Idioms are fixed expressions that have a set form and are used as a single unit. Changing or modifying the words within an idiom can alter or diminish its meaning.
4. **Common Usage:** Idioms are frequently used in everyday language, informal conversations, literature, and other forms of communication. Mastery of idioms is essential for achieving fluency and understanding native speakers.
5. **Interpretation and Learning:** Interpreting idioms requires understanding their figurative meanings and the cultural context in which they are used. For non-native speakers,

learning idioms often involves studying their meanings and usage through exposure and practice.

Examples of idioms:

"Break a leg!"

This idiom is used to wish someone good luck, especially before a performance or presentation.

This idiom means to identify or express something accurately or precisely.

1. "The ball is in your court."

This idiom means it is someone's turn or responsibility to take action or make a decision.

2. "Bite the bullet."

This idiom means to face a difficult or unpleasant situation with courage and determination.

Idioms enrich language by providing colorful expressions and conveying meanings that extend beyond literal interpretation. Understanding and using idioms correctly adds depth and fluency to communication. However, idioms can also be challenging for non-native speakers, as their meanings are not always obvious from the words themselves. Familiarizing oneself with idioms and their cultural contexts is crucial for effective language comprehension and usage.

5.19 The Meaning of The Words

The meaning of words refers to the understanding or interpretation of the concepts, ideas, or entities that words represent. It involves the association of specific meanings to words within a language system, enabling effective communication and understanding between individuals. Key points about the meaning of words:

- a. **Lexical Meaning:** Lexical meaning refers to the basic, dictionary definition or sense of a word. It captures the core

concept or idea that a word represents. Lexical meanings are typically fixed and agreed upon by language users.

- b. Denotation: Denotation is the literal or direct meaning of a word, representing its objective or primary reference. It is the basic, non-emotive definition of a word, often found in dictionaries.
- c. Connotation: Connotation refers to the additional associations, emotions, or implied meanings that a word may carry beyond its denotation. Connotations can vary based on personal, cultural, or contextual factors and contribute to the overall meaning and interpretation of a word.
- d. Polysemy: Polysemy occurs when a single word has multiple related meanings. These meanings may be connected through metaphorical extensions or through different senses of the word.
- e. Synonymy: Synonymy refers to the relationship between words that have similar or identical meanings. Synonyms are different words that can be used interchangeably in certain contexts without changing the overall meaning.
- f. Antonymy: Antonymy refers to the relationship between words that have opposite meanings. Antonyms are words that have contrasting meanings and are often used to express contrasts or opposition.
- g. Contextual Meaning: The meaning of a word can also be influenced by the context in which it is used. The surrounding words, the speaker's tone, the subject matter, and the overall discourse contribute to the understanding and interpretation of individual words.
- h. Word Sense Disambiguation: In cases where a word has multiple meanings, word sense disambiguation is the process of determining the intended meaning of the word based on the context in which it appears.

5.20 Semantics Properties

Semantic properties are characteristics or attributes that define the meaning of a word or a linguistic unit. These properties help us understand the relationships between words, their

referents, and the concepts they represent. Here are some common semantic properties:

- a. **Referential/Extensional Property:** This property identifies the specific objects, entities, or individuals that a word refers to. For example, the word "cat" refers to a domesticated feline mammal.
- b. **Conceptual/Intensional Property:** This property relates to the set of features or attributes that define the concept or idea represented by a word. For instance, the word "dog" can be associated with attributes such as being a domesticated mammal, having four legs, and being loyal.
- c. **Categorical Property:** This property classifies words into specific categories or classes based on shared characteristics. For example, words like "cat," "dog," and "tiger" belong to the category of animals.
- d. **Semantic Role Property:** This property describes the role or function that a word or phrase plays in a sentence or a sentence constituent. For instance, in the sentence "John ate an apple," the word "John" is the agent, "ate" is the action, and "apple" is the patient.
- e. **Gradable Property:** This property reflects the relative degrees or levels of a quality associated with a word. For example, the word "hot" can have different degrees of temperature, such as "very hot" or "slightly hot."
- f. **Symmetric/Asymmetric Property:** This property characterizes the relationship between words or concepts in terms of their mutual exchangeability or dependency. For instance, the words "brother" and "sister" have an asymmetric relationship, as they are distinct in terms of gender.
- g. **Polysemy Property:** This property refers to words that have multiple related meanings. Polysemous words can have different senses or interpretations based on the context. For example, the word "bank" can refer to a financial institution or the edge of a river.

- h. **Hyponymy/Hypernymy Property:** This property represents the hierarchical relationship between words, where a hypernym represents a broader category and a hyponym represents a specific instance or subtype. For instance, "fruit" is a hypernym, and "apple" and "banana" are hyponyms within the category of fruit.

5.21 Three Type of Semantics Analysis

Certainly! Here are three types of semantic analysis commonly used in linguistics and natural language processing:

1. **Distributional Semantics:** Distributional semantics focuses on analyzing the meaning of words based on their patterns of distribution in large collections of text. This approach assumes that words with similar distributions (i.e., appearing in similar contexts) tend to have similar meanings. Distributional semantic models use statistical techniques to represent words as vectors in a high-dimensional semantic space, where words with similar meanings are located closer to each other. These models are useful for tasks such as word similarity estimation, word sense disambiguation, and document clustering.
2. **Frame Semantics:** Frame semantics is a linguistic approach that analyzes the meaning of words and sentences based on the concept of frames. A frame is a mental structure or conceptual template that represents a situation, event, or scenario. Frames consist of slots (semantic roles) that can be filled by specific words or phrases. For example, the frame of "eating" might have slots for the agent (e.g., "person"), the food item (e.g., "apple"), and the manner of eating (e.g., "quickly"). Frame semantic analysis helps understand how words contribute to the overall meaning of a sentence by evoking specific frames and filling their slots.
3. **Conceptual Semantics:** Conceptual semantics focuses on the analysis of meaning at a more abstract and conceptual level.

It aims to capture the underlying concepts and cognitive structures that shape our understanding of the world. Conceptual semantic analysis often involves the identification and description of semantic categories, relations, and hierarchies, such as hyponymy (subordinate and superordinate relationships), meronymy (part-whole relationships), and metaphorical mappings. This approach explores how concepts and cognitive structures are reflected in language and how they influence our interpretation of meaning.

5.22 Semantics Features

Semantic features refer to the basic elements or attributes that contribute to the meaning of a word or concept. These features help distinguish one word or concept from another and form the building blocks of semantic representations. Here are some examples of common semantic features:

- a. **Category:** The category feature represents the broad class or category to which a word belongs. For example, the category feature of the word "cat" would be "animal."
- b. **Shape:** The shape feature describes the physical form or appearance of an object. For instance, the shape feature of the word "circle" would be "round."
- c. **Color:** The color feature indicates the hue or shade associated with an object. For example, the color feature of the word "apple" would be "red" or "green."
- d. **Size:** The size feature represents the relative dimensions or magnitude of an object. For instance, the size feature of the word "elephant" would be "large" or "huge."
- e. **Location:** The location feature refers to the spatial position or place associated with an object. For example, the location feature of the word "ocean" would be "water" or "seaside."

- f. **Function:** The function feature describes the purpose or role that an object serves. For instance, the function feature of the word "hammer" would be "to strike or drive nails."
- g. **Property:** The property feature represents inherent characteristics or qualities associated with an object. For example, the property feature of the word "sweet" would be "taste."
- h. **Action:** The action feature indicates a specific action or behavior associated with a word. For instance, the action feature of the word "run" would be "to move quickly on foot."

5.23. Semantics Rules

Semantic rules, also known as semantic constraints or principles, are guidelines or patterns that govern the meaning and interpretation of language. These rules help establish the relationship between the form (syntax) and the meaning (semantics) of linguistic expressions. They play a crucial role in understanding how words and sentences convey information and how the intended meaning is derived from the structure of a language. Here are a few examples of semantic rules:

1. **Selectional Restrictions:** Selectional restrictions are rules that determine the types of words or syntactic categories that can occur in specific linguistic contexts. For example, the verb "eat" typically requires a noun phrase representing food as its direct object. The selectional restriction rule for "eat" would prohibit it from being used with objects that are not compatible with its meaning, such as "eat the table."
2. **Theta Roles:** Theta roles, also known as semantic roles or thematic roles, are a set of conceptual roles associated with arguments of a verb. These roles specify the semantic relationship between the verb and its arguments. For instance, in the sentence "John ate an apple," the verb "ate" assigns the theta role of "agent" to "John" and the theta role of "patient" to "an apple."

3. **Scope and Quantifiers:** Semantic rules also govern the interpretation of quantifiers such as "all," "some," "every," and "no." These rules determine how quantifiers interact with other elements in a sentence and specify the scope of their quantification. For example, in the sentence "Every student passed the exam," the quantifier "every" has a universal quantification scope over the noun phrase "student" and implies that all students passed the exam.
4. **Compositionality:** The principle of compositionality states that the meaning of a complex linguistic expression is determined by the meanings of its constituent parts and the way they are combined. Semantic rules ensure that the meaning of a sentence can be derived from the meanings of its words and the rules of combination. For example, in the sentence "The cat chased the mouse," the semantic rule specifies that the verb "chased" relates the agent (cat) and the patient (mouse) in a specific action.
5. **Presupposition and Entailment:** Semantic rules also deal with presupposition and entailment, which are inferences that arise from the meaning of a sentence. Presupposition refers to the assumed background knowledge or information that must be true for a sentence to be meaningful. Entailment, on the other hand, refers to the relationship between two sentences where the truth of one sentence guarantees the truth of the other. Semantic rules help identify and analyze these presuppositions and entailments.

5.24. Lexical Relations

Lexical relations refer to the various types of relationships that exist between words or lexemes in a language. These relations play a crucial role in understanding the meaning and organization of vocabulary. Here are some common lexical relations:

- a. **Synonymy:** Synonymy refers to the relationship between words that have similar or identical meanings. Synonyms are

different words that can be used interchangeably in certain contexts. For example, "big" and "large" are synonyms, as they convey a similar meaning of size.

- b. **Antonymy:** Antonymy is the relationship between words that have opposite or contrasting meanings. Antonyms are words that express opposite concepts. Examples include "hot" and "cold," "happy" and "sad," or "buy" and "sell."
- c. **Hyponymy/Hypernymy:** Hyponymy refers to the relationship between words where one word (hyponym) is a specific instance or subtype of another word (hypernym). For instance, "apple" is a hyponym of the hypernym "fruit." Hyponyms are more specific terms within a broader category.
- d. **Meronymy/Holonymy:** Meronymy refers to the relationship between words where one word (meronym) represents a part or component of another word (holonym). For example, "wheel" is a meronym of the holonym "car." Meronyms and holonyms establish a part-whole relationship.
- e. **Homonymy:** Homonymy refers to the relationship between words that are spelled or pronounced the same but have different meanings. Homonyms can be either homophones (sound the same) or homographs (spelled the same). Examples include "bank" (financial institution) and "bank" (river's edge).
- f. **Polysemy:** Polysemy refers to the phenomenon where a single word has multiple related meanings. These meanings are often connected through a core concept or semantic thread. For example, the word "head" can refer to the body part, the top or front part of something, or to lead or be in charge of something.
- g. **Meronymy:** Meronymy refers to the relationship between words where one word represents a part or component of another word. For example, "wheel" is a meronym of "car," as it is a part of the whole.

- h. Co-hyponymy: Co-hyponymy refers to the relationship between words that share the same hypernym but are not synonymous with each other. For instance, "cat" and "dog" are co-hyponyms because they share the hypernym "animal," but they represent different species.

5.25. Synonymy & Antonymy

Synonymy and antonymy are two important types of lexical relations that exist between words. Let's explore each of them in more detail:

- a. Synonymy:

Synonymy refers to the relationship between words that have similar or identical meanings. Synonyms are different words that can be used interchangeably in certain contexts without changing the overall meaning of a sentence. Here are a few examples of synonyms:

- | | |
|---------------------|---------------------|
| 1. Big and large | 3. Buy and purchase |
| 2. Happy and joyful | 4. Start and begin |

Synonyms may differ in terms of their connotations, register, or usage, but they share a common core meaning. Synonymy plays a crucial role in adding variety and richness to language, allowing speakers and writers to choose different words with similar meanings based on style, emphasis, or context.

- b. Antonymy:

Antonymy refers to the relationship between words that have opposite or contrasting meanings. Antonyms are words that express opposite concepts. Here are a few examples of antonyms:

- | | |
|------------------|-----------------|
| 1. Hot and cold | 3. Buy and sell |
| 2. Happy and sad | 4. Up and down |

Antonyms can be classified into different types, including complementary antonyms, gradable antonyms, and relational antonyms. Complementary antonyms are

pairs of words that express an either/or relationship, where the presence of one implies the absence of the other (e.g., alive/dead). Gradable antonyms represent a scale or continuum of opposites (e.g., hot/cold, big/small). Relational antonyms are pairs of words that are opposite in terms of their relationship to another concept (e.g., parent/child).

Understanding synonymy and antonymy is essential for vocabulary building, disambiguation, and effective communication. It allows speakers and writers to choose words that precisely convey their intended meaning while considering shades of similarity or contrast in meaning.

5.26 Homophone and Homonyms

Homophones and homonyms are two concepts related to words that sound alike but have different meanings. Let's explore each of them:

a. Homophones:

Homophones are words that have the same pronunciation but different meanings and often different spellings. They may belong to the same part of speech or have different grammatical functions. Here are some examples of homophones:

1. "To," "two," and "too"
2. "There," "their," and "they're"

Homophones can sometimes lead to confusion in written and spoken language since they sound the same but have distinct meanings. The context in which they are used helps in understanding the intended word and meaning.

b. Homonyms:

Homonyms are words that have the same pronunciation and sometimes the same spelling but different meanings. They can belong to the same part of speech or different parts of speech. Homonyms can be further classified into two categories:

1. Homographs: Homographs are words that have the same spelling but different meanings. They may or may not have the same pronunciation. Examples of homographs include:
 - a. "Bow" (a knot) and "bow" (a weapon)
 - b. "Read" (past tense) and "read" (present tense)
2. Homophones: Homophonic homonyms are words that have the same pronunciation but different meanings and often different spellings. Examples of homophonic homonyms include:
 - a. "Pair" and "pear"
 - b. "Flower" and "flour"

Homonyms can create ambiguity in communication, especially in written form, as their intended meanings may require context or clarification.

5.27 Polysemy

Polysemy refers to the phenomenon where a single word has multiple related meanings or senses. In polysemy, a word can have distinct but connected senses that are derived from a common underlying concept. This differs from homonymy, where words with different meanings are unrelated and may have different origins. Here are a few examples of polysemous words:

- a. "Bank":
 - A financial institution where people deposit and withdraw money.
 - The land alongside a river.
 - The act of tilting or leaning to one side.
- b. "Book":
 - To reserve a place or appointment.
 - To record or schedule something.

5.28 Metonymy dan Heteronymy

1. Metonymy:

Metonymy is a figure of speech in which a word or phrase is used to represent or refer to something closely associated with it, but not directly named. It involves the substitution of one term for another based on their relationship or association. The use of metonymy relies on the context and the shared knowledge between the speaker and the listener. Here are some examples of metonymy:

- a. "The pen is mightier than the sword." Here, "pen" is used to represent writing or literature, while "sword" represents warfare or violence.
- b. "The White House issued a statement." In this case, "White House" is used to refer to the U.S. government or the President and their administration.

Metonymy is a powerful linguistic device used to add depth, symbolism, and efficiency to language. It relies on the associations and understanding shared by the speakers and listeners.

2. Heteronymy:

Heteronymy refers to the situation where words have the same spelling but different meanings and pronunciations. Unlike homonyms, which have different meanings but may have the same pronunciation, heteronyms have distinct meanings and different pronunciations. Here are a few examples of heteronyms:

- a. "Lead" (pronounced /li:d/) refers to a metallic element, while "lead" (pronounced /lɛd/) refers to being in charge or guiding.
- b. "Tear" (pronounced /tɪər/) can mean to rip something apart, while "tear" (pronounced /tɪər/) refers to the liquid produced by the eyes when crying.

Heteronyms can create confusion in written form as their pronunciation changes based on the intended meaning. Context and the sentence structure help in determining the correct pronunciation and understanding the intended sense.

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CHAPTER 6

THE DIVERSITY OF LANGUAGE

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6.1 Introduction

Language serves as a prominent and highly perceptive indicator of diversity. Subtle variations in pronunciation and speech patterns serve as indicators of an individual's regional, social, ethnic, and/or gender affiliations. The perception of "foreignness" is immediately evoked upon hearing a language that is different from one's own, while encountering public signage in an unfamiliar language reliably signifies that one is in an unfamiliar environment. Language serves as a prominent and highly perceptive indicator of societal transformation. The occurrence of encountering languages that have not been previously heard or seen in a particular area can be considered a definitive and prompt indication of a transformation in that area. For instance, an individual exclaims, "I have never heard the Russian language being spoken here before!" Furthermore, language serves as a crucial instrument for the organization and navigation of diversity. It is through language that we continuously adapt our linguistic abilities to effectively communicate with others, frequently resulting in the emergence of novel linguistic patterns and practices. Failure to adhere to this practice could result in a situation that individuals generally make a conscious effort to avoid, namely, a misunderstanding. This failure may also be attributed to the presence of restrictive institutional structures governing language usage, such as language legislation that mandates the use of a specific language and/or script. In the aforementioned scenario, language assumes

a crucial role as an indicator of conflicts, competition, and power dynamics within a diverse context.

Within the realm of language in society, a field encompassing sociolinguistics, linguistic anthropology, and related disciplines, scholars contend that a focused examination of the intricacies of language usage provides a unique and advantageous means to understand wider social, cultural, and political phenomena that may not be readily apparent. Elaborating on the genealogy of this belief may exceed the boundaries of the current essay (Bourdieu, 1990; Agha, 2007). A potentially more pragmatic approach would be to focus on substantiating the belief by exploring various aspects of the modern field of language and society, which can significantly contribute to a more comprehensive framework of diversity studies (Blommaert & Rampton, 2011).

Historically, the field of linguistics primarily focused on the examination of specific languages, such as English, Bulgarian, or Swahili. The responsibility of determining the specific characteristics of these languages (indicated by the capitalization of the term) was assigned to the field of linguistics. Additionally, the field of sociolinguistics was tasked with describing the connections and points of interaction between these languages (Agha, 2007b; Makoni & Pennycook, 2007). The concept of 'multilingualism' exemplifies this dominant influence: it refers to the simultaneous presence of multiple languages within a given social context. For several decades, the concept of societal diversity has been linguistically represented by the term 'multilingualism,' with the quantifiable number of languages spoken in a given area serving as an indicator of its degree of sociocultural diversity.

The phenomenon of multiple languages coexisting within a shared space yields intriguing consequences. Codeswitching is a linguistic phenomenon wherein individuals incorporate elements from multiple languages into a single utterance or speech event. It serves as a clear indication of the presence of societal multilingualism and the linguistic proficiency of speakers in multiple languages. The phenomenon of codeswitching would be

examined as an extraordinary and distinctive occurrence that challenges the prevailing assumption of innate monolingualism, both at the individual and societal levels. Individuals who possess proficiency in multiple languages are often regarded as peculiar and deserving of scholarly examination in the realms of linguistics and sociolinguistics. This perception stems from the notion that these individuals must grapple with internal conflicts as their various languages compete for dominance within their cognitive processes. This concept is exemplified by the renowned publication in this field titled "Duelling Languages," authored by Myers-Scotton in 1993.

However, a meticulous examination of codeswitching through ethnographic research yielded contrasting findings. Initially, the utilization of a 'mixed' code was not based on the proficiency of individual multilingualism. Across the globe, individuals adeptly incorporate English into their local languages yet lack the ability to engage in sustained conversations solely in English. The phenomenon of mixed language is frequently observed as the exclusive linguistic system utilized by individuals. Furthermore, it seems that the effects of meaning do not solely rely on the combination of languages but also on various other aspects of speech, such as genre, style, and topic. The discussion of business management frequently elicits the widespread utilization of English terminology in various regions across the globe, whereas conversations pertaining to bicycles or birds in these same locations seldom evoke such a diverse linguistic amalgamation. In comprehending the motivations behind codeswitching, the prominence of language distinction is often not the primary focal point of the matter. Furthermore, it is worth noting that speech that combines elements from multiple languages, commonly referred to as 'mixed' speech, exhibits sociolinguistic variation in a manner similar to that observed in monolingual speech. Codeswitching encompasses various linguistic phenomena such as regional and social accents, dialects, registers, and similar linguistic variations (Auer, 1998).

It is evident that knowledge regarding infra-Language variation has been present for a considerable period of time. In

fact, the field of dialectology can be recognized as a foundational influence on the development of modern sociolinguistics. Historical Linguistics has long established the notion that every modern language is historically characterized by a combination of various linguistic influences. The disciplines of Literary and Folklore studies, as well as Rhetoric, have long recognized and emphasized the significance of genres, styles, and registers. Dell Hymes has presented a comprehensive framework for the ethnographic examination of speech, specifically focusing on infra-language variation (Hymes, 1972, 1996). However, the encounter with exceptional and complex data, starting from the mid-1990s, initiated the emergence of novel and comprehensive perspectives (Rampton, 1995). The data collected from globalized or super-diverse contexts, which is often characterized as 'messy,' challenges the clarity provided by the concept of 'Languages', as well as various fundamental assumptions in the field of sociolinguistics. How should one handle the utilization of abbreviated forms, such as (which stands for "wait for me, see you at 4"), that are commonly employed in mobile texting and online chatting? The utilization of conventional investigative methods invariably resulted in limited analysis, prompting scholars to develop more comprehensive theoretical and methodological frameworks (Rampton, 2006; Pennycook, 2007; Blommaert, 2010, 2013b).

6.2 Language Diversity As A Form Of Bilingualism

As per Martinet's (1997) definition, a language is a form of communication that possesses double articulation and verbal attributes. Language is primarily utilized for communication purposes. Within a linguistic community, there is a prevailing perception that all individuals speak in a uniform manner due to the shared use of a common language. There are two contributing factors that lead to the formation of this perception. Initially, a shared comprehension has been established amongst the constituents of a linguistic group. The concept of mutual

understanding is subjective as its level is influenced by both linguistic and non-linguistic factors. Furthermore, the presence of a formally standardized written language that has been meticulously regulated in all aspects and whose acceptance is perceived as prestigious by its users. They depend on the consistency and uniformity of the official language and presume that the language as a whole is stable and uniform.

Nevertheless, the linguistic actuality deviates significantly from the contrived homogeneity of the authorized written language. According to Martinet's assertion (1997), each community exhibits linguistic homogeneity. Individuals within a shared linguistic community exhibit variations in their speech patterns and vocabulary usage, resulting in potential differences in comprehension among community members. Additionally, the speaker asserts that the presence of notable discrepancies in grammar and phonology between interlocutors does not hinder mutual comprehension. In conclusion, it has been determined that individuals within a linguistic community have the ability to utilize varying forms of a given language based on situational factors.

Following Archakis (2002), diversity is a defining feature of language rather than uniformity. The presence of linguistic diversity is determined by geographical and social factors. The absence of regular communication among populations residing in distinct regions results in linguistic differentiation among said populations. Consequently, linguistic variations are formed, commonly referred to as dialects or idioms (refer to Baslis 1988 for more information). Idioms are not fixed in nature but rather subject to change as they are influenced by societal factors. The latter undergo differentiation and modification. Linguists assert that no idiom can be deemed superior or inferior to another, just as languages are designed to meet the communication requirements of their users. There exist two distinct categories of idioms, namely geographical idioms and social linguistic idioms. The emergence of social and linguistic idioms is attributed to social barriers such as social class, gender, age, ethnicity,

and religion, as well as social distance, as posited by Archakis (2002).

According to some scientists, the utilization of diverse linguistic idioms among various social groups of children is regarded as the primary factor contributing to academic underachievement among these children. It is a common occurrence for some children to exhibit limited verbal communication during a course, utilizing fragmented sentences or expressing themselves with a restricted vocabulary, sometimes even responding with a single word. This occurs due to their inability to acquire familiarity with the official model language in comparison to their peers. Educators attribute this phenomenon to the notion that children may not possess a comprehensive understanding of their language system. Some researchers have suggested that these children typically come from lower socioeconomic backgrounds. The recommendations, commonly referred to as the linguistic deficit issue or Deficit Theory, were brought to attention in the research conducted by Bernstein (1971). He maintains that the systemic academic underachievement of students from lower socioeconomic backgrounds is attributable to socially determined linguistic disparities. Linguistic inequality is both a cause and an effect of social inequality. As per Katsikas and Kavadias (2003), children belonging to lower socio-economic backgrounds or those who use regional dialects face challenges in adapting to the linguistic environment of their school upon enrolment. Consequently, students tend to form a negative evaluation of the teacher and may internalize their own shortcomings in expressing their knowledge. This can lead to their isolation from intellectual resources.

The process of adapting to the official linguistic norm in schools is particularly challenging for children of immigrant families. This is due to the fact that their primary mode of communication, which is their native language, has been the fundamental tool for their socialization, recognition, and overall acceptance within their community. According to Nikolaou (2000), individuals are compelled to utilize a language that is

unfamiliar to them. However, even when they attempt to do so, they encounter ridicule and mockery from the native children of the host country.

The primary challenges encountered by international students typically pertain to the academic domain and the socio-psychological aspects of their adjustment. The social relations of foreign students are influenced by their socio-cultural orientations and level of social integration. International students form diverse groups within the school setting. In only a limited number of instances do groups of acquaintances exclusively comprise international students. In numerous educational institutions, it is observed that the formation of exclusive social groups, commonly referred to as 'cliques,' is more prevalent among female students than their male counterparts. The disposition of indigenous students towards individuals from foreign countries is not ideal. However, it is gradually approaching the threshold of acceptability. It is noteworthy to mention that the selection of language for communication in various instances serves as a significant indicator of an individual's integration into the receiving society or socio-cultural group.

As per the aforementioned, international students possess bilingual proficiency, as they are capable of utilizing two distinct languages: the language of the host nation and the language of their country of origin. The degree of proficiency in both languages remains indeterminate. Each of these languages is associated with specific functions and roles. The functions and roles that pertain to the private sphere are aligned with the language of the nation of provenance. Conversely, the language utilized in the host nation is intricately connected to the duties and responsibilities primarily associated with the communal domain. The allocation of roles and functions in both languages is a typical feature of scenarios that involve individuals but not those that involve social bilingualism.

6.3 Diversity of Languages and The Development of Languages

Human language can be defined as a communication system that is learnable by humans. It consists of conventionalized form meaning pairs that have the ability to express all the communicative requirements of human society. This perspective aligns with the viewpoint and historical context presented by Hockett in 1960. Based on this definition, there are two distinct categories of mother tongues: spoken languages, characterized by acoustic form and a distinction between vowels and consonants, and signed languages, characterized by the use of specific body movements to convey form. Various types of languages without native speakers have been documented, such as whistled languages, drummed languages, and written languages. Whistled languages utilize an acoustic form, where there is no distinction between vowels and consonants, and the signal is created through a free airstream produced by the lips. Drummed languages also employ an acoustic form, lacking a vowel/consonant distinction, and the signal is generated using a drum. Written languages, on the other hand, rely on a symbolic form of communication. It has been discovered that all documented whistled languages (Thierry, 2002; Gartner & Streiter, 2006), drummed languages (Stern, 1957), and written languages historically utilized by human societies are, in fact, representations of spoken languages. Each representation corresponds to a spoken language at various levels, such as phonemes, syllables, morphemes, words, or similar units, potentially with some imperfections but exhibiting systematic patterns. Several sign languages, for example, in Aboriginal Australia, are also classified as such, with Warlpiri Sign Language being particularly notable, as argued by Kendon (1988). In contrast to other established sign languages, these particular sign languages can be examined as systems that correspond to spoken languages rather than having originated from a substantial deaf community. Instead, they emerged from cultural practices of silence within a predominantly hearing community.

There are approximately 6,500 attested spoken languages that are or have been mutually unintelligible with one another, as shown in Figure 1. However, it is important to provide a more detailed explanation of what exactly this number represents. For a language to be considered in this count, it must be referenced in a publication, indicating its distinctiveness from other languages through mutual unintelligibility. The validity of this claim can be supported through the use of direct evaluation of intelligibility or by analysing linguistic data, specifically form-meaning pairs. In lesser-known regions, individuals may rely on testimonies to ascertain whether a previously existing ethnic group required the assistance of an interpreter when interacting with their neighbouring communities.

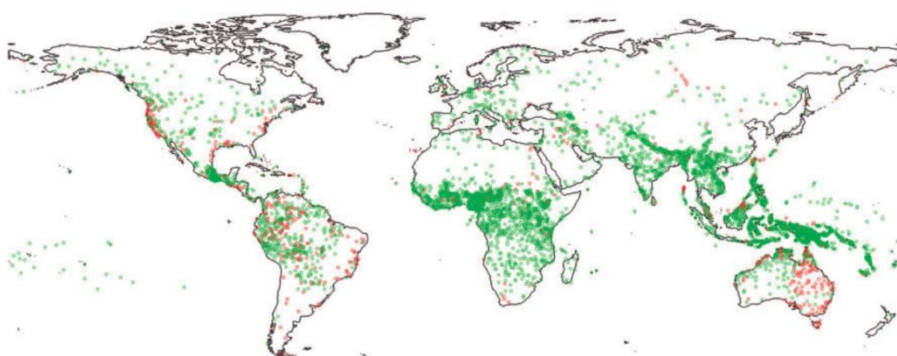


Figure 6.1 The Language Inventory Is Depicted By a Single Dot Positioned At The Geographical Center Of Each Language. A language is assigned a red dot to indicate its status as extinct, while a green dot is used to represent languages that are still in existence. The content is presented in a digital format with color. (Hammarström et al. 2015)

Based on the current inventory of languages, it is apparent that language populations can range from billions of speakers (such as English and Chinese) to a single speaker or even extinction (Lewis et al., 2015). According to Table 1, the median

number of speakers on all continents is less than 1,000. Many languages with a limited number of speakers, typically less than 100, are considered to be in a state of decline. The small number of speakers does not indicate a stable situation but rather a continuous transition towards another language that is more widely spoken and often perceived as more prestigious and economically advantageous. This transition begins with the adoption of bilingualism in one generation, followed by a decline in language transmission to subsequent generations, and, ultimately, a complete absence of transmission to the latest generation. Consequently, the language remains in existence solely as long as the eldest members of the initial generation.

Numerous languages are currently undergoing this process and are consequently classified as endangered languages. Languages serve as important records of the world's linguistic diversity, and it is concerning to witness their gradual disappearance, particularly when they vanish without proper documentation of their grammar, vocabulary, and texts (Evans, 2009).

Needless to say, this is not a physical constant but some kind of average obtained from known cases. Conditions under which faster or slower speciation is to be expected are known (see, e.g., Bakker 2000).

According to the definition, all human languages have the capability to convey the same range of meanings, although they exhibit infinite variations in their respective structures and characteristics. When examining a limited number of languages, it may appear that grammar is characterized by a limited range of options. However, this perspective becomes inadequate when one takes into account a growing number of languages (Evans & Levinson, 2009). Both linguists and nonlinguists have commonly theorized about the origins and development of human language without fully acknowledging the extensive diversity observed in existing languages and the potential diversity of languages that have become extinct. This is primarily attributed to the asymmetry or limited availability of information pertaining to

minority languages. Due to enhanced documentation and improved organizational practices over the past decade, we have significantly advanced our ability to map and ultimately comprehend diversity. The Boasian trilogy, consisting of grammar, text collection, and a dictionary, is widely accepted for documenting a language.

Linguists currently face a significant challenge in that nearly half of the world's languages lack a comprehensive grammatical description, let alone more extensive documentation. In terms of phonetics, certain languages employ pitch as a significant element for distinguishing between words, whereas others do not utilize it at all. Certain languages exhibit a limited inventory of eleven segmental sounds, while others possess a more extensive range of over 100 segmental sounds due to the intricacies of their combinatorial system. It has been widely believed for an extended period of time that all languages employ distinct sounds produced by the passage of air through the nasal cavity, such as nasal stops or nasal vowels. In the 1990s, it was discovered that languages in the Lakes Plain area of Indonesian Papua lack nasal sounds both phonemically and phonetically, as documented by Clouse in 1997. A limited number of languages, primarily spoken in Southern Africa, employ unique phonetic elements known as click consonants, which involve the inhalation of air into the oral cavity. However, there is limited empirical evidence to suggest that these sounds possess inherent ancestral information (Güldemann & Stoneking, 2008).

Despite the shared anatomical structure among human beings, linguistic diversity results in the partitioning of the lexical domain in distinct ways. Certain languages exhibit a simplex lexeme that encompasses both the hand and the arm, necessitating additional specification if a distinction between the two is required. Conversely, other languages possess distinct lexemes for the hand and the arm (Brown, 2005). In a similar vein, it is worth noting that although humans possess the same sensory perception capabilities, different languages exhibit varying degrees of complexity in their lexicon of olfactory terms. Some languages exhibit a rich array of simple smell terms, while others

have a more limited conventionalization of such vocabulary (Majid & Burenhult, 2014). Within the temporal dimension, it is observed that certain languages possess a mandatory requirement for the speaker to differentiate between a total of five past tenses, as noted by Payne (1985). However, in certain languages, speakers have the ability to omit to specify the time, as it can be inferred from the context or optionally indicated by words such as 'yesterday' (Dol, 2007).

Certain languages categorize all entities into distinct classes or genders, resulting in distinct agreement patterns. Certain languages require speakers to explicitly indicate gender throughout the entirety of a sentence, whereas other languages exhibit minimal redundancy in gender marking. Numerous class and gender systems exhibit a systematic differentiation based on natural gender (masculine/feminine), albeit with variations in their approaches. In certain cases, referents lacking inherent gender, such as a stone, may possess a distinct classification. Alternatively, all referents may be uniformly assigned as either feminine or masculine, or each individual item may be subjectively assigned with little or no basis. In certain linguistic contexts, there exists a tendency for mixed groups to adopt the masculine agreement in some languages, while in others, the feminine agreement is favoured, among other possibilities. All languages are required to possess established conventions for the purpose of expressing actions. In certain instances, languages employ alternative methods to indicate the agent, recipient, and action rather than relying solely on conventional word order.

Language exhibits variation along numerous parameters pertinent to any theory on the evolution of language. According to conventional wisdom, language evolution is believed to have taken place so long ago that little can be learned about the evolution from the current language knowledge of the language. This point of view need not be final, though. Large databases have especially been gathered recently, allowing us to research the effects of linguistic diversity in quantitative or qualitative terms.

6.4 Language, Diversity, and Learning; Implication for 21st Century Education

Language possesses immense power. The manner in which a nation addresses linguistic disparities provides significant insights into the societal standing of individuals who communicate in specific languages. The foundational principle of American society, *E Pluribus Unum* (meaning "out of many, one"), is predicated on the notion that the nation ought to uphold both pluralism and unity in tandem. However, the implementation of this ideal has proven to be challenging. Throughout the history of the United States, there have been various perspectives on the issue of diversity, ranging from the belief that individuals from diverse backgrounds should assimilate into a unified culture to contentious debates surrounding the establishment of English as the official language. These differing viewpoints reflect the contrasting interpretations of diversity as either a challenge or an opportunity within the nation's narrative.

The perception of diversity as either advantageous or disadvantageous is contingent upon conflicting principles that have concurrently existed throughout our historical trajectory. The ideology of exclusion and dominance perceives diversity in a negative light, as it assesses various groups in terms of their inclusion or exclusion and assigns varying degrees of power to them. This particular ideology resulted in the implementation of policies such as the prohibition of German language instruction in public schools during the interwar period, the discouragement of enslaved Africans from maintaining their native languages, and the compulsory enrolment of Native Americans in boarding schools.

On the other hand, the ideology of inclusion and equality, which perceives diversity in a favorable manner, has resulted in remarkable advancements in bilingual and multicultural education, the implementation of foreign language teaching at the elementary level, and the adoption of other progressive language policies.

6.4.1 Language of Diversity

The discourse surrounding diversity is a dynamic field that necessitates consciousness, comprehension, and proficiency, akin to other domains of diversity competencies. Language serves as a medium for facilitating communication among individuals and collectives. Language functions as a medium through which individuals can articulate and convey their thoughts and emotions. In the context of diversity, language can serve as a means of fostering connections or as a mechanism for establishing and perpetuating divisions among individuals with varying backgrounds. The establishment of a shared language for discourse and communication across diverse perspectives is imperative in dismantling societal divisions and fostering the pursuit of comprehension and collaboration. When establishing a shared vocabulary pertaining to diversity, it is crucial to utilize language that is affirming rather than centered on assigning blame, guilt, or pity.

Throughout history, linguists have faced the challenge of understanding the relationship between language and diversity. One significant issue is that language has frequently been employed as a means of oppression, serving to establish and maintain systems of dominance and hierarchies among different groups. Throughout the course of societal history, language has frequently played a role in promoting the social standing of specific groups, while simultaneously marginalizing and subordinating other groups. Historical instances of employing language for such objectives can be observed in the categorization of Native Americans as "savages" and "primitive," juxtaposed with European settlers being labeled as "civilized." Additionally, the term "African slaves" was utilized to describe a dehumanizing system of coerced servitude that subjugated individuals from Africa who were previously free. The deliberate use of the term "girl" served to diminish the societal standing of adult women. Furthermore, the term "America" was employed specifically to denote the United

States, disregarding the entirety of the Western Hemisphere encompassing the Americas. When employed in this manner, language has consistently played a role in the reduction and demonization of specific social groups, as well as in the rationalization of subsequent acts of marginalization, discrimination, and exploitation.

Although the aforementioned examples may not fully capture the extent of our intentions when using language to interact with or refer to groups, it is important to recognize that our impact can be equally harmful when we are unaware of the influence of words and labels. When confronted with the challenge of identifying appropriate terminology for referring to specific social groups such as African Americans, gay and lesbian individuals, and differently abled individuals, it is common for individuals to express their frustration by suggesting that members of these groups are indecisive or in need of definitively determining a preferred designation. Regrettably, it is frequently observed that the individuals who assert the need for these groups to "make a decision" are typically not affiliated with these groups and typically hold a position of authoritative power. Although the individuals' intention to achieve clarity in these instances is commendable, their behaviors demonstrate a perceived sense of superiority. The manifestation of this fallacious perception of superiority becomes further accentuated when these individuals assume the responsibility of delineating the collective identity without soliciting any input from the members comprising said group. Consequently, individuals belonging to these collectives are deprived of their autonomy to establish and designate their own identities according to their own preferences. Recognizing the influence of our language does not pertain solely to adhering to political correctness. The topic pertains to the practice of treating individuals with respect and dignity, as well as the objective of raising consciousness or understanding.

6.4.2 Language Diversity in Education; Several Researches Employed

The topic of language diversity in education encompasses various aspects, including the collective experiences of learners, the role of teachers and pedagogy, the interaction between schools and communities, and the connection between local and national policy formulation and execution. The presence of language diversity in education represents merely the observable aspect of a larger societal phenomenon, which can be likened to an iceberg. Language diversity can be either suppressed, reformed, or celebrated within the education system through policy and systemic structures. This can manifest as the promotion of educational monolingualism, the implementation of bilingual and multilingual education programs, or the denial of linguistic diversity altogether.

At the individual level, the attitudes and behaviors of learners and teachers exert a significant influence. The enhancement of achievement, interaction, learning, and teaching can be facilitated by the modification of perceptions. An instance of this phenomenon is when learners experience a boost in their self-esteem, which in turn serves as a motivating factor for them to attain academic success and develop a positive association with the educational system. The various modes of teacher-pupil interaction can serve as a source of motivation for students to develop a positive attitude toward linguistic diversity.

The crux of the discourse surrounding language diversity revolves around its integration within educational systems, as opposed to its exclusion and the marginalization of individuals who possess linguistic diversity. As the discourse surrounding the benefits of incorporating linguistic diversity into educational settings continues to expand, it becomes imperative to inquire about the sustainability of excluding bilingual and multilingual education from policies and pedagogical practices. As one

engages with this particular edition, it is possible to develop an awareness, as Cummins aptly highlights, that the topic of language diversity in education had previously occupied a marginal position in one's thoughts and considerations. It is possible that this issue may have resided on the periphery of our awareness and failed to influence any of the educational discussions that piqued our interest.

The promotion of language diversity in education serves as a crucial platform for upholding learners' rights, ensuring equal access to the curriculum, fostering a sense of identity, and nurturing self-esteem. Furthermore, this presents a formidable challenge that may necessitate the development of various pedagogical approaches, policies, and interactions among learners, parents, and educational institutions. These efforts aim to enhance the educational experience of all students by embracing and incorporating linguistic diversity. Therefore, it can be regarded as an element of education that emphasizes fundamental and enduring pedagogical concepts. Numerous scholars have brought forth the issue of a notable disparity in the regard given by schools and language education to languages linked with elevated social status, as opposed to the value assigned to migrant or minority languages (Busse, 2017; Krumm, 2012; Liddicoat & Curnow, 2014). Bourdieu (1977) demonstrated that linguistic capital, which is highly esteemed, holds significant influence over power dynamics and dominance structures within society and educational establishments. Within educational institutions, it is a common occurrence for migrant students and individuals who speak minority languages to encounter a situation where the emphasis is placed on acquiring proficiency in mainstream foreign languages, specifically English as a foreign language (EFL). Conversely, the development of skills in their native languages is often regarded as insignificant, and in some cases, the use of family languages may even be forbidden. The devaluation of languages and learners occurs as a result

of language practices, as language is intricately linked to one's identity (Norton, 2000).

Previous studies conducted on multilingual education have indicated that an instructional strategy that acknowledges and incorporates linguistic (as well as cultural) diversity within the educational setting has the potential to enhance students' empowerment (Cummins, 2000). Providing students with the opportunity to utilize their linguistic abilities within the educational setting yields advantages for their academic progress and the cultivation of their multilingual proficiencies (Cenoz & Gorter, 2014; García, Ibarra Johnson, & Seltzer, 2017; García & Wei, 2014). Nevertheless, it is evident that foreign language education often neglects the presence of diversity within the classroom and does not effectively utilize the linguistic abilities of students (Bailey & Marsden, 2017; Hall & Cook, 2012; Gobel & Vieluf, 2017). As a result, this perpetuates the continuation of monolingual practices. The failure to utilize these resources has negative consequences not only for students from migrant backgrounds but also for students from the majority population who are unable to access the linguistic resources provided by their peers.

Traditionally, foreign language instruction has employed a method of isolating the target language in order to optimize learners' exposure and minimize interference. Nevertheless, the notion of language separation has faced criticism, prompting the emergence of alternative approaches such as translanguaging pedagogies. These approaches advocate for more flexible boundaries between languages (García & Lin, 2016). The adoption of a multilingual perspective challenges the prevailing ideologies of language segregation, suggesting that individuals who are learning multiple languages are, in fact, developing into emergent multilingual speakers. These individuals draw upon their entire linguistic repertoire when engaging in communication and cognitive processes (Cenoz & Gorter, 2014; Cummins, 2017). There are multiple justifications that

support the significance of this perspective within the language classroom.

Firstly, adopting a multilingual perspective is advantageous as it fosters inclusivity and enables educators to effectively navigate the complexities of linguistic and cultural diversity within the classroom. According to Cenoz and Gorter (2017), adopting a multilingual perspective can enable immigrant students to recognize and utilize their native languages in the process of language acquisition. Furthermore, the utilization of diverse linguistic resources can effectively foster favorable attitudes and augment the process of language acquisition through the cultivation of language proficiency and metalinguistic consciousness. The assumption that language awareness has a positive impact on attitudes and various facets of language learning has been posited by Candelier (2017). The development of metalinguistic awareness can be facilitated through the comparative analysis of various linguistic levels, such as grammar or vocabulary, as well as language skills, including reading and writing, across different languages (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017). Moreover, a significant proportion of students rely on English as a means of communication with individuals who possess varying levels of proficiency in the language, regardless of whether English is their native tongue.

In the majority of instances, individuals proficient in multiple languages employ English as a lingua franca. These individuals possess the ability to communicate in various languages and have acquired linguistic and strategic skills in the process of learning a second, third, or even fourth language. Therefore, it is imperative for individuals who are multilingual to possess extensive linguistic repertoires. According to Cenoz (2019), the utilization of linguistic repertoires can prove advantageous in the process of acquiring proficiency in multiple languages.

Multilingualism is a valuable asset as it facilitates direct engagement with diverse individuals and cultures, thereby enabling individuals to establish a stronger sense of belonging and navigate the global landscape more effortlessly. Monolingualism has the potential to result in a lack of perspective and can pose a risk of marginalization. Without possessing knowledge of a second, third, or fourth language, or at the very least comprehending them, one is unable to gain insight into the thoughts, experiences, and cultural practices of individuals who communicate in those languages. In light of the phenomenon of globalization, the significance of cultivating and preserving one's unique identity is increasingly emphasized. Minority languages possess significant cultural resources, serving as a repository of heritage and thus representing an essential locus of identity, occasionally even providing solace and sanctuary. In the contemporary era, the ability to communicate in multiple languages is essential for individuals to navigate freely and fully experience the richness of cultural diversity in Europe. The presence of minority languages adds an additional layer of linguistic diversity. Therefore, let us consider a segment: the larger it is, the more advantageous it becomes. Upon closer examination of the human population, it becomes evident that every individual is a constituent of a minority group, thereby deserving equal respect and entitlement to the same rights as the majority. It is imperative to augment the prominence of the advantages associated with regional and minority languages while effectively harnessing the existing resource of bilingualism and trilingualism. In order to effectively contribute to the preservation of linguistic diversity, it is imperative that we make our utmost efforts.

6.4.3 Linguistic Diversity's Implication in Classroom

The impact of linguistic diversity on classroom performance can manifest in various manners, encompassing both advantageous and disadvantageous outcomes. Here are several examples that serve to substantiate this assertion.

- *Linguistic diversity as an impediment:* The utilization of a language for instructional purposes may occasionally clash with the native or dominant language of learners. This phenomenon is frequently observed in regions characterized by low socioeconomic status, high immigration or minority populations, rural locales, or international contexts. Frequently, educational settings in urban regions characterized by low socioeconomic status exhibit a notable presence of cultural or ethnic diversity within their student populations. These students not only. Families frequently encounter significant financial stressors that can result in a diminished appreciation for the potential benefits associated with a robust education. Moreover, they often encounter challenges in obtaining adequate support within their households when attempting to comprehend fundamental concepts. Similar observations can be made regarding rural regions, wherein the significance of education may be overshadowed by the perceived value of practical work experience for the youth. The interpretation of mandatory language pertaining to education varies across different regions, particularly in areas where access to tertiary education is limited and poses significant challenges for a substantial portion of the population. Ultimately, when students are exposed to an educational environment that is unfamiliar to them due to a relocation caused by factors such as expatriation, international placements, or exchanges, the process of adapting to this new context can initially result in a somewhat distressing experience. In order to effectively

engage with an instructor who possesses a distinct cultural background, students are required to exhibit remarkable adaptability and cognitive dexterity.

- *Linguistic diversity can also confer advantages in educational environments;* The presence of a variety of linguistic origins, encompassing different languages or distinct dialects of a particular language, has the potential to facilitate the cultivation of a more profound understanding among students regarding their responsibilities as global citizens. Additionally, exposure to linguistic diversity can foster an enhanced capacity for empathy and contribute to the development of a more extensive vocabulary, enabling individuals to effectively articulate their perceptions of the world and their encounters. In certain instances, a classroom that exhibits a uniform linguistic composition may accommodate students who come from diverse backgrounds and experiences. In a classroom where English is the medium of instruction, it is reasonable to anticipate the presence of students hailing from diverse nations, each of which considers English as their primary language. These countries may include but are not limited to the United States, England, Australia, Canada, Ireland, and South Africa. Each student, despite possessing English as their first language, can undoubtedly benefit from mutual learning in terms of thought articulation, idea assessment, understanding cultural nuances of different regions, and fostering creative thinking. Moreover, students who encounter the task of acquiring a new language within a linguistically varied context are likely to experience advantages stemming from the introduction of diverse cognitive frameworks and cultural conventions within their educational milieu. Conversely, students who possess a dominant language proficiency within a diverse setting will also benefit from gaining a diverse perspective on global dynamics, acquiring skills to

effectively interact with individuals from diverse backgrounds, and developing an understanding of how other languages may be perceived when filtered through their linguistic lens. This type of experience holds significant value in our increasingly interconnected global society.

6.5 The Implication of Language Diversity

Jurafsky suggested that the study of languages beyond our own and their evolutionary processes are of significant importance as it enables scholars to gain insights into the fundamental aspects of human communication. Recognizing the influence of our language does not pertain solely to adhering to political correctness. The topic pertains to treating individuals with respect and dignity while also fostering a heightened level of awareness.

The influence of language is anticipated to have a substantial impact on organizations that exhibit linguistic diversity (Lauring & Selmer, 2011). According to Chomsky (1992), language has a significant impact on various facets of human existence, serving as the framework through which individuals acquire and possess knowledge. The role of language in the construction of knowledge is of utmost importance, as it serves as a medium for the expression and communication of thoughts and meanings (Renzl, 2007).

Language diversity is characterized by the existence of numerous speakers with varying native languages (Lauring and Selmer, 2012, p. 157). According to Henderson (2005), the presence of language diversity can potentially contribute to instances of communication breakdowns resulting from inadequate language proficiency. Insufficient proficiency in a particular language, particularly the official language used within a specific group or organization, can result in miscommunication and an inability to effectively exchange information (Makela et al., 2007; Welch and Welch, 2008).

The acts of speaking, writing, and reading play a crucial role in our daily lives, as language serves as the fundamental means of both expressing ourselves and engaging in communication. Examining the manner in which individuals employ language, including their subconscious selection and combination of words and phrases, can contribute to a more comprehensive comprehension of human nature and the underlying factors that influence our actions. Linguistic scholars endeavor to ascertain the distinctive and ubiquitous characteristics of the language we employ, the process through which it is acquired, and its evolutionary patterns. Language is regarded as a phenomenon that encompasses cultural, social, and psychological dimensions.

According to Dan Jurafsky, the Jackson Eli Reynolds Professor in Humanities and chair of the Department of Linguistics in the School of Humanities and Sciences at Stanford, gaining insight into the reasons and mechanisms behind linguistic variations provides valuable insights into the breadth of human experience. The exploration of the shared characteristics among languages can facilitate our comprehension of the fundamental essence of human nature. The field of linguistics and psychology is dedicated to the examination of how individuals perceive and interpret language. Even minor variations in language usage can align with the biased beliefs held by individuals. A study has demonstrated that a seemingly innocuous statement, such as "Females possess equal mathematical abilities to males," can inadvertently sustain gender-based stereotypes. The implication of the statement arises from its grammatical structure, suggesting a higher prevalence or inherent aptitude for mathematics among boys compared to girls.

The role of language in shaping individual and collective perceptions of the world is significant, and linguists engage in the investigation of the subtle ways in which words and phrases can exert influence on individuals, often without their conscious awareness. Thus, lack of linguistic proficiency or knowledge deficiency (lack of expertise) makes it difficult to manage communications, impelling people to adopt some strategies discourse adjustments, media adjustments, and language

adjustments to deal with linguistic differences. Linguists conduct analyses on the correlation between specific speech patterns and corresponding behaviors, such as the influence of language on individuals' purchasing choices or its impact on their utilization of social media platforms. Based on Jurafsky, the current era is characterized by significant polarization. The initial stage in fostering unity among individuals is to comprehend the perspectives and rationales expressed by diverse groups. It is estimated that there are approximately 7,000 languages spoken globally. While there are certain shared characteristics among languages, each possesses distinct features in terms of its linguistic structure and its ability to reflect the cultural nuances of its speakers.

Linguistic diversity is a globally observed phenomenon that holds increasing social significance, warranting examination from various scholarly angles. According to Simons (2022), the Ethnologue research center on language intelligence posits that the current global linguistic landscape encompasses a total of 7,151 distinct languages. Furthermore, within the United States, it is reported that 337 languages are spoken within domestic settings. These families possess multiple perspectives through which they perceive the world. According to Ryan (year), Spanish is the predominant language spoken in households across the United States, with the exception of English. However, it is noteworthy that numerous languages continue to flourish and ascend to the ranks of the top 10 languages. These include Chinese, Tagalog, Vietnamese, Arabic, French, Korean, Russian, and German. Consequently, the U.S. Census Bureau anticipates a rise in the utilization of the English language within households in the United States.

To what extent has language influenced or shaped our perception of the world? In what manner might one's language impact interpersonal interactions? As an institution specializing in online language education, linguists and scholars strongly advocate for the promotion and cultivation of multilingualism. The presence of linguistic diversity in our communities offers significant advantages, serving as a countermeasure against the

regrettable phenomenon of a monolingual mindset. Continue reading as we explore the subsequent six advantages of linguistic diversity;

1. Enhancing Self Identity

One way to enhance self-identity is by engaging in activities that promote self-awareness and personal growth. Language serves as a symbolic manifestation of our individual and collective identities. The preservation and transmission of our cultural heritage serve as a means of self-identification. By advocating for the preservation and promotion of linguistic diversity, we are enhancing the preservation and transmission of individuals cultural heritage, thereby bolstering their sense of identity. When the use of a particular language is no longer prevalent or is not given due recognition, or is subject to limitations, individuals may perceive their culture as being lost, undervalued, and constrained. Therefore, the presence of linguistic diversity in an environment serves to safeguard individuals cultural autonomy and, in numerous instances, their spiritual well being. Moreover, the presence of such an environment instills individuals with a sense of assurance that there exists no conflict in simultaneously upholding their cultural heritage and actively participating in and taking pride in their community.

2. Assist in the Development of children's social skills.

Children who acquire proficiency in multiple languages develop heightened sensitivity towards their interlocutors. Children's selection of words and language is influenced by their understanding of others. These decisions exemplify sophisticated social aptitude. One intriguing observation is that bilingual children demonstrate enhanced performance in attention, cognitive flexibility, memory, and self-regulation when compared to their monolingual counterparts. Furthermore, exposure to multiple languages facilitates the development of robust cultural identities in children.

Assuming children refrain from utilizing their native languages within their immediate social environments. In light of this circumstance, it is advisable to promote the utilization of individuals' native languages, which are esteemed and incorporated within child and youth initiatives.

It is imperative to provide monolingual children with exposure to the diverse array of languages prevalent within their community and country. Furthermore, it promotes the cultivation of a healthy sense of identity among children and young individuals belonging to various communities.

3. Improved cognitive abilities

The presence of multiple languages and cultures can be likened to the existence of multiple programs. When engaging in communication within a specific linguistic framework or residing within a particular cultural context, individuals may exhibit distinct sets of expectations and responses that may not be replicated in alternative linguistic or cultural settings. Recognizing the diversity of communities in which individuals reside facilitates their ability to navigate between them, thereby fostering broader perspectives on the potentialities that exist. Consequently, a greater number of opportunities become apparent in the global context. Individuals who possess the ability to communicate in multiple languages demonstrate enhanced cognitive capacities and achieve more favorable educational results. Individuals who engage in activities that require attention and adaptation to various language rules, linguistic norms, and social behaviors are known to develop new neural pathways in the brain. Additionally, these individuals exhibit a decreased likelihood of developing cognitive disorders, including Alzheimer's disease and other similar conditions.

4. To augment creativity.

Individuals often assume various roles and responsibilities in their lives. These roles may encompass professional obligations, entrepreneurial pursuits, interpersonal relationships as friends, parental duties, and familial connections as sons, daughters, sisters, or brothers, among others. These various roles necessitate specific behavioral expectations, leading us to frequently transition between them. In many instances, individuals engage in this behavior reflexively, often without conscious consideration, acknowledging the role of diverse cultures and languages in facilitating such actions on a broader scale. The individuals who have demonstrated proficiency in thinking beyond conventional boundaries have been responsible for the development of noteworthy technological advancements. Engaging in a multicultural experience significantly enhances individuals flexibility and greatly augments their creativity and problem solving abilities.

5. Serve the community

One important aspect of civic engagement is the act of serving the community. The act of valuing and preserving the languages that are currently in use within a community contributes to the enhancement of residents self assurance and fosters connections between diverse groups. Proficiency in language and a nuanced understanding of its usage facilitate engagement in cultural dialogues. These perspectives offer valuable insights that can effectively mitigate mutual suspicion, fear, and resentment among different population groups, while also addressing various forms of extremism. When adequate resources for translation and interpretation are available, individuals who are new to a country and do not possess a strong grasp of the local language are afforded equitable access to essential services, including healthcare and emergency assistance. This particular setting has the potential to provide enhanced

assistance to customers who do not possess proficiency in the local language.

6. Long-term Success

The concept of long-term success refers to the sustained achievement of goals and objectives over an extended period of time. It encompasses the ability to consistently. Accordingly, in 1990, it was estimated that more than 50% of the global population possesses the ability to communicate in multiple languages in the context of the contemporary globalized society. These individuals are currently presented with the opportunity, as well as in the foreseeable future, to actively engage in the global community through various means, access information from diverse sources, and enhance their understanding of individuals from different cultural backgrounds. It is anticipated that forthcoming urban areas will increasingly depend on digital solutions for the purpose of data monitoring and the adaptation of tools to accommodate evolving requirements. The provision of language tools across various sectors, such as healthcare, legal, and education, is contingent upon the establishment of networks among organizations. Community initiatives aimed at promoting linguistic diversity play a crucial role in ensuring that the upcoming generation of workers possesses a valuable repertoire of skills.

Merely engaging in verbal communication is insufficient. It is necessary to engage in ambulation as a means of locomotion. In order to foster linguistic diversity, it is imperative to demonstrate respect towards individuals who speak foreign languages and provide them with opportunities to showcase the cultural richness inherent in their heritage to members of the wider community. The promotion of linguistic richness and humor can be facilitated through various means, such as culinary experiences, cultural activities, musical performances, and presentations.

For instance, social connections are established through shared laughter, communal dining, and collaborative task completion. Individuals have the potential to cultivate strong interpersonal relationships within various social contexts, such as community settings, professional environments, and educational institutions. Additional illustrations of activities that can be undertaken within the confines of one's residence or professional environment include:

- building a library of books in various languages;
- encouraging individuals to read books in their native tongue;
- planning bilingual curriculum activities in which;
- individuals are asked to share photographs, artwork, textiles, or other materials from their homes and cultures;
- encouraging individuals to share language traditions and routines and to broaden their experiences with their heritage language.

Linguistic diversity is regarded as an aesthetically pleasing characteristic, and its advantages are manifold. Each language found in our world possesses a distinct and unparalleled sense of grace and refinement. It is imperative to acknowledge and appreciate the concept of beauty. There is a potential for negative consequences if we choose to disregard the opportunities that it presents. Linguistic discrimination contributes to the exacerbation of social isolation, feelings of frustration, and the cultivation of resentment. There exists an opportunity for us to demonstrate to the global community a model of embracing linguistic diversity that effectively fosters social cohesion.

6.6 Linguistic Diversity in The Lens of UNESCO

The recognition and preservation of language diversity is considered a fundamental and inherent human right. The protection and preservation of indigenous languages is an integral component of universal human rights. Every individual

possesses the inherent entitlement to utilize their respective language. Language serves as the foundation of our individual and collective identities, functioning as a vital tool for communication and representing an integral component of humanity's rich cultural heritage. Therefore, the preservation of linguistic diversity is a shared objective both globally and within the European context.

The aforementioned objective has been codified in the Charter of Fundamental Rights within the Lisbon Treaty of the European Union, as well as in the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages and the Framework Convention on the Protection of National Minorities established by the Council of Europe. At the global level, international treaties and declarations established by the United Nations provide protection for the utilization of languages. In this particular context, it is important to emphasize the concept of endangered languages as recognized by UNESCO. The European Union places great importance on the principles of multilingualism and linguistic diversity. Article 22 of the European Charter of Fundamental Rights establishes the following provisions. The Union is obligated to uphold and honor cultural, religious, and linguistic diversity.

Based on estimations provided by UNESCO, it is projected that approximately 50% of the 6,000 languages currently in use will face extinction by the conclusion of the present century unless proactive measures are taken to avert this outcome. Assuming that languages that are not written or documented will cease to exist. In this scenario, it can be inferred that the potential consequences encompass both the depletion of cultural diversity within the human population, as well as the loss of crucial ancestral wisdom, particularly pertaining to regional and minority languages, as well as indigenous languages. Language serves as a means of encapsulating a multitude of thoughts within its metaphors, proverbs, mentalities, vocabulary, sound system, and grammar.

The classification of the degree of endangerment of a language is determined by the publishers of the UNESCO Atlas based on a set of nine criteria. The primary factors of significance encompass the number of individuals proficient in the language and the nature and calibre of the accompanying linguistic records. Another criterion that must be considered is the speakers' appreciation for their language. Another pertinent aspect to consider is the utilization of language across various domains, such as within the family unit, during leisure activities, on the internet, within educational institutions, in professional settings, and within the realm of media.

In 2010, the most recent iteration of the "UNESCO Atlas of the World's Languages in Danger" was released. The Atlas provides comprehensive data on over 2,500 endangered languages across the globe. Over the course of the past three generations, approximately two hundred languages have become extinct, while around 1,700 languages are currently facing a significant risk of endangerment. Moreover, over six hundred languages are presently experiencing a state of minimal usage. Approximately 50% of the world's languages can be classified as minority and regional languages, with a speaker population of fewer than 10,000 individuals.

This section provided an introduction to fundamental concepts that are essential to understanding language diversity within our context. The concept of multilingualism is characterized by its inherent ambiguity. The term multilingualism, which can be used interchangeably with the term bilingualism, encompasses a wide range of distinct phenomena and experiences. To categorize these phenomena systematically, scholarly literature typically classifies multilingualism into three main categories: individual multilingualism, social multilingualism, and, on occasion, institutional multilingualism.

Individual multilingualism is a phenomenon that pertains to the linguistic abilities of individuals to communicate and comprehend multiple languages. It is closely associated with the

broader concept of multilingualism, which encompasses the linguistic diversity exhibited by human beings. Individuals can be considered multilingual when they have achieved a high level of proficiency in multiple languages. The academic discourse discusses two distinct interpretations of "individual multilingualism, commonly referred to as the "narrow" and "broad" definitions. According to a more restrictive interpretation, an individual can only be considered multilingual if they acquire multiple languages during their early childhood and possess a high level of proficiency in both oral and written forms of these languages. According to the expansive interpretation, an individual is considered multilingual if they consistently employ two or more languages in their everyday activities at any given stage of their life. The "inclusive" definition does not specify the temporal aspects of language acquisition or proficiency. Various factors, such as the method of language acquisition and the cognitive structure of language, are significant in understanding different forms of individual multilingualism. Examples include successive and simultaneous individual multilingualism, which is distinguished by the time of language acquisition, as well as symmetrical and asymmetrical individual multilingualism, which is characterized by varying levels of language proficiency.

The consideration of various forms of individual multilingualism, particularly with respect to linguistic minority groups, holds significant significance. The acquisition of language is often hindered in cases where the autonomous and uncontrolled intergenerational transfer of the minority language within the family is impeded by the phenomenon of language shift in society. This phenomenon necessitates language minorities to formulate strategies for the continued transmission of their languages to younger generations, extending beyond familial contexts. In numerous instances, individuals endeavour to mitigate or rectify an inadequate and unregulated transmission of the minority language across generations by implementing a deliberate and regulated process of acquiring the minority language within educational institutions.

Social multilingualism refers to the phenomenon wherein multiple languages coexist within a given society. The phenomenon of social multilingualism encompasses both a geographic policy dimension and a social psychological dimension. The concept of the geographic policy dimension pertains to the presence of multilingualism in a specific geographic location, such as a city, region, or country. It also encompasses the policies and measures implemented to shape the status, institutionalization, and recognition of the languages spoken within that area. The social psychological dimension pertains to various aspects, such as the distribution, function, status, and vitality of individual languages within specific language communities in a multilingual society. In order to address the lower status and limited institutionalization and legitimization of minority languages compared to majority languages, individuals endeavor to implement measures within the realm of status planning.

Institutional multilingualism pertains to the concurrent presence of multiple languages within institutional settings. In a more specific context, these establishments can be categorized as either public or private entities, operating at the local, regional, national, or supranational level and providing their services in various linguistic mediums. From a comprehensive perspective, the notion of institutional multilingualism also encompasses educational institutions, including schools, as well as familial contexts. In the realm of literature, institutional multilingualism is frequently regarded as a manifestation of social multilingualism.

The term "*mother tongue*," also referred to as "*mother language*" or "*native language*," typically refers to the language that an individual is exposed to and acquires during their early childhood within the familial environment. If the term "mother tongue" pertains to individuals who are brought up in a household where only one language is spoken, it can be considered synonymous with the term "first language." In this scenario, it can be inferred that the mother tongue refers to the language in which an individual demonstrates the highest level of

proficiency, predominantly utilizes within their family setting, identifies with, and is recognized as being associated with. The dynamics of the concept vary when it pertains to individuals who are exposed to or brought up in a multilingual setting. In such instances, the inquiry pertains to whether an individual's mother tongue aligns with the language they initially acquired, in which they exhibit the highest level of proficiency, and whether it is the language they identify with or are identified by. The lack of precision in the usage of the term "mother tongue" to denote both individual and societal languages within a multilingual setting has led to significant skepticism regarding its validity in the fields of sociolinguistics and contact linguistics.

The term "minority language" refers to the language spoken by a native linguistic minority group. In instances where the language is spoken by a non-native minority group, the literature commonly employs the term "immigrant language." The language minority community, also referred to as the minority language community, experiences a comparatively lower social standing and diminished political influence in comparison to the surrounding majority. The minority language exhibits manifestations of the aforementioned disparities in status and power. When comparing the minority language to the majority language, it can be observed that the former exhibits a lower status and a lesser degree of institutionalization and legitimization.

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CHAPTER 7

HISTORICAL LINGUISTICS: LANGUAGE CHANGE

By Neneng Yuniarty

7.1 Introduction

Language change is a natural and ongoing process that occurs in all languages over time. It is both obvious and mysterious because, on one hand, we can observe the differences between older and contemporary forms of a language, but on the other hand, the exact reasons for these changes may not always be fully understood. For example, if we compare the English of the late fourteenth century to Modern English, the differences are substantial enough that it can be challenging for individuals without specialized training to understand the older text. Old English texts may contain words, structures, and even pronunciations that are unfamiliar to us today.

Studying language change is not limited to just looking at the differences between older and newer forms of a language. Linguists also employ various techniques to reconstruct linguistic pre history, attempting to understand the earlier stages of languages for which no written records exist. Furthermore, historical linguistics is closely related to research in language acquisition and linguistic universals. Understanding how languages change over time can provide insights into how children acquire language and the universal principles that underlie all human languages.

In summary, language change is an inherent aspect of all languages, and historical linguistics seeks to describe and explain the processes and causes of these changes. It encompasses various types of language change and employs techniques to reconstruct the linguistic past while also shedding light on language acquisition and universal linguistic principles.

7.2 Cause of Language Change

Language change is a complex phenomenon that can result from various factors and processes. The factors that can cause the language to change are:

1. Language Learning

Language learning and language change are closely related concepts that influence each other in various ways. Language change refers to the evolution and transformation of a language over time, as it adapts to the needs and preferences of its speakers. On the other hand, language learning involves the process by which individuals acquire a new language, either as a first language (L1) in childhood or as a second language (L2) in adolescence or adulthood.

Here are some ways in which language learning and language change intersect:

a. Language Acquisition and Transmission

Language change often occurs naturally over generations as new speakers acquire the language and bring their own linguistic influences. As children learn their native language (L1), they might introduce slight variations or innovations in pronunciation, grammar, or vocabulary, contributing to language change.

b. Language Contact

When speakers of different languages come into contact, such as through migration or trade, language change can be accelerated. In these situations, language learners (L2 speakers) might adopt features from other languages, leading to the incorporation of loanwords,

grammatical structures, or pronunciation patterns into their speech.

c. Linguistic Borrowing:

Language learners often borrow words or phrases from the target language into their own native language. Over time, these borrowed elements may become integrated and even replace existing terms, leading to lexical changes and enriching the vocabulary of both languages involved.

d. Code-Switching and Language Mixing

Language learners might engage in code-switching or language mixing, where they switch between two or more languages in their speech. This phenomenon can lead to the blending of linguistic features and influence language change in both the native and target languages.

e. Language Evolution through Language Teaching

Language change can be influenced by language teaching materials and methods. Language instructors may introduce new words, idiomatic expressions, or language norms that eventually become part of the evolving language as learners adopt and use them.

f. Prescriptive vs Descriptive Grammar

In language learning, there is often a tension between prescriptive grammar (rules dictated by language authorities) and descriptive grammar (observed usage by native speakers). Language change can be affected by how learners and educators approach these two perspectives.

g. Language Standardization

The process of language learning and language change is also influenced by language standardization efforts. As a language becomes more standardized, certain features are codified, and this can either constrain or promote further linguistic evolution.

h. Innovation and Language Creativity

Language learners may be more willing to experiment with new linguistic forms and create innovations, leading to linguistic creativity and potential language change.

Language learning and language change are dynamic processes that are deeply intertwined. As languages continue to evolve, language learners play a crucial role in shaping the future of linguistic diversity and transformation.

2. Language Contact

Language contact refers to the situation in which two or more languages come into contact with each other through prolonged interactions between their speakers. This contact can lead to various linguistic outcomes, including language change. Language change occurs when a language undergoes modifications in its structure, vocabulary, or pronunciation over time.

There are several ways in which language contact can influence language change:

a. Borrowing

When languages come into contact, speakers may adopt words or phrases from one language into another. This process is known as borrowing. It often occurs when speakers find certain concepts or items that don't exist in their native language and choose to adopt the foreign term. Over time, these borrowed words may become fully integrated into the recipient language.

b. Code-switching

In multilingual communities, speakers may switch between languages in conversation. Code-switching is a phenomenon where speakers alternate between two or more languages within the same discourse. Frequent code-switching can lead to the transfer of linguistic features from one language to another, affecting the grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation of both languages.

c. Language convergence

Language contact can lead to convergence, wherein two or more languages influence each other, leading to increased similarities between them. This process can result in the formation of a new variety or a creole language.

d. Language shift

Language shift occurs when a community gradually abandons their native language in favour of another language, often due to societal or economic pressures. In such cases, the dominant language influences the structure and vocabulary of the language being abandoned.

e. Substrate and superstrate influence

In situations where a dominant language comes into contact with a minority or lesser-known language, the less dominant language (substrate) may exert influence on the dominant language (superstrate). Substrate influence can manifest in phonetic, morphological, and syntactic features of the dominant language.

f. Language contact and grammaticalization

Language contact can also influence the grammaticalization process. Grammaticalization refers to the development of new grammatical elements from existing words or constructions. Contact with other languages can speed up or redirect this process as certain structures are reanalysed or adopted. Language contact can lead to significant changes in the languages involved. It is a fascinating area of study for linguists, as it provides insights into how languages interact and adapt in diverse social and cultural settings.

3. Social differentiation or Social Status

Language change can be influenced by social differentiation or social status in a community. The way people speak can often reflect their social identity, including factors such as their age, gender, education level, occupation, ethnicity, and socioeconomic status. These

social factors can lead to language variation and changes over time. Two main aspects related to social differentiation and social status that are relevant to language change are:

4. Social Stratification and Language Variation:

In many societies, there is a social stratification where different social groups hold different levels of power, prestige, and influence. Language can be one of the markers of this stratification. Higher-status groups may adopt certain linguistic features or accents that differentiate them from lower-status groups. As a result, language variation may arise based on social class or other social categories.

For instance, specific vocabulary, pronunciation, or grammar usage might be associated with higher social status, while other linguistic features could be stigmatized or associated with lower social status. Over time, these linguistic distinctions can change and evolve as social hierarchies and attitudes shift.

5. Language Prestige and Change:

Language prestige refers to the perceived social value or status associated with a particular language, dialect, or speech pattern. Certain varieties of language can be considered prestigious, often associated with educated or high-status individuals, while others may be stigmatized or associated with lower social status. Language prestige can influence language change in multiple ways. If a particular language or dialect is considered prestigious, individuals may adopt its features to enhance their social standing or to conform to the norms of higher-status groups. On the other hand, linguistic features associated with lower social status might be avoided or suppressed as people strive to align themselves with higher-status groups.

Moreover, language contact between social groups can lead to language change. When individuals from different social backgrounds interact, they might adopt linguistic features from each other's speech, leading to

language convergence or divergence. It's essential to note that language change due to social differentiation and status is a complex and ongoing process. It is influenced by various factors, and it often occurs in parallel with other linguistic changes driven by factors such as generational shifts, technological advancements, and cultural influences. Sociolinguists study these dynamics to better understand how language evolves over time and how it reflects and shapes social identities and interactions in a community.

6. Natural Process in usage

Language is a dynamic and ever-changing system, and one of the key drivers of language change is the natural processes that occur as languages evolve over time. These natural processes can be observed in various linguistic phenomena and are instrumental in shaping the vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation of languages.

Casual speech naturally produces processes that play significant roles in shaping its development and evolution. Each of the processes are:

a. Assimilation

This occurs when sounds in a word become more similar to adjacent sounds, making pronunciation more comfortable and fluid. For example, the phrase "handbag" might be pronounced as "hambag" due to the assimilation of the "n" sound into the following "b" sound.

b. Dissimilation

In contrast to assimilation, dissimilation involves sounds becoming less similar to avoid potential confusion or improve articulation. An example is the word "comfortable," which may be pronounced as "comfortubble" to avoid the repetition of the "t" sound.

c. Syncope

This refers to the loss of one or more sounds or syllables from the interior of a word. It often happens to simplify pronunciation or adapt to colloquial speech.

For instance, "probably" might be pronounced as "prolly" in casual speech.

d. Apocope

Apocope involves the loss of sounds at the end of a word. For example, "evening" could be shortened to "evenin'."

Repetition and frequent usage of these processes in speech lead to their conventionalization and eventual integration into the language. This is why we often see these variations even in slower or more careful speech. Over time, they become accepted linguistic features. Likewise, word meanings can change through similar processes of conventionalization. Two essential mechanisms that drive semantic change are:

1. Metaphor

This involves the transfer of meaning from one word to another based on a perceived similarity or analogy between them. For example, "foot" originally referred to the body part but has metaphorically been extended to measure length in various contexts (e.g., "a five-foot pole").

2. Metonymy

Metonymy is the process by which one word or concept is replaced with another based on a specific relationship between them. For instance, using "the crown" to refer to the monarchy or "Hollywood" to refer to the American film industry.

These semantic shifts occur over time as people repeatedly use and understand words in new contexts. The more widely adopted these shifts become, the more conventionalized they are within the language. Language is an ever-changing system, and these processes help facilitate its adaptation to the needs and preferences of its speakers over generations.

Some Linguists distinguish the language change between internal and external sources of language change:

a. Internal sources of language change:

Internal factors refer to changes that occur within the language system itself, driven by linguistic mechanisms and processes. These changes often involve the reorganization or restructuring of linguistic elements. These are changes that originate within a language community and are driven by the everyday interactions and behaviour of its speakers. Language is a dynamic system, and over time, speakers adapt and adjust their speech to communicate more effectively with each other. This can lead to innovations within the language, especially in smaller groups of people who are closely connected or in regular contact with each other. These innovations might include changes in grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and other linguistic elements. Some examples of internal factors include:

➤ Analogical Levelling

This process involves the regularization of irregular forms in a language, leading to greater consistency. For instance, in English, the verb "go" underwent analogical levelling, resulting in the formation of the regular past tense "went" instead of the irregular "goed."

➤ Analogical Extension

This process occurs when a linguistic pattern is extended to new words or forms based on existing patterns. For example, the regular plural "-s" in English was extended to words that historically had irregular plurals, like "child" becoming "children."

➤ Re-alignment of Sense Relations

This refers to changes in the semantic relationships between words or senses within a word field. Over time, the meanings of words can shift, and new relationships may emerge.

These internal factors contribute to the ongoing evolution and adaptation of languages, leading to the establishment of new patterns and regularities. Over generations, these internal changes can accumulate and diverge, ultimately resulting in differences between dialects or even separate languages. It's important to note that these changes occur organically within the speech community and are not influenced by outside factors initially.

b. External sources of language change:

On the other hand, external sources of language change are caused by the contact between different language communities or cultural influences rather than inherent linguistic mechanisms. Language operates in a social context, and external factors shape its usage and evolution. As humans are social beings and engage in cultural exchanges, languages come into contact with each other. This contact can happen between interconnected regions or different ethnic groups within a country, or it can occur through trade, migration, colonization, or other historical interactions between nations worldwide.

When languages come into contact, they may influence each other through processes like borrowing words, adopting grammatical structures, or even fully merging in some cases. For example, a language may adopt loanwords from another language, integrate new syntactic patterns, or develop a pidgin or creole language if there is prolonged contact and a need for communication between speakers of different languages.

These external influences can result in significant changes to a language's vocabulary, grammar, and overall linguistic structure. Over time, if the contact is sustained, the languages may develop into distinct

varieties or even completely new languages. Some examples of external factors include:

➤ Sociolinguistic Factors

Social factors like age, gender, social class, ethnicity, and geographic location can influence language variation and change. Different social groups may adopt certain linguistic features, leading to dialectal variations or language shifts.

➤ Contact with Other Languages

When languages come into contact with each other through trade, migration, colonization, or other interactions, language change can occur. This may involve borrowing words, adopting grammatical structures, or even language convergence.

➤ Cultural and Technological Influences

Changes in society, culture, or technology can impact language use. New concepts or inventions often lead to the creation of new words or the adaptation of existing vocabulary to accommodate novel ideas.

➤ Language Policy and Prestige

The promotion or suppression of certain languages by government policies or through social prestige can influence language change. A language that gains prestige may see increased use and adoption, while others may decline.

The impact of external factors is not limited to a single level of language; it can manifest in various linguistic aspects, such as phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, and vocabulary. In summary, both internal and external sources of language change contribute to the evolution and diversification of languages over time. Internal changes arise from within a speech community and are driven by the speakers' interactions and innovations. External changes are a result of contact

between different language communities, leading to linguistic borrowing, convergence, and, in some cases, the emergence of new languages or language varieties.

The English language underwent significant changes and evolution during the fifteenth century, it's important to clarify that the evolution did not occur exclusively in the UK at that time. Rather, it was a process that took place across the entire English-speaking world. The history of the English language is traditionally divided into three main periods, each marked by significant linguistic changes. These periods are:

1. Old English (ca. 450-1150 AD):

Old English, also known as Anglo-Saxon, was spoken from the mid-5th century until the Norman Conquest of England in 1066. During this period, the language was heavily influenced by Germanic tribes, especially the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes who settled in England. Old English is characterized by its inflected nature, rich use of grammatical cases, and a vocabulary that differs significantly from modern English.

2. Middle English (ca. 1150-1500 AD):

Middle English emerged after the Norman Conquest and lasted until the late 15th century. This period saw a major influx of French vocabulary due to the Norman influence. The combination of Old English and Norman French led to significant changes in grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation. During this time, Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales* and *Sir Gawain and the Green Knight* were written, representing some of the notable literary works of the period.

3. Early Modern English (ca. 1500-1700 AD):

Early Modern English began around the 16th century and continued into the 17th century. This period saw substantial changes in the language, with

the simplification of grammar and a significant increase in word borrowing from Latin and Greek. It was during this time that Shakespeare wrote his famous plays and sonnets. Early Modern English gradually evolved into the Modern English we use today.

These three periods mark significant linguistic shifts in the development of the English language, making them important divisions in the study of its history.

7.3 Types of Language Change

Language is a dynamic and ever-evolving system, subject to various changes over time. These changes can occur for numerous reasons, ranging from social, cultural, and historical factors to internal linguistic mechanisms. Linguists generally categorize types of language change into several distinct categories:

1. Lexical Change

Lexical change refers to the process by which the vocabulary of a language evolves over time. This evolution can occur through various mechanisms, including borrowing words from other languages, creating new words, changing the meaning of existing words, or losing words from the language altogether. Lexical change is a natural and ongoing phenomenon that reflects the cultural, social, and technological developments of a society. Here are some common mechanisms of lexical change:

a. Borrowing

Languages often borrow words from other languages when they come into contact through trade, migration, or cultural exchange. For example, English has borrowed many words from French, such as "restaurant," "ballet," and "rendezvous."

b. Coinage

Sometimes, new words are created within a language to represent new concepts, inventions, or ideas. For instance, "googling" originated from the

company Google and refers to searching for information on the internet.

c. Semantic Change

Over time, the meanings of existing words can shift, leading to semantic changes. For example, the word "awful" originally meant "full of awe," but its meaning evolved to convey something negative or unpleasant.

d. Elevation and Degradation

Words may undergo shifts in connotation, becoming more positive (elevation) or more negative (degradation). For instance, "nice" originally meant "ignorant" but has since acquired a positive connotation.

e. Compounding

New words can be formed by combining existing words. For example, "smartphone" is a combination of "smart" and "phone."

f. Backformation

Sometimes, words are mistakenly created by removing an affix from an existing word. For example, "burglar" is derived from "burglary," but the word "burgle" doesn't actually exist in the language.

g. Obsolete Words

Certain words may fall out of common usage and become obsolete over time. As society changes, words that were once relevant may lose their relevance or usefulness.

h. Eponyms

Words can be coined based on the names of people, especially inventors or famous figures. For example, "sandwich" is believed to be named after John Montagu, the 4th Earl of Sandwich.

Language change, including lexical change, is an essential part of linguistic evolution. It allows languages to adapt to the needs and experiences of their speakers, reflecting the dynamic nature of human communication and society.

2. Sound Change

Sound change is a phenomenon that occurs in languages over time. It refers to the alterations in pronunciation and phonological patterns of words and sounds. Sound changes can be natural and gradual, occurring unconsciously within a speech community, or they can be intentional and introduced through language contact or language planning efforts. Several types of sound changes can be observed in the historical development of languages:

a. Phonological Shifts

These involve systematic changes in the pronunciation of sounds or groups of sounds. For example, the Great Vowel Shift in English, which occurred between the 14th and 18th centuries, resulted in significant changes in the pronunciation of long vowels.

b. Lenition

Lenition is a process where sounds become more sonorous or weaker over time. For instance, a voiceless stop consonant (like "p," "t," "k") may change into a fricative (like "f," "θ," "x") or a voiced stop (like "b," "d," "g") in certain phonetic contexts.

c. Assimilation

Assimilation refers to the influence of one sound on another sound, making them more similar or identical. For example, the prefix "in-" before a root word often undergoes assimilation, changing its form to "im-" or "il-" based on the initial sound of the root (e.g., "impossible" and "illegal").

d. Metathesis

Metathesis involves the transposition or switching of sounds or syllables in a word. This can happen accidentally or result from linguistic simplification. An example is the Old English word "brid" becoming "bird" in Modern English.

e. Loss or Addition of Sounds

Certain sounds may disappear from a language over time (e.g., the loss of the "h" sound in "hour" in

some varieties of English). Conversely, new sounds may emerge due to language contact or other influences.

f. Palatalization

Palatalization involves the change of a sound into a palatal sound (produced with the middle of the tongue against the hard palate). For instance, the Latin "ct" sound became a palatal fricative in Old French, leading to words like "octo" becoming "huit."

g. Diphthongization

Diphthongization is the process of a single vowel sound gliding into two different vowel sounds. It can result from changes in articulation or vowel shifts.

These sound changes are essential to understanding the historical development of languages. They shape the phonetic and phonological systems of languages, making them distinct from their earlier forms and contributing to language evolution over time.

3. Grammatical Change

Language change is a natural and ongoing process that occurs in all languages over time. Grammatical change refers to the alterations in the structure, rules, and patterns that govern how words are combined to form meaningful sentences in a language. These changes can happen gradually or abruptly and can be driven by various factors, such as cultural shifts, contact with other languages, and generational language use. There are several types of grammatical changes that languages can undergo:

a. Phonological Changes

These changes involve alterations in the sounds of words. Over time, certain sounds may be simplified, merged, or even disappear entirely from the language. This can affect word endings, pronunciation, and stress patterns.

b. Morphological Changes

Morphemes are the smallest units of meaning in a language. Morphological changes involve modifications in the way words are formed using prefixes, suffixes, and other affixes. For example, in English, the "-eth" ending

for third-person singular verbs (e.g., "he runs") has largely been replaced by the "-s" ending (e.g., "he runs").

c. Syntactic Changes

These changes occur in the arrangement of words to form sentences. Word order alterations, changes in sentence structures, and the introduction of new syntactic constructions can take place over time.

d. Semantic Changes

Semantic changes refer to shifts in the meanings of words or phrases. Words may acquire new meanings, lose old meanings, or shift in connotation over time.

e. Lexical Changes

Lexical changes involve the addition or loss of words in a language's vocabulary. This can happen through borrowing from other languages, word creation, and archaic words falling out of use.

f. Pragmatic Changes

Pragmatics deals with how context influences the interpretation of language. Changes in pragmatics can affect how speakers use language to convey politeness, sarcasm, and other nuances of communication.

Language change is often a gradual process and can be observed over extended periods, sometimes spanning generations or even centuries. While some changes may be met with resistance or perceived as errors initially, they can eventually become widely accepted and integrated into the language as it continues to evolve. Linguists study language change to understand the dynamics of linguistic evolution and how languages adapt to the needs of their speakers.

4. Semantic Change

Semantic change, also known as semantic shift or semantic evolution, refers to the process by which the meaning of a word, phrase, or expression undergoes alteration over time. These changes can be gradual or rapid and can occur for various reasons, such as cultural shifts, linguistic influence, or changes in the context of language use. Semantic change is a natural and common phenomenon in

any living language. There are several types of semantic change:

a. Broadening (Generalization)

This occurs when a word's meaning becomes more inclusive or general than its original specific meaning. For example: The word "book" originally referred to a written work, but it now includes electronic books as well.

b. Narrowing (Specialization)

This happens when a word's meaning becomes more specific than its original broader meaning. For example: "Meat" originally referred to all types of food, but now it specifically refers to animal flesh.

c. Metaphor

When a word is used metaphorically and its meaning shifts to reflect the metaphorical usage. For example: "Cloud" used to refer to a visible mass of condensed water vapor, but now it's also used to describe data storage and computing services.

d. Metonymy

A type of semantic change where a word's meaning is replaced by another word or concept that is closely associated with it. For example: "The White House" is used to refer to the U.S. presidential administration.

e. Pejoration

This occurs when a word's meaning becomes more negative or derogatory over time. For example: "Spinster" originally meant an unmarried woman but acquired a negative connotation over time.

f. Amelioration

This happens when a word's meaning becomes more positive or gains a favorable connotation. For example: "Knight" originally referred to a young servant, but it now carries a positive association of chivalry and honor.

g. Elevation

A word's meaning becomes more dignified or elevated in a specific context. For example: "Dog" used to be a generic term for any canine but became more specific, and "hound" is used for more dignified or noble dogs.

h. Degradation

The opposite of elevation, where a word's meaning becomes less dignified or less elevated. For example: "Master" used to refer to someone skilled or accomplished, but in certain contexts, it has become synonymous with "oppressor."

These are just a few examples of the many types of semantic change that can occur in a language. Semantic change is an essential aspect of language development, as it allows languages to adapt to the evolving needs and experiences of its speakers. It also adds depth and richness to a language's vocabulary and reflects the dynamic nature of human communication.

English is one of the fastest-changing languages in the world, and its widespread use across the globe has contributed to its dynamic evolution. There are several factors driving the rapid changes in the English language:

- a. Globalization and Communication: English has emerged as the global lingua franca for international communication, trade, and diplomacy. As more people from different linguistic backgrounds use English as a common medium of communication, they bring their own language influences, leading to the incorporation of new words, expressions, and idioms into English.
- b. Technology: With the rise of the internet and digital communication, the exchange of information has become faster and more accessible. Social media platforms, online forums, and instant messaging have given rise to new informal language styles, slang, and abbreviations that quickly become part of everyday English usage.

- c. Education: English is now a dominant language in education systems worldwide. Many countries have adopted English as a second language in schools, leading to a large number of non-native English speakers learning and using the language. As a result, these learners influence the language with their own language structures and pronunciation.
- d. Cultural and Media Influence: English language media, such as movies, TV shows, music, and literature, have a significant impact on language trends. New phrases, expressions, and cultural references from popular media can spread rapidly, affecting the way people speak and write.
- e. Migration and Diaspora: English speaking countries attract immigrants from various linguistic backgrounds, creating diverse communities that use English as a common language. This intermingling of languages leads to the development of unique dialects and linguistic features.
- f. Evolving Social Norms: Language is intrinsically tied to culture and society. As societal norms change, so does language. New concepts, social movements, and technological advancements require new words and expressions, which English readily adapts to accommodate.

The impact of these factors, combined with the vast number of English speakers worldwide, contributes to the constant evolution of the language. As English continues to be used as a primary or secondary language in an increasing number of countries, its adaptability and flexibility will ensure that it remains a rapidly changing and influential language in the years to come. Change is a fundamental aspect of human development and progress. It brings about positive transformations and advancements in various aspects of our lives, including business, communication, and cultural understanding. While change can be challenging for some, it is essential for progress and the

development of a more interconnected and understanding world. Embracing linguistic and cultural diversity can lead to a more harmonious and cooperative global community, where people can appreciate and learn from each other's unique perspectives and experiences.

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BAB 8

LANGUAGES OF THE WORLD

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The phrase "languages of the world" describes the wide variety of human communication techniques that various cultures utilize around the world (Szmigiera, 2021). The ability to communicate thoughts, feelings, information, and ideas through language makes it a crucial component of human civilization and society. It is essential for maintaining cultural heritage, fostering social relationships, and forming identities. In relation to shaping identities, a crucial component of both individual and community identity is language. People are frequently associated with particular cultural, ethnic, or regional groups based on the language(s) they speak (Bright & Grimes, 1986). It gives people a sense of belonging and enables them to connect with their ancestry and heritage. Language has an impact on how people see themselves and are seen by others. Language usage can also indicate a person's affiliation with a given social, religious, or professional group.

Furthermore, language acts as a medium for cultural information, traditions, and conventions (Lee, 2020). It contains tales, myths, histories, and cultural customs that represent the accumulated wisdom of many generations. Language serves as a vehicle for the transmission of cultural values and beliefs, maintaining a community's way of life. A large portion of a culture's identity and heritage can be lost along with a language when it is lost. In addition, social interactions revolve around communication, and language is the most important tool for efficient communication. Language enables people to exchange

experiences, emotions, and ideas in everyday interactions, storytelling, ceremonies, and rituals. It encourages interpersonal interactions and aids in creating them within families, communities, and larger social structures.

In international interactions, diplomacy, and trade, language is equally important. Languages used as *lingua francas* (Kusters, 2021) or as common languages, such as English, help individuals from diverse linguistic backgrounds communicate with one another, promoting understanding and collaboration on a worldwide scale. Furthermore, a "*lingua franca*" is a language that allows speakers of various native tongues to communicate with one another. In the past, *lingua francas* were frequently utilized by individuals with various linguistic backgrounds for trade, diplomacy, and cultural exchange. English is becoming the most widely spoken language on a worldwide scale due to increased globalization and international relations. There are thousands of languages spoken throughout the world (Nguyen, 2013), and each one offers a different means for people to communicate and express their views. Over 7,000 languages are thought to be spoken worldwide. There are various language families into which these languages might be generally divided, some of which are more well-known than others. Listed below are some of the main language groups.

8.1 Indo-European

The family of languages known as Indo-European, which has hundreds of member languages spoken by people in various parts of the world, is not a language in and of itself (Kassian et al., 2021). Due to the size of the language family, the number of speakers, and the historical and cultural significance, it is one of the most important language families in the world. Nevertheless, it is incorrect to refer to Indo-European as "the language of the world." The Proto-Indo-European (PIE) language family is a group of languages that share a common ancestor, implying that they are descended from this language (Pronk, 2019). It is thought that this hypothetical language emerged thousands of years ago, likely

in the Pontic-Caspian steppe region, and gradually divided into numerous daughter languages as human populations spread out and migrated to various regions of the world.

Europe, Asia, and the Americas are only a few of the continents where Indo-European languages are spoken. Since they are common in so many nations and areas, Indo-European is one of the biggest and most widely used language families. In addition, numerous historical, political, and cultural reasons have contributed to the spread and supremacy of Indo-European languages (Kroonen et al., 2022). The spread of Indo-European languages across time has been aided by trade, empire development, and cross-cultural interaction. The extension of several European languages to their colonies throughout the colonial era also increased the influence of Indo-European languages (Graça da Silva & Tehrani, 2016). Several popular Indo-European languages are English, Spanish, French, German, Hindi, Russian, Bengali, Portuguese, Italian, Punjabi, Persian, and Greek Latin (an ancient language that profoundly affected a number of contemporary European languages)

8.2 Sino-Tibetan

A broad language family known as Sino-Tibetan is thought to have descended from a single common ancestor language known as Proto-Sino-Tibetan (LaPolla, 2019a). It consists of a wide variety of tongues used by various ethnic groups throughout East Asia, including China, Tibet, Nepal, Bhutan, India, Myanmar, and several other nations in the region. Similar to Indo-European, Sino-Tibetan is a large language family rather than a single language (LaPolla, 2019b). It includes some of the most frequently spoken languages in the world and is made up of a group of tongues that are primarily spoken in East and Southeast Asia. But it's equally incorrect to refer to Sino-Tibetan as "the language of the world." The majority of East Asia and parts of Southeast Asia are where Sino-Tibetan languages are spoken. The family is split into two main branches: Tibeto-Burman and Sinitic (or Chinese). Due to the sheer quantity of its speakers, Mandarin Chinese, the most frequently spoken Sino-Tibetan language, is one

of the most important languages in the world (DeLancey, 2018). The importance of Mandarin on a worldwide scale has also been influenced by China's cultural and economic influence.

Sino-Tibetan languages are merely one of many language families in the globe, despite having a sizable number of speakers and significant cultural importance in their respective locations (Zhang et al., 2019). No single language is spoken by the entire world's population or acts as the exclusive method of communication, hence the concept of a single "language of the world" is irrelevant. Some well-known Sino-Tibetan languages include Mandarin Chinese, Cantonese, Tibetan, Burmese, Nepali, and Bhutanese.

8.3 Afro-Asiatic

Afro-Asiatic is a significant language family, not a language, like Indo-European and Sino-Tibetan (Abera & H/Mariam, 2018). It consists of a collection of tongues that are primarily spoken in parts of Africa and the Middle East. Although the Afro-Asiatic language family is significant historically and culturally, it is not true to say that it is "the language of the world." A broad language family called Afro-Asiatic encompasses a wide variety of languages that are spoken in different regions of Africa and the Middle East. It is thought to have descended from the Proto-Afroasiatic family of languages (Katzner & Miller, 2020). The majority of people who speak Afro-Asiatic languages live in areas that stretch from northern Africa (including Egypt, Sudan, Ethiopia, Somalia, and Chad) to the Middle East (including Egypt, Sudan, Eritrea, Djibouti, Somalia, and portions of Mauritania and Morocco). Due to its importance in the Islamic world and its status as the liturgical language of Islam, Arabic, a significant Afro-Asiatic language, is among the most frequently spoken languages in the world. Through trade, religion, and cultural interchange, it has also impacted a large number of other languages.

Afro-Asiatic languages, like those of other language families, are an essential component of the globe's linguistic variety, but

they do not together make up a singular "language of the world." No particular language family or language is considered to be "the language of the world" in this sense. Instead, it emphasizes the value of multilingualism and the coexistence of different language families, each of which enriches the global web of cultural and communicative exchange (Gebremeskel & Ibrahim, 2014). Some well-known Sino-Tibetan languages include Arabic, Amharic, Hebrew, Hausa, Somali, and Berber languages.

8.4 Niger-Congo

Languages spoken across a huge geographic area in Africa make up the many and diverse Niger-Congo language family ("Niger-Congo Language," 2020). It is thought to have descended from the Proto-Niger-Congo ancestor language. A significant linguistic family, Niger-Congo is not a language in and of itself. In terms of the number of languages and speakers, it is one of the largest language families in the world. The majority of Niger-Congo languages are spoken in Sub-Saharan Africa, which makes up a sizable section of the continent (Van Putten, 2020). The family is further broken down into a number of branches and subgroups. Moreover, millions of people in Sub-Saharan Africa speak Niger-Congo languages, making them one of the most prominent language families on the continent. Particularly in East Africa, where it is widely spoken as a second language, Swahili has become a lingua franca. Niger-Congo languages are a vital component of the world's linguistic variety, similar to other language families described before, but they do not make up a singular "language of the world." No single language is spoken by the entire world's population or used as a standard form of communication (Good, 2017; Segerer, 2022).

8.5 Austronesian

One of the biggest and most widespread language families in the world, Austronesian includes languages that are spoken by millions of people throughout a significant geographic area (Jan & Lomeli, 2022). It is actually a collection of languages that belong to the same linguistic family and have a common ancestor rather than being a single language. Primarily, Southeast Asia, the Pacific Islands, and some regions of Madagascar are home to speakers of Austronesian languages. "Austronesia" refers to the geographical area where Austronesian languages are spoken. This huge region comprises a number of Pacific island states as well as nations like Indonesia, the Philippines, Malaysia, Brunei, East Timor, Madagascar, and Madagascar.

The Proto-Austronesian language family is thought to be the common ancestor of all Austronesian languages. Around 5,000 to 6,000 years ago, this language is considered to have started expanding south and east from Taiwan. Austronesian-speaking populations arrived on the numerous island groupings around the Pacific and Indian Oceans as a result of this migration (Schapper, 2021). The number of distinct languages and dialects within the Austronesian language family is in the thousands. While some languages only have a few hundred speakers, others, like Indonesian and Tagalog, have millions of speakers. The great variety of cultures and places where Austronesian languages are spoken are reflected in this linguistic diversity. Moreover, the cultures and identities of the speakers of Austronesian languages have been significantly shaped by these languages (Vander Klok, 2023). They carry important information about historical accounts, indigenous wisdom, and traditional ways of doing things. Furthermore, these languages frequently show ties between culture, kinship structures, and the environment.

A system of affixation (prefixes and suffixes), common grammatical structures, and a tendency for subject-verb-object (SVO) word order are among the shared linguistic characteristics of Austronesian languages. But there is a lot of diversity among the Austronesian languages, and each one has its own distinctive features. One of the most important migrational occurrences in human history was the Austronesian expansion. In the Pacific Islands and Southeast Asia, it featured the migration of Austronesian-speaking peoples over great distances, which led to the settlement of many places and the development of numerous cultures (Dunn & Nijhof, 2022). Some well-known Austronesian languages are Indonesian, Malay, Tagalog (Filipino), Javanese, Hawaiian, Maori, and Malagasy.

8.6 Dravidian

Another important language family in the globe is the Dravidian family, which is primarily spoken in southern India and parts of Sri Lanka. One of India's largest language families, it is renowned for its linguistic diversity and historical significance (Roy et al., 2022). Tamil Nadu, Karnataka, Kerala, Andhra Pradesh, and Telangana are only a few of the southern states in India where the Dravidian languages are most widely spoken. With over 70 million speakers, Tamil is the Dravidian language with the largest speaking population. The Dravidian languages Telugu, Kannada, Malayalam, and Tulu are also significant. Furthermore, Sinhala, a Dravidian language, is spoken in Sri Lanka.

The Proto-Dravidian language family is thought to be the common ancestor of the Dravidian languages. Among linguists, there is ongoing discussion and research over the language's precise history and development period (Sangeetha & Jothilakshmi, 2017). In addition, the linguistic variety of the Dravidian language family distinguishes it. Each Dravidian language has an own phonological structure, script, and lexicon. Even if the languages share certain similarities, they also differ significantly, giving each one its own unique identity.

Literature from the Dravidian language family dates back thousands of years, and it has a long and rich history. Tamil in particular, one of the oldest classical languages still in use today, has a rich literary history. The literature, arts, and cultures of South Asia have all been profoundly influenced by Dravidian languages. In the southern Indian states, they have made a substantial contribution to the growth of poetry, music, dance, and religious traditions (Chakravarthi, Priyadharshini, Muralidaran, et al., 2022). Dravidian languages also employ a variety of writing systems. Telugu, Kannada, and Malayalam utilize Brahmi-based scripts with changes to meet their phonological requirements. Tamil has its own script (the Tamil script).

Tens of millions of people around the world speak Dravidian languages, which are used in a variety of contexts like literature, journalism, governance, and education. There have been initiatives to encourage the usage and maintenance of Dravidian languages in recent years. There are worries concerning the preservation of minor Dravidian languages with fewer speakers, even if other Dravidian languages have many speakers and are frequently utilized (Chakravarthi, Priyadharshini, Subalalitha, et al., 2022). To safeguard the survival and continuance of these languages, initiatives are being taken to revive and encourage their usage. Thus, the Dravidian language family plays an important role in India's linguistic landscape and adds to the region's rich cultural fabric. Like all languages, Dravidian languages must be preserved and promoted in order to sustain linguistic diversity and protect the cultural heritage they represent.

8.6 Altaic

It has been argued that various language groups spoken in a large area of Asia belong to the proposed but contentious language family known as the Altaic (Chakravarthi, Priyadharshini, Muralidaran, et al., 2022). Linguists disagree over whether the Altaic language family really exists, and they disagree

even more on how to classify them. It is important to note that the Altaic hypothesis is controversial, and the term "Altaic" is just used here to designate the suggested grouping for convenience.

The primary linguistic families that are commonly taken into account when putting out the Altaic proposal are:

- a. Turkic languages are spoken throughout Turkey, Central Asia, the Middle East, and some portions of Eastern Europe. Turkish, Azerbaijani, Kazakh, Uzbek, and Kyrgyz are a few examples.
- b. Mongolic languages are primarily spoken in Mongolia, as well as in some regions of China and Russia. Mongolian, Buryat, and Kalmyk are a few examples.
- c. Northeast Asia and sections of Siberia both have Tungusic languages. Manchu, Even, and Evenki are a few examples.
- d. South and North Korea are the main speaking regions of Korean.

The Altaic theory contends that these language groups are related linguistically by shared vocabulary, grammar structures, and phonetic characteristics, which points to a shared linguistic ancestry (Abzhaparova & Shirobokova, 2020; Kim & MacNeill, 2020). Although many linguists believe the similarities between these linguistic groups to be the result of contact and borrowing rather than a shared genetic link, the evidence for the Altaic theory is not generally accepted.

8.6 Austroasiatic

One of the largest language families in Asia is the Austroasiatic family, which is spoken by different ethnic groups in a number of South and Southeast Asian nations ("Austroasiatic Language," 2020). It is a significant language community recognized for its diversity and historical importance. South Asia and Southeast Asia are the main speaking regions for austroasiatic languages. They can be found in places like Bangladesh, sections of India, Laos, Thailand, Myanmar, and the Nicobar Islands in the Indian Ocean.

The Proto-Austroasiatic language family is thought to be the common ancestor of the Austroasiatic languages. Linguists continue to study and do research on the precise date and location of the proto-language's origin. The linguistic variety of the Austroasiatic language family distinguishes it. It consists of various language branches, each with distinctive characteristics. These are a few of the well-known branches:

- a. Mon-Khmer: This group of languages includes Khmer (Cambodian), Vietnamese, and Mon.
- b. Munda: This group of languages, which is largely spoken in eastern India, includes Santali and Mundari.

In Southeast Asia, countries like Cambodia and Vietnam, where they are among the dominant tongues of the respective countries, are particularly crucial for the Austroasiatic languages. Various scripts are used to write the various Austroasiatic languages (Sidwell, 2021). Vietnamese utilizes a Latin-based script, whereas Khmer uses its own. Due to historical connections and cultural interchange, Austroasiatic languages have been influenced by nearby language groups like Sino-Tibetan and Tai-Kadai. Moreover, there are worries regarding the preservation of smaller languages with fewer speakers, even if certain Austroasiatic languages have many speakers and are widely utilized (Kruspe & Majid, 2022). Due to causes including linguistic shift and cultural assimilation, several Austroasiatic languages are regarded as fragile or endangered.

8.7 Uralic

One of the largest linguistic groups in northern Eurasia, the Uralic language family is mostly spoken in parts of northeastern Europe and northwestern Asia (Abondolo, 2022). It is an important language group that is renowned for its rich linguistic diversity and historical significance. Geographically, the Ural Mountains, a natural border between Europe and Asia, are where most Uralic languages are spoken. Finland, Estonia, Hungary, some portions of Russia, and some indigenous groups in northern

Scandinavia and the Baltic nations are the main locations where Uralic languages are spoken.

It is thought that Proto-Uralic, a common ancestor language, gave rise to the uralic languages. Linguists continue to study and do research on the precise date and location of the proto-language's origin. The Finno-Ugric languages are particularly important in Northern Europe because they are among the national languages of nations like Finland, Estonia, and Hungary. Different Uralic languages employ different writing systems. For instance, whereas Hungarian employs a modified Latin alphabet, Finnish and Estonian utilize scripts based on the Latin language. Sami languages have unique writing systems that they have adapted from Latin or Cyrillic scripts. Due to historical connections and cultural interchange, nearby language groups like Indo-European have affected Uralic languages (Arkhangelskiy, 2019). There are worries regarding the preservation of smaller languages with fewer speakers, even if some Uralic languages have many speakers and are widely utilized. Due to elements like linguistic shift and cultural absorption, certain Uralic languages, particularly several Samoyedic languages, are regarded as fragile or endangered (Fejes, 2022).

8.8 Tai-Kadai

A prominent language family that is largely spoken in Southeast Asia and parts of southern China is the Tai-Kadai family (Diller et al., 2008). It is a significant language group that has historically influenced the area and is renowned for its diversity. The majority of Tai-Kadai speakers live in Southeast Asia, mainly in Thailand, Laos, Myanmar (Burma), Vietnam, and some regions of southern China. Languages spoken by the Tai ethnic group, including Thai and Lao, are referred to as "Tai" languages. The name "Kadai" refers to the Kadai subgroup, which includes languages spoken primarily in southern China like Zhuang and Kam-Sui.

Proto-Tai-Kadai is thought to be the common ancestor language of the Tai-Kadai languages. Linguists continue to study and do research on the precise date and location of the proto-language's origin (Burusphat, 2002). The Tai-Kadai languages are particularly important in Southeast Asian nations like Thailand and Laos, where Thai and Lao are among the national languages. Due to historical connections and cultural interchange, Tai-Kadai languages have been influenced by nearby language families, such as Sino-Tibetan. There are numerous writing systems used for the various Tai-Kadai languages (Buragohain, 2019). For instance, whereas Zhuang employs the Latin script and the conventional Zhuang alphabet, Thai and Lao use scripts derived from the historic Indian Brahmi script. There are also worries regarding the preservation of smaller languages with fewer speakers, even if certain Tai-Kadai languages have many speakers and are widely utilized (Szeto & Yurayong, 2022). The Kadai subgroup has some languages that are fragile or endangered, particularly the Kam-Sui languages.

8.9 Semitic

One of the oldest and most historically significant language families in the world is the Semitic family. It covers a collection of related tongues that are primarily spoken in the Horn of Africa, North Africa, and the Middle East. The cultures, religions, and history of the areas where Semitic languages are spoken have been greatly influenced by these languages (Rubin, 2008). Most speakers of Semitic languages are found in the Horn of Africa, North Africa, and the Middle East. Israel, Palestine, Jordan, Lebanon, Syria, Iraq, Saudi Arabia, Yemen, Oman, United Arab Emirates, Qatar, Bahrain, Kuwait, Egypt, Sudan, Eritrea, and Ethiopia are a few of the nations where Semitic languages are spoken (Block, 1999). It is thought that Proto-Semitic, a common ancestor language, gave rise to the Semitic languages. Linguists study and do research on the precise date and location of the proto-language's origin.

Due to their connections to prominent prehistoric civilizations like the Akkadian civilization and the prehistoric cultures of Mesopotamia and the Levant, Semitic languages have been historically significant. They are also the languages of some of the main world religions, such as Islam, Christianity, and Judaism. Historically, different Semitic languages have utilized a variety of writing systems (Asli-Badarneh & Leikin, 2019). For instance, Arabic currently employs the Arabic alphabet, although Hebrew and Aramaic have historically utilized the Hebrew script. Ge'ez employs its own script, called the Ge'ez script. Due to historical connections and cultural interchange, nearby language groups like Afro-Asiatic have also influenced Semitic languages. One of the most extensively used languages in the world, Arabic also serves as the official tongue in a number of nations. Additionally, it is one of the six official languages of the UN.

8.10 Slavic

One of the largest language families in the world, Slavic is largely spoken in Eastern Europe and parts of Central Europe. It is an important language group that is renowned for its rich linguistic diversity and historical significance (Dobrushina & Sokur, 2022). The majority of countries in Eastern Europe, the Balkans, and regions of Central Europe are home to speakers of Slavic languages. Russia, Ukraine, Belarus, Poland, the Czech Republic, Slovakia, Slovenia, Croatia, Serbia, Bulgaria, and other Slavic-speaking nations.

The Proto-Slavic language family is thought to be the common ancestor of the Slavic languages. Linguists continue to study and do research on the precise date and location of the proto-language's origin. Moreover, Slavic languages have historically employed a variety of writing systems (Verschik, 2021). Polish, Czech, Slovak, and Sorbian, for instance, traditionally use the Latin script, whereas Russian, Ukrainian, and Belarusian traditionally use the Cyrillic script. Depending on regional preferences, the Latin and Cyrillic scripts are used for Serbian, Croatian, Bosnian, and Slovenian.

Due to historical connections and cultural interchange, languages from nearby language families, like Germanic, have influenced Slavic languages. One of the most commonly spoken languages in the world (Haider & Szucsich, 2022), Russian is also used as a common language in several regions of the former Soviet Union. Slovak, Czech, and Polish are other significant languages in the EU.

8.11 Kartvelian

A small language family, the Kartvelian family, also known as the South Caucasian family, is spoken predominantly in the South Caucasus region of Eurasia. It is a notable language group that is renowned for its distinctiveness and local historical significance (Gersamia, 2022). The South Caucasus, which encompasses Georgia, some of northeastern Turkey, northern Armenia, and the autonomous region of Adjara in southwestern Ukraine, is the main speaking region for the Kartvelian languages. The Kartvelian languages are distinguished by their unique grammatical features, especially Georgian's extensive system of noun declensions and verb conjugations. Additionally, these languages have distinctive phonological traits. Interactions between the Kartvelian languages and nearby tongues like Indo-European and Turkic languages resulted in various lexical and cultural borrowings (Jorbenadze, 1991).

Despite the fact that Georgian is a widely spoken and flourishing language, several of the smaller Kartvelian languages, such as Laz and Svan, have issues related to language endangerment and have drawn interest for revitalization efforts (Shegelia & Janjgava, 2022). The territories that speak the Kartvelian language have a long and illustrious literary history. In example, Georgian literature, which dates back to the fifth century AD, has a lengthy history and has contributed significantly to the development of Georgian identity and culture.

8.12 Caucasian

A specific language family is not mentioned when the term "Caucasian" is used. Instead, it has historically been used to refer to a collection of disparate languages spoken in the Caucasus region of Eurasia using an outmoded and contentious word (Dobrushina, 2017). It is important to highlight that the term "Caucasian" is deemed linguistically incorrect and is no longer recognized in contemporary linguistic categories when used in this context.

The languages of the Caucasus are divided into a number of different language families in modern linguistic studies, each having its own distinctive characteristics and historical importance (Nasledskova, 2021). Amazing linguistic diversity may be seen in the Caucasus region, where a variety of languages from many language families coexist in a restricted geographic space. Linguists have done a great deal of research on the region's rich cultural legacy, which includes the complex and varied linguistic landscape of the Caucasus (Arkadiev & Lander, 2021; Gozalova et al., 2022).

8.13 Papuan

A group of languages collectively referred to as "Papuan" include those that are spoken in the western Pacific, mainly in Papua New Guinea, West Papua (a portion of Indonesia), and several nearby islands (Olsson, 2022). These languages are referred to as "Papuan" to set them apart from the more prevalent Austronesian languages in the same area. The larger Papuan language family, which includes the Papuan languages, is one of the largest in the world in terms of the number of languages and linguistic diversity it contains.

Papuan languages are mostly spoken in Papua New Guinea and the eastern region of Indonesia, which includes the provinces of Papua and West Papua (formerly known as Irian Jaya). There are also a few Papuan languages spoken on neighbouring islands like Vanuatu and the Solomon Islands. The tremendous linguistic

diversity of the Papuan language family distinguishes it. Although the precise number is still being determined through continuing study and documentation efforts, it is thought to encompass several hundred different languages (Iskandarsyah Siregar, 2022). Some of these languages have incredibly few speakers and can be mutually incomprehensible.

Many of the various Papuan languages are not strongly connected to one another or to other significant language groups in the area, like Austronesian or Australian Aboriginal languages. The classification of the Papuan language family is difficult due to this linguistic variety. In addition, some Papuan languages appear to be language isolates, which means they lack any obvious relatives or linguistic connections. The Ainu language, which is spoken in some areas of Papua New Guinea, is an illustration of a Papuan language isolate. Many of the Papuan languages in this family still lack adequate documentation, and linguistic research into these languages is still under progress (Siegel, 2015). To learn more about these languages' linguistic linkages and structures, linguists and anthropologists are still working to find and record them.

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BAB 9

SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

By Buhari

9.1 Introduction

Multilingualism refers to the ability to use two or more languages. Some linguists and psychologists use bilingualism for the ability to use two languages and multilingualism for more than two. Monolingualism refers to the ability to use only one. No one can say for sure how many people are multilingual, but a reasonable estimate is that at least half of the world's population is in this category. Multilingualism is thus by no means a rare phenomenon, but a normal and common occurrence in most parts of the world. According to François Grosjean, this has been the case as far back as we have any record of language use:

Bilingualism is present in practically every country of the world, in all classes of society, and in all age groups. In fact, it is difficult to find a society that is genuinely monolingual. Not only is bilingualism world- wide, it is a phenomenon that has existed since the beginning of language in human history. It is probably true that no language group has ever existed in isolation from other language groups, and the history of languages is replete with examples of language contact leading to some form of bilingualism.

Richard Tucker concludes that there are many more bilingual or multilingual individuals in the world than there are monolingual. In addition, there are many more children throughout the world who have been and continue to be educated through a second or a later-acquired language, at least for some

portion of their formal education, than there are children educated exclusively via the first language. Given the size and widespread distribution of multilingual populations, it is somewhat surprising that an overwhelming proportion of the scientific attention which has been paid to language acquisition relates only to monolingual conditions and to first language acquisition.

While there are interesting similarities between L1 and L2 acquisition, the processes cannot be equated, nor can multilingualism be assumed to involve simply the same knowledge and skills as monolingualism except in more than one language. This point is made most cogently by Vivian Cook, who introduced the concept of multilingual competence (his term is “multi-competence”) to refer to “the compound state of a mind with two [or more] grammars” (1991:112). This is distinguished from monolingual competence (or “monocompetence” in Cook’s terminology), which refers to knowledge of only one language. L2 users differ from monolinguals in L1 knowledge; advanced L2 users differ from monolinguals in L2 knowledge; L2 users have a different meta-linguistic awareness from monolinguals; L2 users have different cognitive processes. These subtle differences consistently suggest that people with multicompetence are not simply equivalent to two monolinguals but are a unique combination. (Cook 1992:557).

One message from world demographics is that SLA phenomena are immensely important for social and practical reasons, as well as for academic ones. Approximately 6,000 languages are spoken in the world, with widely varying distribution, and almost all of them have been learned as second languages by some portion of their speakers. By the year 2000, the four most commonly used languages were Chinese, English, Spanish, and Hindi, which were acquired by over 2 billion as L1s and almost 1.7 billion as L2s, as shown in Table 2.1 (based on Zhu 2001 and Crystal 1997b).

Even just among these four numerically dominant languages, there is great variance. Chinese is an L1 for many more people than any other language, and English is by far the most common L2. The British Council has estimated that more than 1 billion people are studying English as an L2 (Cook 2002:3), and the number may be closer to 1.75 billion if we include all varieties and functions of the language (McArthur 2001). In China alone this figure includes over 150 million English L2 learners, and millions more are being added as English instruction is further implemented at the primary level. There are now perhaps 15 million speakers of Chinese L2, but the increasing involvement and influence of China in international economic and political spheres is being accompanied by an increase in the election or need for people elsewhere to learn Mandarin Chinese, the official national language (different varieties, such as Cantonese and Taiwanese, are as different as German and Swedish). An indicator of this trend in the USA is that by 1998, the Modern Language Association reported that Chinese had become the sixth most commonly taught foreign language in US colleges and universities, and numbers are steadily growing. School districts around the country are also increasingly adding Chinese language courses to elementary and secondary curricula.

While multilingualism occurs in every country, for a variety of social reasons the distribution of multiple language use is quite unequal. In some countries, e.g. Iceland, very few people speak other than the national language on a regular basis, while in other countries, such as parts of west Africa, close to 100 percent of the speakers of the national language also speak another language. English L1 speakers often expect to be able to “get along” in English anywhere in the world they may travel for tourism, business, or diplomatic purposes, and may be less likely to become fluent in other languages in part for this reason. Those who grow up in a multilingual environment acquire multilingual competence in the natural course of using two or more languages from childhood with the people around them, and tend to regard it as perfectly normal to do so. Adding second languages at an older age often takes considerable effort, however, and thus

requires motivation. This motivation may arise from a variety of conditions, including the following:

- a. A need or desire to contact speakers of other languages in economic or other specific domains
- b. Immigration to a country where use of a language other than one's L1 is required
- c. Adoption of religious beliefs and practices which involve use of another language
- d. A need or desire to pursue educational experiences where access requires proficiency in another language
- e. A desire for occupational or social advancement which is furthered by knowledge of another language
- f. An interest in knowing more about peoples of other cultures and having access to their technologies or literatures. (Crystal 1997b).

The numbers of L1 and L2 speakers of different languages can only be estimated. Reasons for uncertainty in reporting language data include some which have social and political significance, and some which merely reflect imprecise or ambiguous terminology.

9.1.1 Linguistic Information is Often Not Officially Collected

In cases where responses concerning language would essentially identify minority group members, sensitivities can be either personal or political: personal sensitivities can arise if identification might lead to undesired individual, family, and community consequences; political sensitivities can be at issue if the government does not wish to recognize how many speakers of minority languages there are in order to downplay the political importance of a group, or in order to emphasize cultural/ linguistic homogeneity and cohesion by not according recognition to cultural/ linguistic diversity.

9.1.2 Answers to Questions Seeking Linguistic Information May Not Be Reliable

Respondents may not want to be identified as speakers of a minority language. For instance, this was the case for a survey which was conducted several years ago for a rural school district in California. The survey was of parents with preschool children, asking them about the language (s) used at home in order to anticipate future English L2 instructional program needs. Many Hispanic parents insisted that they spoke primarily English at home even when they could only understand and respond to the interviewers when questions were asked in Spanish. Their linguistic “misrepresentation” was likely motivated by fear that lack of English would trigger further questions about their US citizenship (a reasonable concern on their part, although not the school’s intent). In other cases, respondents may say that they use the dominant language more than they actually do because they reject or are ashamed of their ethnic heritage and wish to assimilate, or because they are afraid of government oppression or social stigmatization. Others may similarly over-report dominant language use because they feel this is the appropriate answer to give official representatives, or in order to qualify for civil privileges, such as being allowed to vote.

On the other hand, respondents may over-report use of minority and ancestral languages because of pride in their heritage. There may also be over-reporting of minority language use in order to obtain more recognition, resources, or services for the groups with which they identify. How questions are worded also commonly contributes to the unreliability and non-comparability of language data. For example, the following questions might all be intended to elicit the identity of speakers L1, but the same speakers might respond differentially depending on which question is asked:

1. What is your native language?
2. What is your mother tongue?
3. What language did you learn first as a child?
4. What language was usually spoken in your home when you were a child?
5. What language are you most likely to use with family and friends?
6. What is your strongest language?

9.1.3 There is Lack of Agreement On Definition of Terms Andon Criteria for Identification

It may be difficult for someone to answer the common census question, “What is your native language?” for example, if they acquired multilingual competence simultaneously in two languages. In this case, both are L1s, and either or both might be considered a “native language.” Such a question is also problematic for individuals whose language dominance (or relative fluency) has shifted from their L1 to a language learned later. Another issue is the degree of multilingualism. What level of proficiency is needed before one claim to have multilingual competence, or to “know” a second language? Does reading knowledge alone count, or must one also be able to carry on a conversation? What about languages that have been learned only in relation to limited domains or for special purposes? Do claims of multilingualism require near-balance in ability to function in multiple languages, or does multilingual competence include even early stages of L2 learning (the view in much SLA research)?

Perhaps the most basic definitional basis for unreliability in statistics lies in the meaning of “language” itself, for what counts as a separate language involves social and political (as well as linguistic) criteria. For instance, religious differences and the use of different writing systems result in Hindi and Urdu being counted as distinct languages

in India, although most varieties are mutually intelligible; on the other hand, mutually unintelligible “dialects” of Chinese (such as Mandarin and Cantonese) are counted as the same language when emphasis on national cohesion is desired.

Similar examples arise when languages are reclassified, a process which may accompany political change. For instance, the demise of Yugoslavia as a political entity led to the official distinction as separate languages of Bosnian and Montenegrin, which had been categorized within former Serbo-Croatian (itself a single language divided into national varieties distinguished by different alphabets because of religious differences). Social status or prestige may also play a role, as in whether Haitian Creole is to be considered a separate language or a variety of French. The creole originated as a contact language between slaves who spoke African languages and French-speaking slave traders and colonists, evolving its own systematic grammar while incorporating vocabulary from French. Linguists classify the creole as a separate language because its grammar and usage are quite distinct from French.

In contrast, some people disparage the creole as not a “real” language, but merely an inferior variety of French. Recognition of this and other creoles as full-fledged languages goes beyond linguistic consideration because such recognition strengthens the social identity and status of the people who speak them. There are also potentially important educational implications. For instance, when teachers recognize that native speakers of Haitian Creole are really learning a second language in acquiring French, they are likely to use different instructional methods. Thus, teachers no longer view their task as “correcting” or “cleaning up” their students’ “bad French,” and are more likely to feel that the second language can simply be added to the first rather than having to replace it. Regrettably, there is a common attitude among educators, sometimes pursued with almost religious fervor, that socially “inferior” or “uneducated”

varieties of a language are a moral threat and should be completely eradicated.

9.2 The Nature of Language Learning

Much of your own L1 acquisition was completed before you ever came to school, and this development normally takes place without any conscious effort. By the age of six months an infant has produced all of the vowel sounds and most of the consonant sounds of any language in the world, including some that do not occur in the language(s) their parents speak. If children hear English spoken around them, they will learn to discriminate among those sounds that make a difference in the meaning of English words (the phonemes), and they will learn to disregard those that do not. If the children hear Spanish spoken around them, they will learn to discriminate among some sounds the English speaker learns to ignore, as between the flapped r in *pero* 'but' and the trilled rr in *perro* 'dog,' and to disregard some differences that are not distinctive in Spanish, but vital to English word meaning, as the sh and ch of *share* and *chair*.

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

The same natural and generally effortless learning processes take place when there is significant exposure to more than one language in early childhood. If young children hear and respond to two (or more) languages in their environment, the result will be simultaneous multilingualism (multiple L1s acquired by about three years of age). As noted in the first chapter, simultaneous multilingualism is not within the usual scope of study in SLA, which focuses on sequential multilingualism (L2s acquired after L1). Our understanding of (and speculation about) how children

accomplish the early mastery of L1(s) has changed radically in the past fifty years or so, primarily owing to developments in linguistics and psychology. It was once suggested that first language acquisition is in large part the result of children's natural desire to please their doting parents, who wait impatiently for them to utter a recognizable word. Yet the offspring of even relatively indifferent parents successfully acquire language at about the same rate. Others argued that children's language acquisition is purposive, that they develop language because of their urge to communicate their wants and needs to the people who take care of them. This has not proven to be an adequate explanation, however, since within young children's limited sphere of activity, communicative needs seem to be largely satisfied by gesture and such non-speech sounds as squeals, whines, grunts, and cries.

Perhaps the most widely held view by the middle of the twentieth century was that children learn language by imitation (the stimulus-response theory). While it is true that much of children's initial language learning can be attributed to their imitation of sounds and words around them, many of their utterances are quite original and cannot be explained as imitations at all, since they can never have heard them before.

9.2.1 The Role of Natural Ability

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

- a. Children begin to learn their L1 at the same age, and in much the same way, whether it is English, Bengali, Korean, Swahili, or any other language in the world.
- b. Children master the basic phonological and grammatical operations in their L1 by the age of about five or six, as noted above, regardless of what the language is.

- c. Children can understand and create novel utterances; they are not limited to repeating what they have heard, and indeed the utterances that children produce are often systematically different from those of the adults around them.

There is a cut-off age for L1 acquisition, beyond which it can never be complete.

9.2.2 Acquisition of L1 Is Not Simply a Facet of General Intelligence.

In viewing the natural ability to acquire language in terms of innate capacity, we are saying that part of language structure is genetically “given” to every human child. All languages are incredibly complex systems which no children could possibly master in their early years to the degree they succeed in doing so if they had to “learn” them in the usual sense of that word. Children’s ability to create new utterances is remarkable, and their ability to recognize when a string of common words does not constitute a grammatical sentence in the language is even more so. For example, children acquiring English L1 can recognize early on that *Cookies me give* is ungrammatical. They have never been told, surely, that the particular group of words is not an English sentence, but they somehow know, nevertheless. If a child had to consciously learn the set of abstract principles that indicate which sequences of words are possible sentences in their language as opposed to those that are not, only the smartest would learn to talk, and it would take them many more years than it actually does. This is part of “the logical problem of language acquisition,” which is discussed further below.

A hypothesis which many linguists and psychologists support is that a great many of these abstract principles are common to all language, as opposed to the principles that are language-specific (i.e. specific to particular languages). According to this view, those principles that are universal are

“programmed” into all human children just by virtue of their being human, and this accounts for children’s ability to process the smorgasbord of sounds and words that they hear, and their ability to come up with essentially the same structures as other children.

To explain why all L1 development follows essentially the same sequence, we may view children’s language development as a gradual process of acquiring a more and more complex set of structures and rules for combining them. Because the stages and levels of language development can be delineated and studied, it is possible to talk about child grammar: that is, it is possible to systematically describe the kinds of utterances a child can produce or understand at a given maturational level. The differences between their grammar and that used by adults are not viewed as failures on the part of the children, but are considered the normal output of children at that level of development. As children mature, so do their language abilities. Since certain grammatical processes are more complex than others, they require a higher maturational level than simpler ones. As Jean Piaget observed several decades ago (e.g. 1926), in order to master complexities in their L1 which are beyond their present linguistic grasp, what normal children need is additional time, not additional stimuli.

The rate of progression through stages of language development can vary radically among individual children, even as the order of development is relatively invariant both for different children and for different languages. This is because the rate may be influenced by individual factors, while the order is “primarily determined by the relative semantic and grammatical complexity of constructions” (Brown 1973:59). Saying that there is a “cut-off point” for L1 acquisition means that normal development does not occur if the process does not begin in childhood. Even when acquisition starts at an early age, there is evidence that progress in language development usually begins to slow sharply at about the age of puberty no matter what level has

been reached. Severely retarded children, who have a slower rate of development (but in the same relative sequence), are likely never to develop a complete adult grammar for this reason. The effects of age on both L1 and L2 acquisition are discussed in

9.3 Critical Period Hypothesis.

Given the complexity of language, it is no wonder that even adults with their mature intellects seldom attain native fluency in a new language. But almost all children, with their limited memories, restricted reasoning powers, and immature analytical abilities, acquire perfect fluency in any language to which they are adequately exposed, and in which they interact with others. The ability to acquire language could not be dependent upon intellectual powers alone, since children with clearly superior intelligence do not necessarily begin to speak earlier, or with better results, than children of ordinary intellect.

9.3.1. The Role of Social Experience

Not all of L1 acquisition can be attributed to innate ability, for language specific learning also plays a crucial role. Even if the universal properties of language are preprogrammed in children, they must learn all of those features which distinguish their L1 from all other possible human languages. Children will never acquire such language specific knowledge unless that language is used with them and around them, and they will learn to use only the language(s) used around them, no matter what their linguistic heritage. American born children of Korean or Greek ancestry will never learn the language of their grandparents if only English surrounds them, for instance, and they will find their ancestral language just as hard to learn as any other English speakers do if they attempt to learn it as an adult. Appropriate social experience, including L1 input and interaction, is thus a necessary condition for acquisition.

Intentional L1 teaching to young children is not necessary and indeed may have little effect. Some parents “correct” their children’s immature pronunciation and grammar but most do not, and there is no noticeable change in rate of acquisition among children who receive such instruction. Some adults simplify both grammar and word choice, adding more complex structures as the child does, but adults’ notion of “simplicity” does not correspond to the actual sequence in language acquisition. Some adults imitate children’s language production, and in this imitation, they sometimes provide expansions of children’s structures (such as saying yes, that’s a big, brown dog in response to the child saying that dog). The expansion may play a role in developing children’s ability to understand new forms, but it cannot be considered necessary since many children do not receive this type of input and still develop language at essentially the same rate.

Sources of L1 input and interaction vary depending on cultural and social factors. Mothers’ talk is often assumed to be the most important source of early language input to children, but fathers or older siblings have major childrearing responsibilities in many societies and may be the dominant source of input, and wealthier social classes in many cultures delegate most of the childrearing responsibilities to nannies or servants. The relative importance of input from other young children also varies in different cultures, as does the importance of social institutions such as nursery schools.

As long as children are experiencing adequate L1 input interaction from people around them, the rate and sequence of their phonological and grammatical development does not appear to vary systematically according to its source, although children’s pronunciation is naturally influenced by the regional and social varieties or styles of the L1 which they hear. There is considerable variance in vocabulary knowledge depending on social context, however, because vocabulary is typically learned in conjunction with social

experiences. There is also variation to some extent in what functions of speaking children learn to use at an early age depending on social experience. For example, I have found that children who attend nursery school are often more advanced in development of verbal skills that are needed for controlling and manipulating other children than are children who are raised at home without the experience of interacting and competing with peers.

When young children's social experience includes people around them using two or more languages, they have the same innate capacity to learn both or all of them, along with the same ability to learn the language-specific features of each without instruction. Acquiring other languages after early childhood presents some significant differences, which we will explore in the following section.

9.3.2 First Language and Second Language (L1 and L2)

This brief comparison of L1 and L2 learning is divided into three phases. The first is the initial state, which many linguists and psychologists believe includes the underlying knowledge about language structures and principles that is in learners' heads at the very start of L1 or L2 acquisition. The second phase, the intermediate states, covers all stages of basic language development. This includes the maturational changes which take place in what I have called "child grammar," and the L2 developmental sequence which is known as learner language (also interlanguage or IL). For this phase, we will compare processes of L1 and L2 development, and then compare the conditions which are necessary or which facilitate language learning. The third phase is the final state, which is the outcome of L1 and L2 learning.

1. Initial state

While the initial state in children's minds for L1 almost surely is an innate capacity to learn language, it is not at all certain whether or not such natural ability is part of the initial state in older learners for L2 acquisition. Some linguists and psychologists believe that the genetic predisposition which children have from birth to learn language remains with them throughout life, and that differences in the final outcomes of L1 and L2 learning are attributable to other factors. Others believe that some aspects of the innate capacity which children have for L1 remain in force for acquisition of subsequent languages, but that some aspects of this natural ability are lost with advancing age. Still others believe that no innate capacity for language acquisition remains beyond childhood, and that subsequent languages are learned by means which are more akin to how older learners acquire other domains of knowledge, such as mathematics or history.

Because it is impossible for us to observe mental capacity for language learning directly, the different beliefs are based largely on theoretical assumptions and are tested by indirect methods which individuals who come from different disciplinary perspectives may not agree on. For example, many linguists rely on learners' ability to judge which L2 utterances are not possible (such as the Cookies me give example mentioned above), an aspect of children's L1 competence which is attributed to innate capacity. Many who take a social perspective tend to reject such judgments of ungrammaticality as convincing evidence because they result from artificial tasks which do not include actual circumstances of L2 interpretation and use. Many who take a psychological perspective in turn reject socially constituted evidence (such as natural language production) because the many

variables which go along with actual social usage cannot be controlled for experimental investigation. So, although the question of the extent to which innate capacity for language acquisition remains available in SLA is a very interesting and important one, it is likely to remain unresolved for some years to come.

There is complete agreement, however, that since L2 acquisition follows L1 acquisition, a major component of the initial state for L2 learning must be prior knowledge of L1. This entails knowledge of how language (in general) works, as well as a myriad of language specific features which are only partially relevant for production of the new L2. This prior knowledge of L1 is responsible for the transfer from L1 to L2 during second language development, which we will consider as part of the second phase of L1 versus L2 learning.

L2 learners also already possess real-world knowledge in their initial state for language acquisition which young children lack at the point they begin learning their L1. This has come with cognitive development and with experience by virtue of being older. The initial state for L2 learning also includes knowledge of means for accomplishing such interactional functions as requesting, commanding, promising, and apologizing, which have developed in conjunction with L1 acquisition but are not present in the L1 initial state.

The initial state of L1 learning thus is composed solely of an innate capacity for language acquisition which may or may not continue to be available for L2, or may be available only in some limited ways. The initial state for L2 learning, on the other hand, has resources of L1 competence, world knowledge, and established skills for interaction, which can be both an asset and an impediment.

2. Intermediate states

Both L1 and L2 learners go through intermediate states as they progress from their initial to their final state linguistic systems. There is similarity in that the development of both L1 and L2 is largely systematic, including predictable sequencing of many phenomena within each and some similarity of sequencing across languages, and in the fact that L1 and L2 learners both play a creative role in their own language development and do not merely mimic what they have heard or been taught.

3. Processes

Development, as we have seen, is a spontaneous and largely unconscious process in L1 child grammar, where it is closely correlated with cognitive maturation. As noted above, as children mature, so do their language abilities. In contrast, the development of learner language (or interlanguage) for L2 learners occurs at an age when cognitive maturity cannot be considered a significant factor; L2 learners have already reached a level of maturity where they can understand and produce complex utterances in their L1, and level of maturity is not language specific. Processes other than maturation must be involved to explain development in SLA.

Just as we cannot directly observe mental capacity, we cannot directly observe developmental processes, but we can infer from the utterances which learners understand and produce at different stages what processes are possibly taking place. This addresses the fundamental how question of SLA, which we will explore from different perspectives in the chapters which follow. While answers to this question vary, there is general agreement that cross-linguistic influence, or transfer of prior knowledge from L1 to L2, is one of the

processes that is involved in interlanguage development. Two major types of transfer which occur are:

- positive transfer, when an L1 structure or rule is used in an L2 utterance and that use is appropriate or “correct” in the L2; and
- negative transfer (or interference), when an L1 structure or rule is used in an L2 utterance and that use is inappropriate and considered an “error.”

Cross linguistic influence occurs in all levels of IL: vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar, and all other aspects of language structure and use. Positive transfer facilitates L2 learning because an L1 structure or rule that also works for L2 means that a new one doesn't have to be learned. For example, a word that has essentially the same form and meaning in both languages can transfer appropriately from L1 to L2: e.g. exterior 'out-side' is a word in both Spanish and English (pronounced differently, but with the same spelling and meaning). Negative transfer of L1 features can often be inferred from forms in the second language which are unlike any that are likely to be produced by a native speaker of the L2, or are an integration of elements which would not occur in monolingual speech. Inappropriate transfer of L1 pronunciation to L2 is detectable as a “foreign accent” in a nonnative speaker's production, and is probably the most common and most easily recognized aspect of L1 influence. Interference at the grammatical level is illustrated in the following utterances made by learners of English L2, which a native English speaker would be unlikely to produce:

Can I assist to your class?

I have been always to class on time.

We have noted that, in addition to L1 competence, older children and adults have access to world knowledge that has come with cognitive development and with experience, and this is also available for L2 use during the intermediate states. The concepts associated with advanced world knowledge are often much too complex for adequate expression with limited L2 ability, but they may be at least partially conveyed in context, and they are likely to stimulate L2 vocabulary learning. For example, older children in immigrant families may enroll in US schools with prior knowledge of academic subject areas (such as science and mathematics) which are at least equal to or more advanced than US curriculum expectations, but they may lack the English L2 competence to express what they know. These students do not need to learn those concepts again, since the concepts themselves are not dependent on any specific language; they merely require new language specific forms to represent them in L2. Even advanced international students in such fields as engineering and computer science find it much easier to learn English L2 terms for concepts they have already acquired than native English speakers do for acquiring those terms and concepts to begin with.

Adults in immigrant families to the USA often know how to drive a car, and they are likely to have vocational knowledge and skills which transfer to the new social setting. Some English must be learned before they can pass a test for a driver's license in the USA along with a few new rules and regulations, but they don't need to learn how to drive all over again. Similarly, job related English can generally be added with relative ease to prior vocational knowledge and skills. Transfer of knowledge and skills to an L2 setting is clearly made easier when L1 support is available as part of L2 learning, and when key terminology is shared across languages, but conceptual transfer occurs in any case.

Many skills for social interaction which have been developed in L1 also transfer to L2, as I suggested above. These often also involve positive transfer and facilitate IL development, but some are inappropriate for L2 contexts.

4. Necessary conditions

Language input to the learner is absolutely necessary for either L1 or L2 learning to take place. Children additionally require direct, reciprocal interaction with other people for L1 learning to occur. They cannot learn L1 exclusively from such experiences as listening to radio or watching television. In contrast, while face-to-face social interaction generally facilitates SLA, it is not a necessary condition. It is possible for some individuals to reach a fairly high level of proficiency in L2 even if they have input only from such physically or temporally more remote sources as radio, television, or written text. Evidence of such L2 learning is found among highly motivated individuals whose L2 input was limited entirely to electronic media and books because of geographical or political isolation.

9.4 The Role of Input and Interaction in SLA

9.4.1 Facilitating Conditions

While L1 learning by children occurs without instruction, and while the rate of L1 development is not significantly influenced by correction of immature forms or by degree of motivation to speak, both rate and ultimate level of development in L2 can be facilitated or inhibited by many social and individual factors. Identifying and explaining facilitating conditions essentially addresses the fundamental why question of SLA: why are some L2 learners more successful than others? Some of the conditions which will be explored in chapters that follow are:

- a. Feedback, including correction of L2 learners' errors
- b. Aptitude, including memory capacity and analytic ability
- c. Motivation, or need and desire to learn
- d. Instruction, or explicit teaching in school settings

9.4.2 Final state

The final state is the outcome of L1 or L2 learning. The final state of L1 development by definition is native linguistic competence. While vocabulary learning and cultivation of specialized registers (such as formal academic written style) may continue into adulthood, the basic phonological and grammatical systems of whatever language (s) children hear around them are essentially established by the age of about five or six years (as we have already noted), along with vocabulary knowledge and interaction skills that are adequate for fulfilling communicative functions. This is a universal human achievement, requiring no extraordinary aptitude or effort.

On the other hand, the final state of L2 development again by commonly held definition can never be totally native linguistic competence, and the level of proficiency which learners reach is highly variable. Some learners reach at least "near-native" or "native-like" competence in L2 along with native competence in L1, but many cease at some point to make further progress toward the learning target in response to L2 input, resulting in a final state which still includes instances of L1 interference or creative structures different from any that would be produced by a native speaker of the L2 (a "frozen" state of progress known as fossilization in SLA). The complex of factors which contribute to differential levels of ultimate multilingual development is of major interest for both SLA theory and second language teaching methods (see e.g. Davies 2003; Han and Odlin 2006). One question that is receiving increasing attention for SLA theory and research is whether

exceptionally successful learners actually become as proficient in their L2 as in their L1. This possibility is blurring the traditional definition of “native speaker” in interesting ways.

9.5 The Logical Problem of Language Learning

How is it possible for children to achieve the final state of L1 development with general ease and complete success, given the complexity of the linguistic system which they acquire and their immature cognitive capacity at the age they do so? This question forms the logical problem of language learning. The “problem” as it has been formulated by linguists relates most importantly to syntactic phenomena. As noted in the preceding section, most linguists and psychologists assume this achievement must be attributed to innate and spontaneous language-learning constructs and/or processes. The notion that innate linguistic knowledge must underlie language acquisition was prominently espoused by Noam Chomsky (1957, 1965), who subsequently formulated a theory of Universal Grammar which has been very influential in SLA theory and research. This view has been supported by arguments such as the following:

9.5.1 Children’s Knowledge of Language Goes Beyond What Could Be Learned From The Input They Receive

This is essentially the poverty of the stimulus argument. According to this argument, children often hear incomplete or ungrammatical utterances along with grammatical input, and yet they are somehow able to filter the language they hear so that the ungrammatical input is not incorporated into their L1 system. Further, children are commonly recipients of simplified input from adults, which does not include data for all of the complexities which are within their linguistic competence. In addition, children hear only a finite subset of possible grammatical sentences, and yet they are able to abstract general principles and constraints which

allow them to interpret and produce an infinite number of sentences which they have never heard before. Even more remarkable, children's linguistic competence includes knowledge of which sentences are not possible, although input does not provide them with this information: i.e. input "underdetermines" the grammar that develops. Almost all L1 linguistic input to children is positive evidence, or actual utterances by other speakers which the children are able to at least partially comprehend. Unlike many L2 learners, children almost never receive any explicit instruction in L1 during the early years when acquisition takes place, and they seldom receive any negative evidence, or correction (and often fail to recognize it when they do).

9.5.2 Constraints and Principles Cannot Be Learned

Children's access to general constraints and principles which govern language could account for the relatively short time it takes for the L1 grammar to emerge, and for the fact that it does so systematically and without any "wild" divergences. This could be so because innate principles lead children to organize the input they receive only in certain ways and not others. In addition to the lack of negative evidence mentioned above, constraints and principles cannot be learned in part because children acquire a first language at an age when such abstractions are beyond their comprehension; constraints and principles are thus outside the realm of learning processes which are related to general intelligence. Jackendoff (1997) approaches this capacity in children as a "paradox of language acquisition":

If general purpose intelligence were sufficient to extract the principles of mental grammar, linguists (or psychologists or computer scientists), at least some of whom have more than adequate general intelligence, would have discovered the principles long ago. The fact that we are all still searching and arguing, while every normal child manages to extract the principles unaided, suggests that the normal child is using something other than general purpose intelligence.

9.5.3 Universal Patterns of Development Cannot Be Explained By Language Specific Input

Linguistic input always consists of the sounds, words, phrases, sentences, and other surface level units of a specific human language. However, in spite of the surface differences in input (to the point that people who are speaking different languages can't understand one another), there are similar patterns in child acquisition of any language in the world. The extent of this similarity suggests that language universals are not only constructs derived from sophisticated theories and analyses by linguists, but also innate representations in every young child's mind.

If we extend the logical problem from L1 acquisition to SLA, we need to explain how it is possible for individuals to achieve multilingual competence when that also involves knowledge which transcends what could be learned from the input they receive. In other words, L2 learners also develop an underlying system of knowledge about that language which they are not taught, and which they could not infer directly from anything they hear (see White 1996). As we have already seen, however, in several important respects L1 and L2 acquisition are fundamentally different; the arguments put forth for the existence of an innate, language specific faculty in young children do not all apply to L2 learners since they are not uniformly successful, they are typically more cognitively advanced than young children, they may receive and profit from instruction and negative evidence, and they are influenced by many factors which seem irrelevant to acquisition of L1.

It is widely accepted that there is an innate capacity involved in L1 acquisition by young children (although many do not agree with Chomsky's particular formulation of its nature), but there is less certainty about the continued availability of that capacity for acquiring an L2. Still, we do need to explain how multilingual competence transcends input, and why there are such widely differential outcomes of

SLA ranging from L2 performance which may be perceived as native to far more limited L2 proficiency. This will be an important question to keep in mind as we review theories and findings on SLA from different perspectives, since it has provided a topic of inquiry for much of the history of this field.

Most of what we now know about L1 versus L2 learning is based on study of L1 learning by young children and L2 learning by older children or adults. It is therefore sometimes difficult to isolate differential factors and results that can be attributed to age versus multiple language learning. Many of us believe that children who begin to receive multiple language input between birth and about three years of age can acquire more than one language simultaneously by essentially the same processes and with the same results. While this belief is probably true, it ignores the fact that many such children do not reach the same final state in each language. Understanding differential levels of multilingual achievement in young children will require more attention to facilitating conditions for language development, including social and cognitive as well as innate and maturational factors. (See Ellis 2008:628–31 for a discussion of more comprehensive models of SLA which incorporates UG and De Houwer 2009 for findings on the effect of different socializing environments.

9.6 Framework for SLA

Interest in second language learning and use dates back many centuries (see e.g. McCarthy 2001), but it is only since the 1960s that scholars have formulated systematic theories and models to address the basic questions in the field of SLA which are : (1) What exactly does the L2 learner know? (2) How does the learner acquire this knowledge? (3) Why are some learners more successful than others? As I noted earlier, different approaches to the study of SLA can be categorized as primarily based on linguistic, psychological, and social frameworks. Each of

these perspectives will be the subject of a separate chapter, although we should keep in mind that there are extensive interrelationships among them.

Prior to the 1960s, interest in L2 learning was tied almost exclusively to foreign language teaching concerns. The dominant linguistic model through the 1950s was Structuralism (e.g. Bloomfield 1933), which emphasized the description of different levels of production in speech: phonology (sound systems), morphology (composition of words), syntax (grammatical relationships of words within sentences, such as ordering and agreement), semantics (meaning), and lexicon (vocabulary). The most influential cognitive model of learning that was applied to language acquisition at that time was Behaviorism (Skinner 1957), which stressed the notion of habit formation resulting from S-R-R: stimuli from the environment (such as linguistic input), responses to those stimuli, and reinforcement if the responses resulted in some desired outcome. Repeated S-R-R sequences are “learned” (i.e. strong stimulus-response pairings become “habits”). The intersection of these two models formed the disciplinary framework for the Audiolingual Method, an approach to language teaching which emphasized repetition and habit formation that was widely practiced in much of the world at least until the 1980s. Although it had not yet been applied to second language concerns, Vygotsky’s Sociocultural Theory (1962 in English translation) was also widely accepted as a learning theory by mid-century, emphasizing interaction with other people as critical to the learning process. This view is still influential in SLA approaches which are concerned with the role of input and interaction.

9.6.1 Linguistic

There have been two foci for the study of SLA from a linguistic perspective since 1960: internal and external. The internal focus has been based primarily on the work of Noam Chomsky and his followers. It sets the goal of study as accounting for speakers’ internalized, underlying knowledge of language (linguistic competence), rather than the

description of surface forms as in earlier Structuralism. The external focus for the study of SLA has emphasized language use, including the functions of language which are realized in learners production at different stages of development.

9.6.2 Internal Focus

The first linguistic framework with an internal focus is Transformational Generative Grammar (Chomsky 1957, 1965). The appearance of this work revolutionized linguistic theory and had a profound effect on the study of both first and second languages. Chomsky argued convincingly that the behaviorist theory of language acquisition is wrong because it cannot explain the creative aspects of our linguistic ability. He called attention to the “logical problem of language acquisition,” which we discussed earlier in this chapter, and claimed the necessity of assuming that children begin with an innate capacity which is biologically endowed. These views have dominated most linguistic perspectives on SLA to the present day.

This framework was followed by the Principles and Parameters Model and the Minimalist Program, also formulated by Chomsky. Specification of what constitutes “innate capacity” in language acquisition has been revised to include more abstract notions of general principles and constraints that are common to all human languages as part of Universal Grammar. The Minimalist Program adds distinctions between lexical and functional category development, as well as more emphasis on the acquisition of feature specification as a part of lexical knowledge. Another development within this theoretical approach has focused on the linguistic interfaces between different modules of language such as lexicon and morphology, syntax and semantics, pragmatics or discourse. Some interface phenomena are more problematic for L2 learners than others, and may account for developmental delays and interference between languages.

9.6.3 External Focus

The most important linguistic frameworks contributing to an external focus on SLA are categorized within Functionalism, which dates back to the early twentieth century and has its roots in the Prague School of Eastern Europe. They differ from the Chomskyan frameworks in emphasizing the information content of utterances, and in considering language primarily as a system of communication. Some of them emphasize similarities and differences among the world's languages and relate these to sequence and relative difficulty of learning; some emphasize acquisition as largely a process of mapping relations between linguistic functions and forms, motivated by communicative need; and some emphasize the means learners have of structuring information in L2 production and how this relates to acquisition. Approaches based on functional frameworks have dominated European study of SLA and are widely followed elsewhere in the world.

9.7 Psychological

There have been three foci in the study of SLA from a psychological perspective: languages and the brain, learning processes, and learner differences.

9.7.1 Languages and the Brain

The location and representation of language in the brain has been of interest to biologists and psychologists since the nineteenth century, and the expanding field of neurolinguistics was one of the first to influence cognitive perspectives on SLA when systematic study began in the 1960s. Lenneberg (1967) generated great interest when he argued that there is a critical period for language acquisition which has a neurological basis, and much age-related research on SLA is essentially grounded in this framework. Exploratory procedures associated with brain surgery on multilingual patients, as well as the development of modern

noninvasive imaging techniques, are dramatically increasing knowledge in this area.

9.7.2 Learning processes

The focus on learning processes has been heavily influenced by computer based Information Processing (IP) models of learning, which were established in cognitive psychology by the 1960s. Explanations of SLA phenomena based on this framework involve assumptions that L2 is a highly complex skill, and that learning L2 is not essentially unlike learning other highly complex skills. Processing itself (of language or any other domain) is believed to cause learning. A number of approaches to SLA have been based on IP. They have been especially productive in addressing the question of how learners acquire knowledge of L2, and in providing explanations for sequencing in language development. Processability is a more recently developed framework which extends IP concepts of learning and applies them to teaching second languages.

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BAB 10

PRAGMATICS

By Nike Puspita Wanodyatama Pasaribu

10.1 Definition of Pragmatics

(Yule, 1996) states Pragmatics is the study of the relationships between linguistic forms and the users of those forms. In this three part distinction, only pragmatics allows humans into the analysis. The advantage of studying language via pragmatics is that one can talk about people's intended meanings, their assumptions, their purposes or goals, and the kinds of actions (for example, requests) that they are performing when they speak. The big disadvantage is that all these very human concepts are extremely difficult to analyse in a consistent and objective way. Two friends having a conversation may imply some things and infer some others without providing any clear linguistic evidence that we can point to as the explicit source of 'the meaning' of what was communicated. Example [i] is just such a problematic case. I heard the speakers, I knew what they said, but I had no idea what was communicated. [i] Her: So, did you? Him: Hey, who wouldn't? Thus, pragmatics is appealing because it's about how people make sense of each other linguistically, but it can be a frustrating area of study because it requires us to make sense of people and what they have in mind.

Pragmatics in the English language is one of the youngest of the linguistic disciplines. However, its history can be traced back to the 1870s and the philosophers Charles Sanders Pierce, John Dewey, and William James. Pragmatics is a subfield of linguistics the study of language that focuses on implied and inferred

meanings. This branch of linguistics involves many concepts, including these major areas:

- **Conversational implicature:** This concept is based on the idea that people in a conversation are cooperating to reach a common conversational goal; therefore, implications can be derived from a speaker's responses to questions. For example, if a parent asks a child whether they finished their homework and the child responds that they've finished their math homework, the parent might infer that the child still has homework in other classes to finish. Philosopher Paul Grice is credited with developing both the term and concept of implicature around 1975, and other scholars have since refined his ideas.
- **Cognitive pragmatics:** This area focuses on cognition or the mental processes (also called cognitive processes) of human communication. Researchers studying cognitive pragmatics may focus on language disorders in those with developmental disabilities or those who have suffered head trauma that affects their speech.
- **Intercultural pragmatics:** This area of the field studies communication between people from different cultures who speak different first languages. Similarly, interlanguage pragmatics works with language learners who are acquiring a second language.
- **Managing the flow of reference:** In conversation, listeners track syntactic (relating to syntax) clues to understand what happened or who performed an action this is called managing the flow of reference. For example, if someone were to walk up to you and say, "John is inside. He told me to greet you," you will likely understand that John is the person who told the speaker to greet you.
- **Relevance theory:** One major framework in pragmatics is relevance theory, which Dan Sperber and Deirdre Wilson first proposed. The theory, inspired by Grice's ideas about implicature, states that a speaker's every utterance conveys

enough relevant information for it to be worth the addressee's effort to process the meaning of an utterance.

- **Sociolinguistics:** Sociolinguistics focuses on how native speakers of the same language may speak differently from one another simply because of the different social groups to which they belong.
- **Speech acts:** In linguistics, the phrase “speech acts” is more philosophical in concept and is not related to phonology (the branch of linguistic study concerned with the specific phonetic sounds or dialects of a language). Speech act theory states that people use language and the rules of language to accomplish tasks and goals. While a physical act would be drinking a glass of water, and a mental act would be thinking about drinking a glass of water, a speech act would include things like asking for a glass of water or ordering someone to drink a glass of water.
- **Theory of mind:** David Premack and Guy Woodruff originally proposed this theory in the 1970s. Theory of mind centers on how understanding someone's mental state may also help explain their use of language. Some scholars see overlap between the theory of mind and pragmatic competence, which deals with language and its use in a given linguistic context.

10.2 Examples of Pragmatics

The definition of pragmatics and the use of pragmatics can be tricky to grasp without studying examples. Here are three examples that can help illustrate pragmatics in use in everyday conversation:

- a. **“How are you?”** This everyday greeting is rarely met with a response that involves discussing every medical and personal detail that may affect how the person is feeling on a given day (which would make up a literal response to the question). Instead, you might respond to the question with: “Fine, how are you?” This would be a pragmatic response since you are

making a presupposition that the speaker's intention was for the question to be an implied greeting and not a literal question about how you are doing at that exact moment.

- b. **"Luggage must be carried on the escalator."** This sentence on a referential sign in an airport is linguistically ambiguous, although not usually pragmatically ambiguous. Someone who has never gone to an airport before might misinterpret the semantic, literal meaning as a command that everyone must rush over to the escalator while carrying their luggage. But thanks to pragmatics (the inclusion of context with the sign), you know that the sign only applies to people who are actively taking luggage onto the escalator, not to everyone. The context of the situation determines the sentence's meaning.
- c. **"I have two sons."** While not necessarily ambiguous, this sentence contains an implication that the speaker has no more than two sons; however, it's possible the speaker could have more than two sons and the statement would still be truthful. Pragmatics incorporates the context of an utterance to determine meaning. Therefore, a preceding question of "Do you have any children?" would change the response's implication to be that the speaker only has two children two sons. Furthermore, a preceding question of "Do you have any sons?" would change the response's implication to be that the speaker might have one or more daughters in addition to having two sons.

Pragmatics considers the meaning of language within its social context and refers to how we use words in a practical sense. To understand what is genuinely being said, we must examine the contexts (including the physical location) and look out for social cues, for example, body language and tone of voice.

Let's look at some different pragmatic examples, and their contextual meaning, and see if it starts to make a bit more sense.

Example 1

- a. You and your friend are sitting in your bedroom studying, and she says, *'It's hot in here. Can you crack open a window?'* If we take this literally, your friend is asking you to crack the window to damage it. However, taken in context, we can infer that they are actually asking for the window to be opened a little.

Example 2

- b. You're talking to a neighbour and they look bored. Your neighbour keeps looking at their watch, and they don't appear to be paying much attention to what you're saying. Suddenly, they say, *'Gosh, would you look at the time!'* The literal meaning is that your neighbour is instructing you to look at the time. However, we can infer that they are trying to get away from the conversation due to their general body language.

Example 3

- c. You are walking through college, and you bump into a friend of a friend, who says, *"Hey, how're you doing?"*. In this case, it is unlikely that your friend wants to hear the highs and lows of your entire week. A common answer would be something like, *"Good thanks, and you?"*.

10.3 Why is Pragmatics Important?

Pragmatics is key to understanding language use in context and is a useful basis for understanding language interactions. Imagine a world where you had to explain everything you meant in full; there could be no slang, jokes probably wouldn't be funny, and conversations would be twice as long!

Let's take a look at what life would be like without pragmatics.

'What time do you call this?!'

Literal meaning = What time is it?

Real meaning = Why are you so late?!

Because of the insights of pragmatics, we know that the speaker does not actually want to know what time it is, but is making the point that the other person is late. In this case, it would be best to apologise rather than give the speaker the time!

Now, consider the following sentences. How many different meanings can they have? How important is context when inferring the meaning of each sentence?

- You're on fire!
- You have the green light.
- This way.

What context do we need for them to make sense?

- These things are awesome!
- I want that one!
- Oh, I've been there!

All of these sentences contain demonstrative adjectives, such as *these*, *that*, and *there*. Context is essential for sentences with demonstrative adjectives to make sense.

1. Pragmatics: The Cooperative Principle

The 'cooperative principle' is a theory by Paul Grice. Grice's theory explains how and why conversations tend to succeed rather than fail. Grice's theory is based on the idea of cooperation; he suggests that speakers inherently *want* to cooperate when communicating, which helps remove any obstacles to understanding. In order to facilitate successful communication, Grice says that when we talk, it is important to say enough to get your point across, be truthful, be relevant, and be as clear as possible.

This brings us to Grice's 4 Maxims. These are the four assumptions we make when talking with other people.

- Maxim of Quality: They will tell the truth or what they think is the truth.
- Maxim of Quantity: They will give sufficient information.
- Maxim of Relevance: They will say things that are relevant to the conversation.
- Maxim of Manner: They will be clear, pleasant and helpful.

2. Pragmatics: conversational implicature

'Conversational implicature', sometimes known simply as 'implicature', is another theory from Paul Grice. It looks at indirect speech acts. When examining implicatures, we want to know what the speaker means, even though they haven't explicitly said it. It's an *indirect* form of communication. Conversational implicature is directly linked to the co-operative theory. It relies on the basis that the speaker and the listener are cooperating. When a speaker implies something, they can be confident that the listener will understand it.

A couple are watching TV, but they are both looking at their phones and not paying much attention to the TV. The boy says, "*Are you watching this?*" The girl grabs the remote and changes the channel. Nobody explicitly suggested changing the channel, but the meaning was implied.

10.4 Speech Act

In linguistics, speech act is something expressed by an individual that not only presents information but performs an action as well, as stated by (Rahardi, 2015)

For example, the phrase "I would like the kimchi",

"could you please pass it to me?" is considered a speech act as it expresses the speaker's desire to acquire the kimchi, as well as presenting a request that someone pass the kimchi to them. According to Kent Bach, "almost any speech act is really the performance of several acts at once, distinguished by different

aspects of the speaker's intention: there is the act of saying something, what one does in saying it, such as requesting or promising, and how one is trying to affect one's audience". The contemporary use of the term goes back to J.L. Austin's development of performative utterances and his theory of locutionary, illocutionary, and perlocutionary acts. Speech acts serve their function once they are said or communicated. These are commonly taken to include acts such as apologizing, promising, ordering, answering, requesting, complaining, warning, inviting, refusing, and congratulating.

Speech acts can be analysed on multiple levels:

- a. A locutionary act: the performance of an utterance: the actual utterance and its apparent meaning, comprising any and all of its verbal, social, and rhetorical meanings, all of which correspond to the verbal, syntactic and semantic aspects of any meaningful utterance;
- b. an illocutionary act: the active result of the implied request or meaning presented by the locutionary act. For example, if the locutionary act in an interaction is the question "Is there any salt?" the implied illocutionary request is "Please pass the salt to me." or at least "I wish to add salt to my meal.";
- c. and under certain conditions a further perlocutionary act: the actual effect of the locutionary and illocutionary acts, such as persuading, convincing, scaring, enlightening, inspiring, or otherwise getting someone to do or realize something, whether intended or not.
- d. additionally, a metalocutionary act categorizes speech acts that refer to the forms and functions of the discourse itself rather than continuing the substantive development of the discourse, or to the configurational functions of prosody and punctuation.

1. Illocutionary acts

The concept of an illocutionary act is central to the concept of a speech act. Although there are several scholarly opinions regarding how to define 'illocutionary acts', there are some kinds of acts which are widely accepted as illocutionary. Examples of these widely accepted acts are commands or promises. The first of these opinions is the one held by John L. Austin who coined the term "speech act" in his book *How to Do Things with Words* published posthumously in 1962.^[1] According to Austin's preliminary informal description, the idea of an "illocutionary act" can be captured by emphasizing that "by saying something, we do something", as when someone issues an order to someone to go by saying "Go!", or when a minister joins two people in marriage saying, "I now pronounce you husbandandwife." (Austin would eventually define the "illocutionary act" in a more exact manner.)

John R. Searle gave an alternative to Austin's explanation of the illocutionary act saying, a "speech act" is often meant to refer to exactly the same thing as the term illocutionary act. Searle's work on speech acts is understood to further refine Austin's conception. However, some philosophers have pointed out a significant difference between the two conceptions: whereas Austin emphasized the conventional interpretation of speech acts, Searle emphasized a psychological interpretation (based on beliefs, intentions, etc.).

2. Perlocutionary acts

While illocutionary acts relate more to the speaker, perlocutionary acts are centered around the listener. Perlocutionary acts always have a 'perlocutionary effect' which is the effect a speech act has on a listener. This could affect the listener's thoughts, emotions or even their physical actions. An example of this could be if someone uttered the sentence "I'm hungry." The perlocutionary effect

on the listener could be the effect of being persuaded by the utterance. For example, after hearing the utterance, the listener could be persuaded to make a sandwich for the speaker.

3. Performative speech acts

An interesting type of illocutionary speech act is that performed in the utterance of what Austin calls performative utterances, typical instances of which are "I nominate John to be President", "I sentence you to ten years' imprisonment", or "I promise to pay you back." In these typical, rather explicit cases of performative sentences, the action that the sentence describes (nominating, sentencing, promising) is performed by the utterance of the sentence itself. J.L. Austin claimed that performative sentences could be "happy or unhappy". They were only happy if the speaker does the actions he or she talks about. They were unhappy if this did not happen. Performative speech acts also use explicit verbs instead of implicit ones. For example, stating "I intend to go." does convey information, but it does not really mean that you are [e.g.] promising to go; so it does not count as "performing" an action ("such as" the action of promising to go). Therefore, it [the word "intend"] is an implicit verb; i.e., a verb that would not be suitable for use in performative speech acts.

4. Indirect speech acts

In the course of performing speech acts people communicate with each other. The content of communication may be identical, or almost identical, with the content intended to be communicated, as when a stranger asks, "What is your name?" However, the meaning of the linguistic means used may also be different from the content intended to be communicated. One may, in appropriate circumstances, request Peter to do the dishes by just saying, "Peter ...!", or one can promise to do the dishes by saying, "Me!"

One common way of performing speech acts is to use an expression which indicates one speech act, and indeed performs this act, but also performs a further speech act, which is indirect. One may, for instance, say, "Peter, can you close the window?", thereby asking Peter whether he will be able to close the window, but also requesting that he does so. (Wijana, 2021) explains since the request is performed indirectly, by means of (directly) performing a question, it counts as an indirect speech act.

An even more indirect way of making such a request would be to say, in Peter's presence in the room with the open window, "I'm cold." The speaker of this request must rely upon Peter's understanding of several items of information that is not explicit: that the window is open and is the cause of them being cold, that being cold is an uncomfortable sensation and they wish it to be taken care of, and that Peter cares to rectify this situation by closing the window. This, of course, depends much on the relationship between the requester and Peter—he might understand the request differently if they were his boss at work than if they were his girlfriend or boyfriend at home. The more presumed information pertaining to the request, the more indirect the speech act may be considered to be.

Indirect speech acts are commonly used to reject proposals and to make requests. For example, if a speaker asks, "Would you like to meet me for coffee?" and the other replies, "I have class", the second speaker has used an indirect speech act to reject the proposal. This is indirect because the literal meaning of "I have class" does not entail any sort of rejection. This poses a problem for linguists, as it is confusing to see how the person who made the proposal can understand that his proposal was rejected. In 1975 John Searle suggested that the illocutionary force of indirect speech acts can be derived by means of a Gricean reasoning process; however, the process he proposes does not seem to accurately solve the problem. In other words, this means that one does not need to say the words apologize, pledge, or

praise in order to show they are doing the action. All the examples above show how the actions and indirect words make something happen rather than coming out straightforward with specific words and saying it.

Speech Acts are commonplace in everyday interactions and are important for communication, as well as present in many different contexts. Examples of these include:

- "You're fired!" expresses both the employment status of the individual in question, as well as the action by which said person's employment is ended.
- "I hereby appoint you as chairman" expresses both the status of the individual as chairman, and the action which promotes the individual to this position.
- "We ask that you extinguish your cigarettes at this time, and bring your tray tables and seatbacks to an upright position." This statement describes the requirements of the current location, such as an aeroplane, while also issuing the command to stop smoking and to sit up straight.
- "Would it be too much trouble for me to ask you to hand me that wrench?" functions to simultaneously ask two questions. The first is to ask the listener if they are capable of passing the wrench, while the second is an actual request.
- "Well, would you listen to that?" acts as a question, requesting that a listener heed what is being said by the speaker, but also as an exclamation of disbelief or shock.

5. Direct and indirect speech acts

In the case of pragmatics, direct speech refers to a speech act that has a direct relationship between the type of sentence and its function. In contrast, indirect speech acts occur when there is an indirect relationship between the type of sentence and the function.

Let's take a look at some examples of direct and indirect speech acts.

'Did you get any milk?'

This is an interrogative sentence that aims to elicit an answer. There is a direct relationship between the sentence type and the function; it is direct speech.

'I wonder whether you got any milk.'

Here the speaker wants to know whether or not milk was bought. However, they have used a declarative sentence and not an interrogative sentence. There isn't a direct relationship between the sentence type and the function, so this is an example of indirect speech.

10.5 Types of Speech Acts

There are types of speech acts by Searle (1990):

1. **Declarations** - The speaker declares something that has the potential to bring about a change in the world.

'I now declare you husband and wife.'

'You're fired!'

2. **Assertives** - The speaker asserts an idea, opinion, or suggestion. The speaker presents 'facts' of the world, such as statements and claims.

'Paris is the capital of France.'

'I watched a great documentary last night.'

3. **Expressives** - The speaker states something about their psychological attitudes and their attitudes towards a situation. This could be an apology, a welcome, or an expression of gratitude.

'I'm so sorry about yesterday.'

'I really appreciate your help.'

4. **Directives** - The speaker intends to get the listener to do something. This could be by giving an order, offering advice, or making a request.

'Pass me the salt please.'

'You should not drink that!'

5. **Commissives** - The speaker commits to doing something in the future. This could be making a promise, a plan, a vow, or a bet.

'I'll see you at 6 tomorrow'

'I do!'

10.6 What is The Difference Between Pragmatics And semantics?

Semantics and pragmatics are two of the main branches of linguistics. While both semantics and pragmatics study the meaning of words in language, there are a couple of key differences between them. Semantics refers to the meaning that grammar and vocabulary provide, and does not consider the context or inferred meanings. In contrast, pragmatics looks at the same words but in their social context. Pragmatics considers the relationship between social context and language.

Example 1.

"It's cold in here, isn't it?"

Semantics = the speaker is asking for confirmation that the room is cold.

Pragmatics = there may be another meaning associated with this question. For example, the speaker may be hinting that they want the heating turned on or the window closed. The context would make this clearer. Here's a handy table for you that sets out some of the key differences between semantics and pragmatics.

Table 10.1 Differences Between Semantics and Pragmatics.

Semantics	Pragmatics
The study of words and their meanings.	The study of words and their meanings <i>in context</i> .
The <i>literal</i> meanings of words.	The <i>intended</i> meaning of words.
Limited to the relationship between words.	Covers the relationships between words, interlocutors (people engaged in a conversation), and context.

In linguistics, semantics is the subfield that studies meaning. Semantics can address meaning at the levels of words, phrases, sentences, or larger units of discourse. Two of the fundamental issues in the field of semantics are that of compositional semantics (which applies to how smaller parts, like words, combine and interact to form the meaning of larger expressions, such as sentences) and lexical semantics (the nature of the meaning of words). Other prominent issues are those of context and its role on interpretation, opaque contexts, ambiguity, vagueness, entailment, and presuppositions.

10.7 Ambiguity

Ambiguity refers to when it is difficult to infer meaning without knowing the context, the identity of the speaker or the speaker's intent. For example, the sentence "You have a green light" is ambiguous, as without knowing the context, one could reasonably interpret it as meaning:

- the space that belongs to you has green ambient lighting;
- you are driving through a green traffic signal;
- you no longer have to wait to continue driving;

- you are permitted to proceed in a non-driving context;
- your body is cast in a greenish glow;
- you possess a light source which radiates green; or
- you possess a light with a green surface.

Another example of an ambiguous sentence is, "I went to the bank." This is an example of lexical ambiguity, as the word bank can either be in reference to a place where money is kept, or the edge of a river. To understand what the speaker is truly saying, it is a matter of context, which is why it is pragmatically ambiguous as well.

Similarly, the sentence "Sherlock saw the man with binoculars" could mean that Sherlock observed the man by using binoculars, or it could mean that Sherlock observed a man who was holding binoculars (syntactic ambiguity). The meaning of the sentence depends on an understanding of the context and the speaker's intent. As defined in linguistics, a sentence is an abstract entity: a string of words divorced from non-linguistic context, as opposed to an utterance, which is a concrete example of a speech act in a specific context. The more closely conscious subjects stick to common words, idioms, phrasings, and topics, the more easily others can surmise their meaning; the further they stray from common expressions and topics, the wider the variations in interpretations. That suggests that sentences do not have intrinsic meaning, that there is no meaning associated with a sentence or word, and that either can represent an idea only symbolically. *The cat sat on the mat* is a sentence in English. If someone were to say to someone else, "The cat sat on the mat," the act is itself an utterance. That implies that a sentence, term, expression or word cannot symbolically represent a single true meaning; such meaning is underspecified (which cat sat on which mat?) and potentially ambiguous. By contrast, the meaning of an utterance can be inferred through knowledge of both its linguistic and non-linguistic contexts (which may or may not be sufficient to resolve ambiguity).

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