CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS

By:

Usman Sidabutar, S.S., M.Hum

Ayu Padede, M.A

FAKULTAS KEGURUAN DAN ILMU PENDIDIKAN

UNIVERSITAS HKBP NOMMENSEN

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Table of Contents

CHAPTER 1
WHAT IS CONTRASTIVE

1.1 Definition of Contrastive Linguistics.

There is a definition of contrastive linguistics according to Johansson and Hofland (1994) say; Contrastive Linguistics is the systematic comparison of two or more languages, with the aim of describing their similarities and differences. The objective of the comparison may vary; *Language Comparison* is great interest in a theoretical as well as in applied respective. It reveals what is general and what is language specific and is therefore important both for the understanding of language in general and for the study of the individual languages compared.

Contrastive analysis (CA) is the systematic comparison of two or more languages, with the aim of describing their similarities and differences linguistically.

The main idea of contrastive analysis, as propounded by Robert Lado in his book *Linguistics Across Cultures* (1957), was that it is possible to identify the areas of difficulty a particular foreign language will present for native speakers of another language by systematically comparing the two languages and cultures. Where the two languages and cultures are similar, learning difficulties will not be expected, where they are different, then learning difficulties are to be expected, and the greater the difference, the greater the degree of expected difficulty.

CHAPTER 2
AMERICAN AND BRITISH ENGLISH

2.1 The Differences between American English and British English

a. Arbitrary

Arbitrary is used in the definition to convey that there is no reason why a given word has its particular meaning. Predominantly is used to indicate that although most symbols are vocal, there are also visual symbols, such as a nod of the head (of which the meaning is very much culturally determined). Vocal is a sound or combination of sounds that produces wards and meaning, is used to indicate that language deals white the human voice.

According to Stevan Harnad (1999) says: “Languages are said to be arbitrary because there is no necessary or natural relationship between the words of a given language and the concepts that they represent. For example, there is nothing in the word "tree" that connects it to the concept of a tree; which is why Spanish can use a totally different sign for the same concept: "árbol"; and so on with other languages. Also, languages are arbitrary because the rules for the combination of signs in order to produce complete thoughts are different from one language to the other, and no set of rules can claim to be the "right" one. For example, in English you say "I like beer", whereas in Spanish you would say "Me gusta la cerveza". The literal translation of the latter would be something like: "Beer is agreeable to me", which sounds strange in English. And neither of these formulations has a better claim to accuracy, correctness or truth than the other.” The first three definitions lack one but complement the others in the sense that none of them can really define ‘language’ therefore it can be said that the fourth definition best

matches the present need to define ‘language’. This definition of language (definition 4 as agreed-upon) has three key words that need to be more clarified; they are arbitrary, predominantly and vocal. The point is ‘why each of these words is used in definition’. In this case, the writer should be agreed with the first definition of language “doing things with words” and “languages are arbitrary”.

These are the examples of difference words between American English. British English and Canadian English:

Ending "-our" become "-or"

Inggris	Amerika	Canadian	Means
Arbour	Arbor	arbour	Punjung. Anjang-anjang.
Ardour	Ardor	ardour	Kehangatan. Semangat.
behaviour	Behavior	beavour	Kelakuan.
Clamour	Clamor	clamour	Kegegeran.
Colour	Color	colour.	Warna. Rona
Favour	Favor	favour	Kebaikan. Kemurahan.
Glamour	Glamor	glamour	Kecantikan yang memikat
Honour	Honor	honoure	Kehormatan
Labour	Labor	labour	Kerja. Buruh (Tenaga kerja)
neighbour	Neighbor	neighbour	Tetangga
Rumour	Rumor	rumour.	Kabar angin. Gosip
Saviour	Savior	saviour	Juruselamat. Penyelamat
Tumour	tumor	tumour	Kanker. Jinak

b. Spelling and Pronunciation

In a few cases, essentially the same word has a different spelling which reflects a different pronunciation. However, in most cases, the pronunciations of the words is the same, or nearly so. As well as the miscellaneous cases listed in the following table, the past tenses of some irregular verbs differ in both spelling and pronunciation, as with *smelt* (mainly in the U.K.) versus *smelled* (mainly American): see American and British English differences: Verb and morphology.

U.K.	USA	Notes

aeroplane	airplane	*Aeroplane*, originally a French loanword, is the older spelling. According to the OED, "*[a]irplane* became the standard American term (replacing *aeroplane*) The prefixes *aero-* and *air-* both mean *air*, with the first coming from the Ancient Greek word ἀήρ (*āēr*). In Canada, *airplane* is used more commonly than *aeroplane*, although *aeroplane* is not unknown, especially in parts of French Canada (where the current French term is, *avion—aéroplane* designating in French 19th-century flying machines).
moustache	mustache	In America, according to the Merriam-Webster Collegiate Dictionary and the American Heritage Dictionary, the British spelling is an also-ran, yet the pronunciation with second-syllable stress is a common variant. In Britain the second syllable is usually stressed.

mum(my)	mom(my)	Mother. *Mom* is sporadically regionally found in the U.K. (e.g. in West Midlands English). Some British dialects have *mam*, and this is often used in Northern English, Irish English, and Welsh English. In the American region of New England, especially in the case of the Boston accent, the British pronunciation of *mum* is often retained, while it is still spelled *mom*. In Canada, there are both *mom* and *mum*; Canadians often say *mum* and write *mom*. In Australia, *mum* is used.

C.Spelling and History

1. -our, -or

Most words ending in an unstressed *-our* in the United Kingdom, Ireland, New Zealand, Canada and Australia (*colour*, *flavour*, *honour*, *neighbour*, *rumour*, *labour*) end in - *or* in the United States (*color*, *flavor*, *honor*, *neighbor*, *rumor*, *labor*). Wherever the vowel is unreduced in pronunciation, this does not occur: *contour*, *velour*, *paramour*, *troubadour*, are

spelled thus the same everywhere. Most words of this category derive from Latin non-agent nouns having nominative *-or*; the first such borrowings into English were from early Old French and the ending was *-or* or *-ur*. After the Norman Conquest, the termination became - *our* in Anglo-French in an attempt to represent the Old French pronunciation of words ending in *-or*, though *color* has been used occasionally in English since the fifteenth century.

The *-our* ending was not only retained in English borrowings from Anglo-French, but also applied to earlier French borrowings. After the Renaissance, some such borrowings from Latin were taken up with their original *-or* termination; many words once ending in *-our* (for example, *chancellour* and *governour*) now end in *-or* everywhere. Many words of the *-our/- or* group do not have a Latin counterpart; for example, *armo(u)r*, *behavio(u)r*, *harbo(u)r*, *neighbo(u)r*; also *arbo(u)r* meaning "shelter", though senses "tree" and "tool" are always *arbor*, a false cognate of the other word. Some 16th and early 17th century British scholars indeed insisted that *-or* be used for words of Latin origin (*color*) and *-our* for French loans; but in many cases the etymology was not completely clear, and therefore some scholars advocated *-or* only and others *-our* only.

d. The use of Derivation and Inflectional

In derivatives and inflected forms of the *-our/or* words, in British usage the *u* is kept before English suffixes that are freely attachable to English words (*neighbourhood*, *humourless*, *savoury*) and suffixes of Greek or Latin origin that have been naturalized (*favourite*, *honourable*, *behaviourism*); before Latin suffixes that are not freely attachable to English words, the *u* may be dropped (*honorific*, *honorist*, *vigorous*, *humorous*, *laborious*, *invigorate*), may be either dropped or

retained (*colo(u)ration*, *colo(u)rise*), or may be retained (*colourist*). In American usage, derivatives and inflected forms are built by simply
adding the suffix in all environments (*favorite*, *savory*, etc.) since the *u* is absent to begin with.

e. Nouns ending in -ce with -se verb forms:

American English and British English both retain the noun/verb distinction in *advice* / *advise* and *device* / *devise*, but American English has abandoned the distinction with *licence* / *license* and *practice* / *practise* (where the two words in each pair are homophones) that British spelling retains. American English uses *practice* and *license* for both meanings. American English has kept the Anglo-French spelling for *defense* and *offense*, which are usually *defence* and *offence* in British English; similarly there are the American *pretense* and British *pretence*; but derivatives such as *defensive*, *offensive*, and *pretension* are always thus spelled in both systems. Canadian usage generally follows British.

f. -xion, -ction

The spelling *connexion* is now rare in everyday British usage and is not used at all in America: the more common *connection* has become the standard internationally. According to the *Oxford English Dictionary* the older spelling is more etymologically conservative, since the word actually derives from Latin forms in -*xio*-. The American usage derives from
Webster who discarded the -*xion* in favour of -*ction* by analogy with such verbs as *connect*.
Complexion (which comes from the stem *complex*) is standard and *complection* usually is not. However, the adjective *complected* (as in "dark-complected"), although sometimes objected to, can be used as an alternative to *complexioned* in

the U.S., but is quite unknown in this sense in the UK, although there is an extremely rare usage to mean *complicated* (*OED*).

h. Spelling of -ise, -ize

Greek spellings are such as: *-ise*, *-ize* American spelling accepts only *-ize* endings in most cases, such as *organize*, *recognize*, and *realize*. British usage accepts both *-ize* and *-ise* (*organize*/*organise*, *recognize*/*recognise*, *realize*/*realise*). British English using *-ize* is known as Oxford spelling, and is used in publications of the Oxford University Press, most notably the *Oxford English Dictionary*, as well as other authoritative British sources.

i. Dropped e

British English sometimes keeps silent *e* when adding suffixes where American English does not. Generally speaking, British English drops it in only some cases in which it is unnecessary to indicate pronunciation whereas American English only uses it where necessary. British prefers *ageing*, American usually *aging* (compare *raging*, *ageism*). For the

noun or verb "route", British English often uses *routeing*; but in America *routing* is used.(The military term *rout* forms *routing* everywhere.) However, all of these word form

"router", whether used in the context of carpentry, data communications, or military. ("Attacus was the router of the Huns at ....") Both forms of English retain the silent *e* in the words *dyeing*, *singeing*, and *swingeing* (in the sense of *dye*, *singe*, and *swinge*), to distinguish from *dying*, *singing*, *swinging* (in the sense of *die*, *sing*, and *swing*). In contrast, both *bathe* and the British verb *bath* both form *bathing*. Both forms of English vary for *tinge* and *twinge*; both prefer *cringing*, *hinging*, *lunging*, *syringing*.

CHAPTER 3
PHONOLOGICAL SYSTEM

This course will introduce you to the different aspects of the phonetics & phonology of English. Apart from investigating traditional aspects, such as speech production and perception, we will also explore differences between reference accents, and their relationship with some of the other native and non-native varieties of English around the world. Practical exercises in transcription, etc., will accompany all stages of the course as much as possible, and assessment for the course will be based on a number of these exercises.

3.1 Vowels

Among the vowels, we can basically distinguish between two major classes, those that consist of a single, essentially stable and non-changing sound, and those that involve a combination of multiple sounds and movements between them. The first type are referred to as monophthongs, and the second type comprises diphthongs (combinations of two sounds) and triphthongs (combinations of three sounds). For the English monophthongs, we can draw a further distinction between long (i:, ɜ :, ɑ : (a:), o: (ɔ :), u:) and short (ɪ , i, ɛ (e), ə, a (æ), ʌ , ɒ , ʊ) ones, although there is usually not simply a difference in length between them, but also one of quality. Generally, vowels in English are also voiced, i.e. the vocal folds inside the larynx (more colloquially referred to as 'Adam's apple') open and close at regular intervals during their production.

Vowels in English can be described according to their degree of openness – i.e. in relation to the position of the lower jaw and the mass of tongue –, the degree of backness – how far back the tongue is inside the mouth –, and according to lip

rounding, where the general rule for English is that lip rounding increases with the degree of backness.

3.2 Consonants

Consonants can be classified according to whether they are voiced or voiceless, their manner of articulation, as well as their place of articulation. For manner of articulation we can distinguish between:

1. plosives (including nasals): complete closure of the mouth to build up energy which is then explosively released

/p/ & /b/, /t/ & /d/, /k/ & /g/; /ʔ /; /m/, /n/ & /ŋ/

2. fricatives: incomplete closure that produces a kind of turbulence and consequently a 'whistling' effect

/f/ & /v/, /θ/ & /ð/, /s/ & /z/, /ʃ / & /ʒ /, and /h/

3. affricates: a combination of a plosive, followed by a fricative

/tʃ / & /dʒ /; /tɹ / & /dɹ /

4. laterals and approximants (semi-vowels)

/l/; /ɹ /, /j/, /w/

As far as place of articulation is concerned, we can distinguish between the following types of articulation:

1. bi-labial: involving both lips

/p/, /b/ & /m/

2. labio-dental: involving the upper teeth and the lower lip

/f/ & /v/

3. dental

/θ/ & /ð/

4. alveolar: at the ridge just behind the upper teeth

/t/, /d/, /n/; /s/, /z/; /ɹ /, /l/

5. palato-alveolar: between the alveolar ridge and the hard palate

/ʃ / & /ʒ /; /tʃ / & /dʒ /

6. palatal: at the hard palate

/j/

7. velar: at the soft palate

/k/, /g/, /ŋ/

8. glottal: inside the throat

/h/; /ʔ /

3.3 Phonetics

Phonetics (Gr. φωνή = voice, sound) is the the study of speech sounds. It investigates and tries to describe how speech sounds are produced, transmitted and interpreted in the speech chain.

Subdisciplines of Phonetics

We can distinguish between three different sub-disciplines of phonetics:

subdiscipline	area(s) of investigation
articulatory phonetics	deals with the movements and constellations of the vocal organs in producing individual sounds
acoustic phonetics	investigates physical properties of sounds and their transmission
auditory phonetics	deals with the excitation and constellations of the auditory

	organs (and the brain) in interpreting individual sounds

3.4 Phonemic and Phonetic Differences

Regarding to the findings of the study, it is acknowledged that most of the 20 students involved in this study face difficulties in pronouncing consonant phonemes: /b/, /p/, /t/, /d/, /k/, /g/, /ʧ /, /c/, /ʤ /, /f/, /v/, /θ/, /ð/, /z/, /ʃ /, /ʒ /, /h/, /l/, /r/, /w/,/m/, /n/, /ŋ/

The above consonant phonemes are analyzed via phonemic oppositions and phonetic features respectively as follows.

2.1.1Phoneme / p / in English

The / p / in English appears in word initial, medial and final positions, and so does the /p/ in the Indonesian language (= Bahasa Indonesia). It is very essential to describe here that the English /p/ is aspirated when it happens in the initial position in a stress syllable, but when it arises after ‘s’, it is not aspirated. It is a little aspirated when it appears in the middle and final positions, but the Indonesian phoneme /p/ is entirely not aspirated wherever it exists in the word.

2.1.2Phoneme / p / in Bahasa

The phoneme / p / in Bahasa Indonesia is constantly unreleased when it occurs in the final position before a pause or another consonant. Consequently, the aforementioned students of this study have difficulties in pronouncing the English words having the phoneme /p/ with aspiration. The following are the examples discovered in the study:

PHONEMIC OPPOSITIONS

	ENGLISH	BAHASA INDONESIA
Initial	: 'past' [**p**^{h}a:st]	'pagi' [**p**agɪ] = morning
Medial	: 'compass'[k^{h}ʌm**p**əs]	'kapan' [ka**p**an] = when
Final	: 'map' [mæ**p**]	'kerlap' [kərla**p**] = glare

PHONETIC FEATURES

	ENGLISH		BAHASA INDONESIA
Voiced	:	-	-
Bilabial	:	+	+
Stop	:	+	+
Aspirated	:	+	-

3.5 Phoneme / b / in English

The / b / phoneme in English also makes the previous students mentioned get troubles in pronouncing English words. To know the causes, the analysis of this phoneme is carried out as follows. The / b / phoneme in English appears in word initial, medial and final positions but the / b / phoneme in Bahasa Indonesia comes out only in syllable-initial position.

3.6 Phoneme / t / in English

The / t / phoneme in English and in Bahasa Indonesia appears in the three positions in the word. When the English / t /appears initially in an accented syllable, it is fortis and usually accompanied by aspirationThe English / t / is

alveolar but the Indonesian / t / is an apico dental. When the Indonesian / t / arises finally in the syllable before a pause or another consonant, it is usually unreleased. Consequently, it is slightly difficult for the aforementioned students to pronounce / t / when this phoneme emerges in English words with aspiration. So to pronounce this sound of / t /, they tend to use the unaspirated dental / t̲ /. Here their analyses are presented below.

PHONEMIC OPPOSITIONS

ENGLISH	BAHASA INDONESIA
Initial: 'tense' [ens]	'tidur' [tidur] = sleep
Medial : 'native' [neitiv]	'atap' [atap] = roof
Final: 'put' [ut]	'kuat' [kuat] = strong

Phoneme / ʧ / in English, and phoneme / ĉ / in Bahasa Indonesia. The English phoneme / ʧ / also puts the twenty students of this study get problems when theyspeak English and read an English text. They cannot pronounce English words having this phoneme fluently and perfectly. They do so because of the positions and features of this English phoneme are different from the Indonesian phoneme / ĉ /. The English / ʧ / emerges in word initial, medial, and final positions, but the Indonesian / ĉ = ʧ / occurs only in initial and medial positions.

The phoneme / ʧ / in English is a voiceless palato-alveolar while the phoneme / ĉ = ʧ / in Bahasa Indonesia is a voiceless palatal stop. The phoneme / ʧ / in English is pronounced with rounded lips, but the phoneme / ĉ / in Bahasa Indonesia uttered with the tongue that is usually very far back in the mouth, and is also pronounced with spread lips by Indonesian speakers included the twenty students of this study. As a result, the students have problems to articulate the final sound of / ʧ / phoneme in English because this sound in Bahasa Indonesia does not appear in this position.

PHONEMIC OPPOSITIONS

ENGLISH	BAHASA INDONESIA
Initial : ‘charm’ [ʧ a:m] Final : ‘teach’ [ti: ʧ] Medial : ‘ trenchant’ [trenʧ ənt]	‘cinta’ [ĉinta] = love Nothing ‘laci’ [laĉi] = drawer

3.7 Phoneme / ʤ / in English = Phoneme / ĵ / in Bahasa Indonesia

As stated previously that all English phonemes analyzed before, make the twenty students of this study undergo problems in pronouncing English words. This phoneme / ʤ / in English also puts the students get troubles articulate English words. The phonemic opposition of the English phoneme / ʤ / comes out in three positions in English words. It can be in the word initial, medial, and final positions, but the Indonesian phoneme / ĵ / just appears in word initial and medial positions. The / ʤ / in English is rounded but the / ĵ / in Bahasa Indonesia is not

PHONEMIC OPPOSITIONS

ENGLISH	**BAHASA INDONESIA**
Initial: ‘jam’ [ʤ æm] Final: ‘margarine’ [ma:ʤ əri:n] Medial: ‘marge’ [ma:ʤ]	‘jalan’ [ĵalan] = street ‘telanjang’ [tələnĵaŋ] = naked Nothing

We can say: [sifat] or [sipat] = temper, [syaraf] or [sarap] = nerve, [fakir] or [pakir] = poor, but we cannot say: [fintar] for [pintar] = clever, [fajak] for [pajak] = tax, [faku] for [paku] = nail, [fantas] for [pantas] = appropriate, [fisau] for [pisau] = knife.

Frankly speaking, by this phoneme / f /, the Indonesian students in general do not have problems to pronounce the English words having this sort phoneme / f / because most of them are so familiar with it. In essence, this / f / phoneme in Bahasa Indonesia resembles the sound in English. The following are its analyses as follows.

PHONEMIC OPPOSITIONS

	ENGLISH	**BAHASA INDONESIA**
Initial	: 'face' [**f**eis]	'fitnah' [**f**itnah] = slander
Medial	: 'define' [di**f**ain]	'lafal' [la**f**al] = pronunciation
Final	: 'deaf' [de**f**]	'taraf' [tara**f**] = standard

1. Analyze this text through phonological system. TEND TO ANALYZE WITH EVERY CLAUSE.
2. Do you find the contrastive phonological between English and Indonesia?

TEXT 1.

TEXT	**PHONOLOGICAL**	
	BAHASA INDONESIA	**ENGLISH**
"Saudara-saudara, selama dua hari libur hari Sabtu		

dan Minggu, saya menerima tamu dan bertemu dengan banyak sahabat. Kita bicarakan banyak hal termasuk yang beredar di masyarakat, berkaitan dengan pemberitaan yang tidak jelas sumbernya, mengandung fitnah yang sangat keterlaluan.		

A. PHONEMIC OPPOSITIONS

ENGLISH	BAHASA INDONESIA
Initial : Final : Medial :	

CHAPTER 4
PREPOSITION AND ADVERB

4.1 Preposition

Both English and Indonesian preposition, there are three basic locative preposition: di ‘in, on, at’ (indicates that the action occurs in the place indicated by the following noun and there is a movement), ke ‘to’ (indicates movement toward), and dari ‘from’ (indicates movement away). For examples: Dia tinggal *di* kota, Dia berjalan *ke* kota, Dia berangkat *dari* kota.

4.2 Adverbs

Most adverbs in English are formed by adding –ly to an adjective. An adverb is a word that modifies a verb, an adjective, another adverb, a noun or noun phrase, determiner, a numeral, a pronoun or a preposition phrase and can sometimes be used as a complement of a preposition. An adverb is a part of speech that describes or modifies a verb, an adjective, another adverb, clause, or sentence. An adverb is the sentence element used to qualify or determine verbs. In addition, an adverb is also used to qualify or determine nouns, adjectives, other adverbs, and even entire sentence.

4.3 Kind and Position of Adverbs

In this section, I would present the kind and position of Adverbs.

A. Kind of Adverbs

Marcella Frank (1972: 141) in Modern English book says that kinds of adverbs are:

1. Adverbs of Manner

The adverbs of manner has characteristic adverbial form (an –ly ending

added to a descriptive adjective)

Example:

- He runs *quickly*.
- She opened the window *quietly*.

(2) Adverbs of Place

There are many prepositions which appear after verb on either adverbs of place or adverbs of direction.

Example:

- He came in.
- They walked down.

Some archaic forms for adverbs of place and direction are still found in the literary language, hither (here), thither (there), yonder (over there), hence (from here), thence (from there), whither (where).

(3) Adverbs of Time

Definite

Adverbs of Time

Examples Adverbs of Time between English and Indonesian languages.

In English there are many kinds of adverbs, there are adverbs of place, adverbs of time, adverbs of frequency, adverbs of manner, adverbs of certainty, adverbs of degree, interrogative adverbs and relative adverbs (Widarso, 1994: 86).

There are examples Adverbs of Time in English based on function:

(1) To explain verbs

a. I have been *working* hard all day.
b. I bought this *book* three weeks ago.
c. The parcel *arrived* yesterday.

(2) To explain adjective

a. Last week, the exam was *relatively easy.*

b. Two days ago, the detective's disguise as a nervous waiter was

c. *nearly perfect.*

d. Yesterday, the very small boy threw he ball *very quickly*.

(3) To explain the other adverb

a. I work *quite hard* everyday, from nine to five.

b. Last year, they renovated their house *obviously happily.*

c. Last night, we danced *really slowly* when the band played.

There are examples Adverbs of Time in Indonesian based on function:

(1) To explain verbs

a. Saya punya perasaaan (*I have* a feeling).

b. Saya melihatnya (*I saw* him).

c. Apa ini? (*What is* this?).

(2) To explain adjectives

a. Sebuah bunga merah (*A* red *flower*).

b. Udara dingin (*Air which is* cool).

(3) To explain the other adverb

a. Kemarin dia menemukan kunci kecil (Yesterday *he found* a very *small key*).

b. Setiap hari Ayah bekerja keras untuk keluarga (Everyday my father work *quite hard* for my family).

c. Kemarin adik bermain bola dengan cepat (Yesterday my brother played *the ball quickly*).

There are examples Adverbs of Time in English based on position:

(1) position in the front

a. *Yesterday*, my sister came from Jakarta.

b. *Later*, her baby ate some porridge.

c. *Today,* our lesson is English.

Chapter 5
A Brief Description of Syntactical Theory

5.1. The Understanding of Syntax

Syntax is the component of a grammar which determines how words are combined together to form phrases and sentences (Radford, 2004: 405). It can be concluded that syntax is the arrangement and relationship among words, phrases, and clauses forming sentences or larger constructions based on grammatical rules.

5.2 The Analysis of Syntactical Theory

Syntactic theory, as the term is used here, has its origins in Noam Chomsky's 1957 book Syntactic Structures. It can be said to have two goals. On the one hand, it is concerned to develop precise descriptions of aspects of the syntax of various languages, the ways in which specific languages combine words to form sentences. On the other hand, it aims to develop a general theory of syntax, specifying what languages have in common in this area and how they can vary. This is often known as a theory of universal grammar (Borsley, 2003: 1).

5.3. Traditional analysis (word class rules)

This course of a long tradition of grammatical analysis with stretches book two thousand years to the grammarian of Ancient Greece and Rome. They were describing the structures of Greek and Latin, where they discovered all the basic

ideas of grammar word classes, dependency links, coordination, dependent type (such as subject and object) and form based contrast like finitness. This is so called traditional grammar which we will find alive and well in most modern book that deal with grammar, especially dictionary and grammars of foreign languages. It is also the foundation of which all modern thinking about grammar rest.

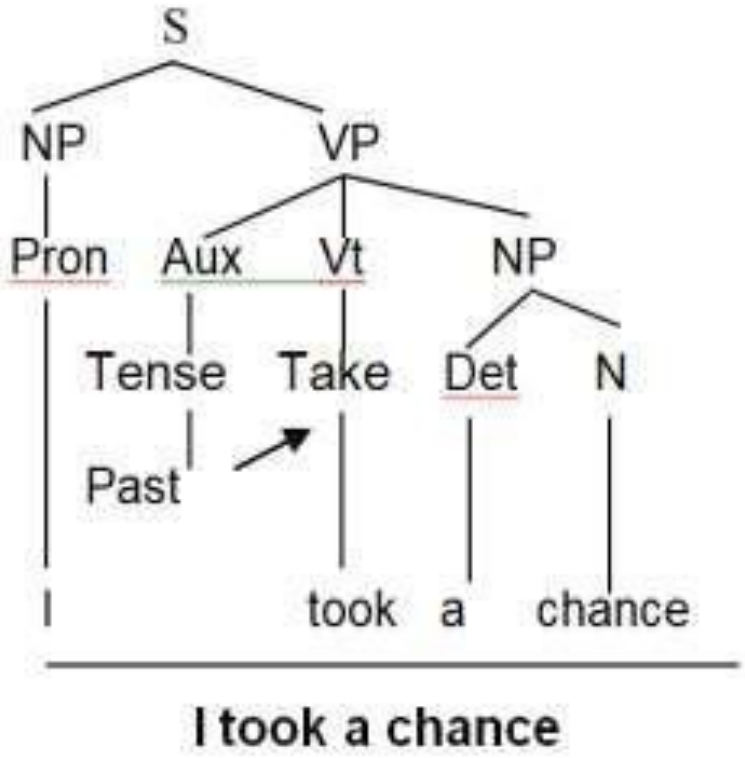
5.4 Transformational generative grammar

The term Transformational Generative Grammar is used to Noam Chomsky‟ s theories about Syntax. These theories were first rut forward in a book entitled Syntactic
Structure which published in 1957. Chomsky tried to find certain rules which would create well-formed sentence of language. According to Chomsky, his grammar is Generative, since it can generate or is called Transformational since a basic or simple sentence like: *I write a letter*, it can be changed or transformed into a number of sentences with either the same meaning into *A letter is written by me* or with different meanings. Such as:

Do I write a letter?

I write a letter, don't I?
Idon't write a letter

In the framework of transformational generative grammar, the structure of sentence is represented by phrase structure tree, otherwise known as phrase marker of tree diagram. Such tree-diagram provides information about the sentences that they represent by showing the hierarchical relations between their component parts. For example: "I took a chance".



The Basic Structure of English Syntax

5.4 Word class

Every word belongs to a word class, such as noun, verb, adjective, article, conjunction, etc. Other names for word class are "category" or "part of speech" (Fabb, 2005: 11). There are eight word classes in English, they are:

1) Noun

A noun is a word used to name a person, animal, place or thing. Noun in English can

be classified into two types, they are:

a) Concrete nouns

Concrete nouns refer to things which we can sense. It can be classified into:

1. Common noun is used to name all member of a class or group. Such as: teacher, table, apple, tree, bus, etc.
2. Proper noun is used to name a specific person, place or thing. Such as: John, Bali, Madura, Toba Lake, New York, etc.

Material noon are used to name all materials. Such as: gold, iron, bronze, steel, silver, etc.

Collective noun is used to name of group. Such as: family, team, nation, people, army, etc.

2 Abstract noun

Abstract noun refer to ideas or qualities. Such as: sad, happy, tired, hungry, handsome, etc.

c) Pronoun

A pronoun is a word that replaces or stand for a noun. Examples: he, she, it. It can be divided into six types. They are:

Personal pronouns these show whether a person is represented is speaking, being spoken to, or spoken of; I, me, you, he, him, she, her, it, we, us, they, them.

Possessive pronouns these show possessive; mine, yours, him, hers, its, ours, theirs.

Reflexive pronouns these show identify “self”; myself, yourself, himself, herself, ourselves, itself, themself.

Relative pronouns these relate to antecedent, or a preceding noun or phrase; who, whose, whom, that, which, what.

Interrogative pronouns these are used to in asking question; who, which, what.

Indefinite pronouns these form refer to no one person or thing in particular; each, every, either, neither, my, all, few, some, several, one, other, another, none, both, such.

2..Verb

A verb is used to show an action or a state of being. According to the object they are requiring, verbs can be classified:

b. Transitive verbs, verbs which have direct objects (no prepositions are needed to connect verb and object); *He sees the house, we believe in you*.

c. Intransitive verbs, verbs which do not have a direct object. There are three types of verbs, namely: Regular verbs end in –ed or –d.

d. Irregular verbs change forms, such as write- wrote.

e. Linking verbs express a state of being, such as shows and appear.

3) Adjective

An adjective is a word that describes or modifies a noun. An adjective can be classified into four types:

a) Possessive adjective is similar to a possessive pronoun, but it modifies a noun or a noun phrase.

b) Demonstrative adjective is identical to a demonstrative pronoun, but it is used as adjectives to modify nouns or noun phrase.

6 Interrogative adjective is like an interrogative pronoun, but it modifies a noun or noun phrase rather than standing on its own.

7 Indefinite adjective is similar to an indefinite pronoun. It modifies a noun, pronoun, and noun phrase.

4) Adverb

An adverb is a word that describes or modifies a verb. Ex: carefully, quickly, wisely. Usually, an adverb tells you when, where, how, in what manner, or to what extent an action is performed. Many adverbs end in -ly, particularly those that are used to express how an action is performed. However, not every word ending in "ly" is an adverb: "friendly," for example, is an adjective.

5) Preposition

A preposition is a word that indicates the relationship of a noun (or noun phrase) to another word. Examples of prepositions are to, at, with, for, against, across. Nouns and pronouns most often follow prepositions. Examples of prepositions include: about, above, across, up, with, within, without.

6) Conjunction

Conjunctions are words that connect two words, phrases or sentences. Coordinating conjunctions connect two independent clauses (sentences that can stand alone) together, while subordinating conjunctions combine a subordinate to a principal element in the sentence. Examples of coordinating conjunctions include: and, or, nor but, for. Examples of subordinating conjunctions include: after, although, as, as if, as much as, as though, because, before, how, if, in order that, provided, since, than, that, though, unless, until, when, where, while.

7) Interjection

An interjection is a word that expresses emotion and has no grammatical relation to other words in the sentence. For instance: Oh!, Alas!, Nonsense!, etc.

b. Phrase Structure

A phrase structure is an expression (can be a single word, but usually more) which contains a single thought but is not necessarily a complete sentence. Phrases may be classified by the type of the head they take:

1) Noun Phrase (NP)

Noun phrase is a phrase that plays the role of a noun. The head word in a noun phrase will be a noun or a pronoun. Noun Phrase can be in the form of the following:

8 NP → N (dog, house)

9 NP → Pron (you, I, he)

10 NP → Pron N (John, Surabaya)

11 NP → Det + N (a pen, the train)

12 NP → NP + S (the girl who is driving a car)

2) Adjective phrase (AP)

Adjective phrase with an adjective as its head. For instance: full of toys, with green

dress.

3) Adverbial phrase (AdvP)

Adverbial phrase with an adverb as its head. For instance: very carefully

3) Verb phrase (VP)

Verb phrase with a verb as its head. For instance: eat cheese, jump up and down etc.

4) Prepositional phrase (PP)

Prepositional phrase with a preposition as its head. For instance: in love

c. Clause Structure

A clause consists of a subject and a verb. There are two types of clauses:

1) Independent clause

An independent clause consists of a subject verb and also demonstrates a complete thought: for example, "I am sad".

2) Dependent clause

A dependent clause consists of a subject and a verb, but demonstrates an incomplete thought. There are three main types of dependent clause:

a) Noun clause

A noun clause typically acts as the subject of a verb or as the object of a verb or preposition. For examples:

Keep thinking about what happened yesterday.
I imagine that they are having a good time.
What you say is not as important as how you say it.

b. Adjectival clause

An adjectival clause modifies a noun phrase. In English, adjectival clauses typically come at the end of their noun clause.

c. Adverbial clause

An adverbial clause typically modifies its entire main clause; at the beginning of a sentence, in the middle of a sentence, and at the end of a sentence. For examples:

Wherever Jane goes, she leaves broken heart behind.
Tom liked the meal more than Tim did because he is a greedy.

Jack wanted to quit because he was bored with his old job.

d. Sentence Structure

Sentences are made up of two parts - subjects and predicates. In sentences there are differences between the deep and surface structure. The surface structure of a sentence is its grammatical form, while the deep structure is understood as its meaning.

b. Sentence Elements

1) Sentence Elements

A normal sentence in English usually contains at least three elements: subject, verb, and object. The subject is usually a noun, a word that names a person, place, or thing. The something or someone that the sentence is about is called the subject of the sentence. Predicate is syntactical name marking, identifying the verb used to express the action or the state of the subject.

2) Object and Complement

An object receives the action and usually follows the verb. Object can be divided into:

b. Direct object

A direct object is a noun or pronoun that receives the action. For examples:

John ‟ jumper no longer fits him. She can invite whomever she wants.

12 Indirect object

Indirect object tells to or for whom something is done. For examples:

13 Indirect object

Indirect object tells to or for whom something is done. For examples: *Bill gives us a paper of socks*

The term complement is used with different meanings. Complement can be classified into two; they are:

- Subject complement

Subject complement tells more about the subject by means of the verb. The pattern is Subject + Verb + complement. For instance:

Mr. Jenner is a management consultant. She looks well

- Object complement

Object complement tells more about the object by means of the verb. The pattern is Subject + Verb + Object + Complement. For instance:

We elected him chairman.

He paints the house white.

Tree Diagram

Tree diagram is a form of graph used to represent the syntactic structure of a phrase or sentence (Radford, 2009: 483). The sentence is considered the basic of the syntactic system. Instead of beginning with actual sentences, however we begin with the directions for generating or producing structural descriptions of sentences, which are set forth in phrase structure rules. The rules should be interpreted as an instruction to rewrite or expand the symbol on the left of the arrows as the sequence on the right. In S → NP + VP, "S" stands for sentence, "NP" (Noun Phrase) and "VP" (Verb Phrase). The item on the left dominates the elements on the right.

CHAPTER 6
WORDS

Every word that is spoken, a conversation, an article or even a story is collection of words. Word is unbound morphemes are the other name for free morphemes, the morphemes can stand alone as words. words are categorize into classes that usually called as word classes. According to Payne (2011:67), traditionally word classes, or "parts of speech," such as nouns, verbs, prepositions, etc., are considered to be classes in the lexicon. They have sometimes been called "lexical classes," or "lexical categories.", those are :

6.1 Noun

The class of nouns includes words that typically refer to entities that have clear boundaries and are easily distinguished from their environments, e.g., tree, king, mausoleum, etc. There are subclasses of English nouns, such as countable and uncountable nouns, proper names and common nouns, concrete and abstract nouns, and collective nouns. For plural nouns in English, the countable nouns added by 's' whereas in Bahasa Indonesia, it can be showed by duplicating its noun.

6.2 Verbs

Verbs are words describe visible events that produce changes in the world, e.g., die, run, break, cook, explode, etc. There are subclasses of verbs, such as (a) states

(proud, fair); (b) a process (undergo); (c) motion (go); (d) position (stand, sit); (e) action (dance, sing, read); (f) cognition (think, understand,learn); (g) sensation (smell,fell,taste); (h) emotion (love, like, fear); (i) utterance verb (speak, talk, say); (j) manipulation verb (permit, forbid, allow).

There are forms of English verbs with a representative set of example verbs such as:

The bare form: walk, go, give, sing

The *–s* form: walks, goes, gives, sings

The past tense: walked, went, gave, sang

The past participle: walked, gone, given,sung

The present participle: walking, going, giving, singing

However, in Bahasa Indonesia, many verbs created from affixation process. Yet, Indonesian verbs do not occur the change of verbs as in English like present and past participle. There are also transitive and intransitive verbs, active and passive verbs. As English, Bahasa Indonesia has modal verbs that called auxiliary verbs, refer to such concepts as possibility, ability and necessity for examples: dapat, bisa, boleh, harus, perlu, mampu and so fort.

6.3 Adjectives

An adjective is a word which refers to an attribute such as size (e.g. besar ‘big’, gemuk ‘fat’), colour (e.g. green ‘hijau’), condition (e.g. bersih ‘clean’) or other

characteristics or temperament (baik ‘good’, pandai ‘smart’, senang ‘happy’) or other property concepts. Indonesian adjectives can be produced from affixes. Then, adjectives can modify nouns (example: baju murahan, means shirt with low quality)

6.4 Noun phrase in Bahasa Indonesia

A noun phrase always contains a noun as its head that in Bahasa Indonesia its modifier comes after noun. Here are finding of code-mixing which form noun phrase from some modifiers:

- Indonesian noun + English noun (diskon spareparts)
- Indonesian noun + English adjective (bangku presticious)
- English noun + Indonesian adjective (software ajaib, software ampuh)
- Indonesian noun + English verb (proses download, proses searching, hasil searching)
- English noun + Indonesian noun (traveller dunia)
- English noun + Indonesian ordinal number (post pertama)
- Indonesian noun + English noun phrase (pengguna Mozilla Firefox browser).
-

1. Demonstrative in Bahasa Indonesia

Bahasa Indonesia also has demonstrative such as *ini* 'this', *itu* 'that', *tersebut* 'that' which sometimes shortened into '*tsb*' and so fort. Demonstrative can modifies noun to form noun phrase. The demonstratives below that found in the research, form noun phrase, they are:

- Tsb or tersebut : file tsb, keyword tersebut (English noun + Indonesian demonstrative)
- Ini : software ini (English noun + Indonesian demonstrative).

6.5 The use of WH-

To keep clear, it is important to review about the Indonesian WH Question. Indonesian has quite many question word each of which determine the information needed. The writer, however, choose those which are the most frequently used in standard Indonesian. They are :

1. Siapa

Siapa is used to ask person. It may be used to ask the subject as well as the object of the sentences.

Example :

Nia tinggal bersama Ayah. (subject)

Siapa yang tinggal bersama Ayah?

Who lives with father?

Nia mencari Adi. (object)

Nia mencari siapa?

Who is Nia looking for?

"Siapa can also modify a noun to reveal possessiveness. It comes after the noun".

Example :

Tas siapa yang dia pinjam?

Whose bag do you borrow?

Siapa can also be used after a preposition.

Example :

Dengan siapa Dina Pergi?

Who did Dina go with?

Untuk siapa bingkisan ini?

Whose is this parcel for?

Siapa is also used to ask names of person

Example :

Siapa namamu?

What is your name?

2. Apa

This question word refers to things. It is used to ask the subject as well as the object.

Example :

Andi mengucapkan selamat pagi.

Andi mengucapkan apa?

What did Andi say?

Apa also can be used as a noun modifier which is placed after the noun.

Example :

Buah apa itu?

What fruit is that?

3. Mana

This question word is used for different purposes. Preceded by yang it used when choices are involved.

Example :

Gelasmu yang mana?

Which one is your glass?

Mana can appear after preposition of *di, ke* and dari to ask question about place. Di mana means in what place, ke mana means to what place, darimana means from what place.

Example :

Di mana anda tinggal?

Where do you live?

Ke mana dia pergi?

Where does she go?

Where do we start from?

4. Mengapa

This question word is used to ask reason.

Example :

Mengapa dia menangis?

Why is she crying?

5. Kapan

This question word is used when the answer expected is adverb of time.

Example :

Kapan pestanya mulai?

When does the part start?

6. Bagaimana

This WH Word is used to ask the ondition of someone or something.

Example :

Bagaimana keadaan herman sekarang?

How is Herman now?

Baimana is also used to ask the way something happens or is done.

Example :

Bagimana pencuri itu masuk?

How did the thief get in?

7. Berapa

This question word is used when the answer expected is numeral

Example : *Berapa usiamu?*

How old are you?

Berapa nomor teleponmu?

What is your phone number?

Like English sentences, Indonesian sentences are also constructed in pattern. Indonesian sentences also consist of subject (S) and Predicate (P) with or without Object (O), Complement (C), or Adverbial (Adv). In this part of writing, the writer would like to discuss the pattern of English WH Questions in accordance with the part of the sentence being asked.

1. When the subject is being asked

In this case, there are some alternative constructions. Consider the following example.

Tina di rumah.

Vina sangat pemalu.

Dina sedang memasak.

The underlined words of the sentences above are the subjects. When they are the part to be asked, the sentences will become as follow : *Dari mana kita mulai?*

However, when the predicate is noun, *yang* is not needed

Example :

Bu Ida guru bahasa Inggrisku

Bakso makanan kesukaanku.

The questions will be like these.

When the object is being asked. The underlined words below are the object of the sentences.

Wanita itu mengajar bahasa Inggris.

Gadis itu mencari adiknya.

Ayahnya membuat meja.

When the objects are the part being asked, the sentences wil be :

6.6 The idea of plural

The first idea to be discussed in this paper lies on the idea of plural. Plural here refers to the form of a noun or a verb which refers to more than one person or thing. English expresses plural implicitly by creating patterns how to use –s and –es. Indonesian on the other hand expresses plural explicitly. No definite rules how to create a plural form of a word except by reduplicating it, e.g rumah-rumah, mobil-mobil.

CHAPTER 7
AFFIXES

7.1 Linguistic units

Linguistics can be defined as the systematic inquiry into human language belonging its structures and uses and the relationship between them also the language development and acquisition (Finegan , 2008:22).

It means that Linguistic units are parts in linguistic which ordered from smallest to largest unit including its branches such as morphology, syntax, semantic, and so fort.

There are several various linguistic units in English and Bahasa Indonesia, as follows

a. Affixes

Not all the words are independent. Frequently, base words need to be attached by affixes so that can be used in a language. Bokamba (Ayeomoni, 2006:91) opines affixes can be called as bound morphemes. While morpheme is a set of signs, where morph is an elementary segmental sign (Mel'cuk, 2006:24).

- *Affixes are devided into suffixes and prefixes. Suffixes always follow the stems they attach to, such as 'plural' in girls and –ment in commitment.*
- *Prefixes attach to the front of stem, such as un in untrue, dis in disappear, and re in repaint. There are also suffixes and prefixes that attach to one similar stem and they are affixes.*"
- . Affixes which come before stem called as 'prefixes' and which come after stem called 'suffixes'. Both English and Bahasa Indonesia have affixes, including prefixes and suffixes.

Here are some examples of affixes both in English and Bahasa Indonesia,

English		**Bahasa Indonesia**	
Prefixes	Suffixes	Prefixes	Suffixes
a-	-er	di-	-kan
Dis-	-ment	Me-	-an
En-	-ness	Ter-	-nya
Mis-	-ship	Se-	-i
Non-	-ing	Ke-	
Pre-	-y	Per-	

The patterns of various linguistic units occurs as the affixes in the following:

2. Prefix Me-

Prefix Me- is prefix in Bahasa Indonesia which experiences allomorphy process. According to Booij (2005:31), allomorphy is the phenomenon that a morpheme may have more than one shape, corresponds with more than one morph. A morph is a particlar phonological form of a morpheme. Allomorphy is found in both affixes and root morphemes including morphemes in Bahasa Indonesia.

Prefixes Me- can be Mem-, Men-, Meng- and Meny-.

- Prefix Me- + English verb

Examples:

meng + upload, meng + check, meng + run, meng + update, meng + instal men + download,

In Bahasa Indonesia, the prefix ‘nge’ is informal prefix which has the same function with prefix ‘me’. It forms ‘verb’. The adding verb ‘ upload’ does not change word class because in Bahasa Indonesia the prefix ‘ nge’ showing ‘Indonesian verb’. Bahasa Indonesia has its own word for ‘ upload, check, run and update’ those are ‘mengunggah, mengecek, berlari, memperbaharui’. Whereas the suffix –ing in ‘running’ and ‘posting’ indicates active participle which means the activity doing at that time. So there is no change of word class in the words ‘ngerunning’ and ‘ngeposting’ as well.

- Prefix me- + English Noun

Examples:

Nge + drugs, nge + mail

In Indonesian-English code-mixing, some English nouns can be added into Indonesian prefix ‘nge-‘ (me-) and they change into active verb. Prefix ‘nge’ can change word classes of the word ‘drugs’ and ‘mail’ from nouns into verbs.

- Prefix me- + English verb + English adjective

Example: mempause remote

Prefix me- added by english combination between verb ‘pause’ and ‘adjective ‘remote’. When they are mixed, it indicates the action stopping something in a certain distance. This order forms verb in Bahasa Indonesia.

3. Prefix *Ter*-

Example:

Ter- + publish

As explained by Djenar (2005:93) verbs are prefixed by *ter*- are stative verbs which indicating no action. In this research, the writer found the code-mixing ‘terpublish’ which prefix *ter*- combined with English verb ‘publish’. In this mixing, prefix *ter*- represents the ability of publishing something and Terpublish

means get something published. So when they are mixed, it does not change the word class.

4. Prefix *Di-*

Examples:

Di- + recover, di- + download, di- + save

According to Sneddon (2010:116) Prefix di- forms passive verb which refers to an action. The base word ‘recover’ is active verb and when it put in prefix di- , it becomes passive verb. Because of the words ‘recover’ ; ‘download’ and ‘save’ are verbs, so there is no word class change.

5. Prefix Se-

Example :

Se- + cool

Prefix se- in Bahasa Indonesia has function to form equative adjective phrase wich means one thing is similar to another in equality indicated by adjective or ‘having the same with’. So, when prefix se- attaches an adjective cool, it means ‘as cool as’. Prefix ‘se-‘ changes word class of the adjective ‘cool’ into adjective phrase.

6. Suffix -nya

- English noun + suffix –nya

Example: installer + nya, background + nya.

The word ‘instaler’ is a noun which derived from a verb ‘instal’ by adding suffix –er which indicates someone who installing something. While, background is compound noun. Both of those words added by suffix –nya which can be similar with ‘the’. So, ‘Instalernya’ and ‘backgroundnya’ point to certain thing and the suffix ‘-nya’ on those mixings changes word class of the words ‘instaler’ and

‘background’ into noun phrase because noun in Bahasa Indonesia can be modified by demonstrative that forms noun phrase.

- English Verb + Indonesian Noun + suffix-nya

Example : yield sistem + nya.

Yield is a verb and it is a term in chemical study. The pattern of ‘yield sistem’ comes from English pattern. But the word ‘sistem’ in Indonesian word which borrowed from English itself. The sufix –nya indicates pointing yield sistem. The words order form Indonesian noun phrase although the words choosing are mixing for English- Bahasa Indonesia.

- English Noun + English Verb + suffix –nya

Example : link download + nya

it seems like the case of yield sistemnya. The different is only in the word ‘download’ which is English verb.

- English noun phrase + suffix –nya

Example : memory card + nya.

Noun phrase ‘memory card’ consist of head ‘card’ and modifier ‘memory”. While, suffix -nya points to the English noun phrase ’memory card’. The adding of suffix does not change word class because it is still noun phrase.

- Indonesian Noun + English Noun + suffix –nya

Example : karet damper + nya

suffix –nya modifies the noun phrase ‘ karet damper’ (a rubber in a damper). Suffix –nya does not change word class which in this case is noun phrase.

- Indonesian preposition + English noun phrase + suffix –nya

Example: di Mozilla Firefox addonnya.

Preposition ‘di’ shows the position of Mozilla Firefox addon. The word ‘addon’ itself should be ‘add-on’ which indicates noun. ‘Mozilla Firefox addonnya’ can be concluded as noun phrase in Bahasa Indonesia, but when it modifies preposition di, the word class changed into preposition phrase.

- English verb + suffix –nya

Example : loading + nya.

As explained above that suffix –ing can form gerrund, a noun which comes from verb. When it added by suffix –nya, it becomes noun phrase. So, the word class changes.

7. Suffix –an

Example: hotspot + -*an*

Suffix –an in 'hotspot*an*' indicates the activity which related to hotspot (using internet wifi). In Cambridge dictionary, 'hotspot' itself is a noun which means a place where internet is accessible. So, the adding suffix –an in that word changes word class from nun to verb active participle because suffix –*an* indicates the activity.

8. Suffix –ness

Example : galau*ness*

The word galau is a slang adjective that has the same meaning with 'comfused'. Whereas, according to Lieber (2005: 386) suffix –*ness* can change word class from adjective into noun. So, the adjective of 'galau' changes into noun when it added by sufix -ness.

9. Suffix –ing

Example: galauing

As explained above that 'galau' is slang adjective and suffix –ing can form active participle that shows the activity which occuring at that time. So, in this case the adjective of 'galau' changes into verb active participle because it is added by suffix –ing.

10. Preposition ‘*di’*

As described by Sneddon et al, preposition ‘*di*’ is locative preposition which indicates position or direction. When it is followed by noun or noun phrase, it forms prepositional phrase, for examples below:

- Preposition *di* + English noun (*di* + harddisk)
- Preposition *di* + English noun phrase (*di* + pricelist dealer Bajaj).

So there is the change of word class from noun or noun phrase into prepositional phrase.

11. Possessor ‘*ku*’

The singular person *‘aku’* experiences the bound forming into prefix *‘ku-‘* and suffix *‘–ku’* and it occurs as possesive or possessor. When it as suffix modifies a noun or a noun phrase, the wrod class changes into noun phrase.

- English noun + possessor *ku-*

Example: handphone + *ku*, post + *ku*.

- English noun phrase + possessor ‘*gw*’

Example: passing grade gw.

(‘*gw*’ is short form from ‘*aku*’).

5.4 Nouns derived from nouns

Not all derivational processes change word class. English has derivational processes that yield nouns with meanings such as ‘small X’, ‘female X’, ‘inhabitant of X’, ‘state of being an X’ and ‘devotee of or expert on X’. Here are some examples – though by no means a complete list, either of the affixes or of their possible meanings:

(5) ‘small X’: -let,-ette,-ie e.g. droplet,booklet,cigarette,doggie

(6) ‘female X’: -ess,-ine e.g. waitress,princess,heroine

(7) ‘inhabitant of X’: -er,-(i)an e.g. Londoner,New Yorker,Texan,Glaswegian

(8) ‘state of being an X’: -ship,-hood kingship,ladyship,motherhood,priesthood

(9) ‘devotee of or expert on X’: -ist,-ian e.g. contortionist,,Marxist,logician,historian

7.2 Nouns derived from members of other word classes

Nouns derived from adjectives and from verbs are extremely numerous, and it should be easy for you to think of many other examples on the lines of those given here. Here are some suffixes used to derive nouns from adjectives:

(10) -ity, e.g. purity,equality,ferocity,sensitivity

(11) -ness, e.g. goodness,tallness,fierceness,sensitiveness

(12) -ism, e.g. radicalism,conservatism

Some of these nouns are formed from bases other than the free form of the corresponding adjective, e.gfrom feroc- (not ferocious), from conservat- (not conservative). The pattern is fairly general for adjectives in -ious (compare alongside rapacious and capacious) but not absolutely general (for example, to delicious and specious there correspond and not’ or’).

Even more numerous are suffixes for deriving nouns from verbs. Here are just a few:

(13) -ance,-ence, e.g. performance,ignorance,reference,convergence

(14) -ment, e.g. announcement,commitment,development,engagement

(15) -ing, e.g. painting,singing,building,ignoring

(16) -((a)t)ion, e.g. denunciation,commission,organisation,confusion

(17) -al, e.g. refusal,arrival,referral,committal

(18) -er, e.g. painter,singer,organiser,grinder

7.3 Adjectives derived from adjectives

In this category, prefixes predominate. The only suffix of note is -ish, meaning 'somewhat X', as in 'rather remote'. By contrast, the prefix un- meaning 'not' is extremely widespread: for example, Because it is so common, most dictionaries do not attempt to list all un- adjectives. This does not mean, however, that un- can be prefixed to all adjectives quite freely; we do not find, for example,' with the meaning 'bad' (though George Orwell included that word in the Newspeak vocabulary devised for Nineteen Eighty-Four). Another negative prefix is in-, with allomorphs indicated by the variant spellings il-,ir-andim-, as in and It is more restricted than un-, largely for historical reasons such as will be discussed in Chapter 9. For the present, it is worth noting the existence of pairs of more or less synonymous adjectives, one of which is negated with un- and the other with in- or one of its allomorphs:

(22) eatable/uneatable edible/inedible readable/unreadable legible/illegible lawful/unlawful legal/illegal touchable/untouchable tangible/intangible

7.4 Adjectives derived from members of other word classes

Some of the processes that derive adjectives from verbs straddle the divide between derivation and inflection in a way that we have not yet encountered. In Chapter 4, we met the suffixes -ed, -en and -ing, and vowel change, in passive and progressive participle forms of verbs. However, such forms (in italics in

(23)) can also be adjectives:

(23) a. a not very interesting book

b. The party-goers sounded very drunk.

c. The car seemed more damaged than the lamp-post.

The modifier veryand the comparative construction (more … than) show that interesting, drunk and damaged are adjectives here, not forms of the verb lexemes.

Further suffixes that commonly form adjectives from verbs, with their basic meanings, are:

(24) -able ‘able to be Xed’: breakable,readable,reliable,watchable

(25) -ent,-ant ‘tending to X’: repellent,expectant,conversant

(26) -ive ‘tending to X’: repulsive,explosive,speculative

7.5 Verbs derived from verbs

This section is unusual in that all the affixes that I will mention in it are prefixes. Most prominent are re- and the negative or ‘reversive’ prefixes un-, de- and dis-, as in the following examples: (31) paint, enter repaint, re-enter

(32) tie, tangle untie, untangle

(33) compose, sensitise decompose, desensitize

(34) entangle, believe disentangle, disbelieve The prefix re- has already figured in our discussion in Chapter 2 of the relationship between morphemes and meaning. Semantically, the examples in

(31)–(34) are mostly straightforward, although those with de- are less so: to decompose is not to undo the creative work of a musical composer! Also worth mentioning here is the relationship between the verbs in the left and right columns in

(35): (35) Intransitive Transitive (past lay (past laid) (past rose) (past raised) (past fell) (past felled) (past sat) (past set) Transitive verbs (or verbs used transitively) are ones with an ‘object’ noun phrase, usually indicating the thing or person that is the goal of the action of the verb, as the book is the object of laid in

(36a). Intransitive verbs, such as lay in

(36b), lack such an object.

(36) a. Jill laid the book on the table.

b. The book lay on the table.

The transitive verbs in (35) are all causative, that is they mean ‘cause to X’, where X stands for the meaning of the corresponding intransitive. Causative–incausative verb-pairs are common in English, but they nearly all involve conversion, as in (37), rather than either affixation or the kind of vowel change seen in (35):

(37) a. Jill boiled the water.

b. The water boiled.

7.6 Headed and headless compounds

The AN compounds given at (15) included faintheartalongsideblackboard and greenstone. However, whereas a greenstone is a kind of stone and a blackboard is a kind ofboard, a faintheart is not a kind ofheart but a kind of person – someone who has a faint heart, metaphorically

A few VN-type compound nouns resemble secondary compounds in that the noun at the right is interpreted as the object of the verb:

(18) pickpocket, killjoy, cutpurse

Both expectations turn out to be correct. Some nouns consist of a verb and a preposition or adverb:

(19) take-off, sell-out, wrap-up, sit-in

we saw that nouns are sometimes formed from verbs by conversion, that is with no affix. The nouns at (19) can be seen as a special case of this, where the base is a verb plus another word (sometimes constituting a lexical item), as illustrated in (20):

(20) a. The plane took off at noon.

b. The chairman wrapped the meeting up.

c. The students sat in during the discussion. As for headless adjectives, there are quite a number consisting of a preposition and a noun:

(21) overland, in-house, with-profits, offshore, downmarket, upscale, underweight,over-budget

The adjectival status ofthese compounds can often be confirmed by their appropriateness in comparative contexts and with the modifier very:

(22) a. They live in a very downmarket neighbourhood.

b. This year's expenditure is even more over-budget than last year's.

The fact that the word class of these headless compounds is not determined by any element inside them (that they have no internal 'centre', one might say) has led some grammarians to call them exocentric – that is, having a 'centre' outside themselves, figuratively speaking. According to this approach, headed compounds would be regarded as having an internal 'centre'; and, sure enough, they are sometimes called endocentric.

CHAPTER 8

Semantics

8.1 Defenition of Semantics

Semantics, the study of word meaning and sentence meaning, abstracted away from contexts of use, is a descriptive subject. It is an attempt to describe and understand the nature of the knowledge about meaning in their language that people have from knowing the language. It is not a prescriptive enterprise with an interest in advising or pressuring speakers or writers into abandoning some meanings and adopting others (though pedants can certainly benefit from studying the semantics of a language they want to lay down rules about, to become clear on what aspects of conventional meaning they dislike and which they favour). A related point is that one can know a language perfectly well without knowing its history. While it is fascinating to find out about the historical currents and changes that explain why there are similarities in the pronunciations or spellings of words that share similarities in meaning –

for example: *arms*$_{\text{body parts}}$, *arms*$_{\text{weapons}}$, *army*, *armada* and *armadillo* – this kind of knowledge is not essential for using present-day English, so it is not covered in this book. Historical linguists investigating language change over time sometimes concern themselves with semantic (and pragmatic) matters. They are then doing historical (linguistic) semantics (and/or pragmatics).

Semantic description of language knowledge is different from the encyclopedia maker's task of cataloguing general knowledge. The words *tangerine* and *clementine* illustrate distinctions that are not part of our knowledge of English, but rather a fruiterer's kind of expertise, which some other people also know, but

which most users of English do not have to know. As long as they are aware that these are citrus fruits, they do not need English lessons on this point.

8.2 Propositions

Different sentences can carry the same meaning, as in (1.12a–c).

(1.12 a. Sharks hunt seals.
b. Seals are hunted by sharks.
c. Seals are prey to sharks.
d. These chase and kill these others.

Proposition is the term for a kind of core sentence meaning, the abstract idea that remains the same in cases such as (1.12a–c). Propositions in this technical sense are very abstract, not tied to particular words or sentences: the proposition carried by (1.12a, b) can be expressed without using the verb *hunt*, as shown in (1.12c). A young child who is unsure about which are seals and which are sharks could, while watching a (somewhat gory) nature programme, point at sharks and seals, respec-tively, for the two occurrences of *these* in (1.12d) and, without using any of the words in (1.12a–c), bring the same proposition into play.

The only feature that all **propositions** have – and this is a litmus test for propositions – is that it is reasonable to wonder whether they are true or false. I am not saying that anybody need be well enough informed to know for certain whether or not a given proposition is true, just that propositions are, in principle, either true or false. I have been told that the proposition in (1.12a–c) is true. I think it is, but notice that we have to know what is being spoken or written about before we can judge whether a proposition is true or false. The proposition expressed by

a sentence is not known until an explicature has been worked out for it: reference and ambiguities both cleared up using contextual information. The expli-catures for generic sentences such (1.12a–c) are relatively easy to get at: something like ‘for all typical sharks and all typical seals, when they are engaging in typical behaviour, the former hunt the latter’. That is why I presented generic sentences to start with. But with (1.12d) you would need to know what is referred to by “These” and “these others” before it becomes sensible to ask whether it is true, and that is going to require information about the particular context in which an utterance based on the sentence is used.

The sentences in (1.12) (and very many others in this book) are declaratives, the sentence pattern on which **statements** (utterances that explicitly convey factual information) are based. Once they have been explicated, it is easy to see that they express propositions, because re-actions such as the following can reasonably be made to them: “Yes, that’s true” or “That’s a lie” or “Is that really true?” Utterances based on some other sentence patterns cannot comfortably be reacted to like this. Try imaginary conversations in which such responses are made to examples like those in (1.13) (for example: A “What’s your name?” B “That’s a lie.”).

(1.13) a. What’s your name?
b. Please help me.

Even though most conceivable explicatures of the sentences in (1.13) would not express propositions, they nonetheless involve propositions. The question in (1.13a) carries a proposition with a gap ‘addressee’s name is ___’ and cooperative addressees supply their name to fill the gap. The request (1.13b) presents a proposition ‘addressee help sender’ and the sender hopes that the addressee will

act to make that proposition come true. (See the section on speech acts in Chapter 8, for more about non-declaratives, such as the examples in (1.13).)

Ambiguities are another reason for needing the concept of propo-sitions. Example (1.14) can express, at least, two different propositions because *right* is ambiguous: 'correct' or 'right-hand'.

(1.14) She took the right turn

8.3 Compositionality

We need to account for sentence meaning in order to develop expla-nations of utterance meaning, because utterances are sentences put to use. The number of sentences in a human language is potentially infinite; so our account cannot be a list of all the sentences with an interpretation written next to each one. We have to generalise, to try to discover the principles that enable people to choose sentences that can, as utterances in particular contexts, have the intended meanings and that make it possible for their addressees to understand what they hear or read.

The examples in (1.16) show something similar in the construction of words from morphemes – similar but not identical, because this is not addition and multiplication, but an operation of negation or reversal performed by the prefix *un-*, and the formation of "capability" adjectives by means of the suffix *-able*.

(1.16) a. *un*(*lock able*) 'not able to be locked' b. (*un lock*)*able* 'able to be unlocked'

The analysis indicated by the brackets in (1.16a) could describe a locker with a broken hasp. The one in (1.16b) could describe a locked locker for which the key has just been found. The brackets indicate the **scope** of the operations: which parts of the representation *un-* and *-able* operate on. In (1.16a) *un-* operates on *lockable*, but *-able* operates only on *lock*. In (1.16b) *un-* operates on just *lock*, and *-able* operates on *unlock*. The meaning differences based on scope differences in (1.16) are not a quirk of the word – or pair of words – *unlockable*. The same bracketing will yield corresponding meanings for *unbendable*, *unstickable* and a number of others.

In syntax too there can be differences in meaning depending on the order that operations apply. Example (1.17a) is an unambiguous sentence. It covers the case of someone who was awake for two days. But (1.17b), containing the same words, is ambiguous, either meaning the same as (1.17a) or applying to someone who was asleep, but not for two days (possibly for only two hours or maybe for three days).

(1.17) a. For two days, I didn't sleep.

b. I didn't sleep for two days.

'for two days (it was not so (that I slept))'

'for two days (it was not so (that I slept))''it is not so (that for two days (I slept))'

The 'meanings' indicated to the right of the examples are not in a standard notation. They are there to informally suggest how the overall meanings are built up. In (1.17a) the listener or reader first has to consider a negation of sleeping and

then to think about that negative state – wake-fulness – continuing for two days. To understand the second meaning given for (1.17b), first think what it means to sleep for two days, then cancel that idea. Syntactically, *for two days* is an adjunct in (1.17a) and also for the first of the meanings shown for (1.17b). When it is a complement to *slept*, we get the second meaning of (1.17b). Try saying (1.17b) with stress on *two* if you initially find the second meaning difficult to get.

The interpretations in (1.17) are not one-off facts regarding a par-ticular sentence about sleeping – or not sleeping – for two days. Other sentences involving the operation of negation and a prepositional phrase that is either an adjunct or a complement have corresponding meanings.
For instance,
when we lived in a village some distance from town, I once overheard a member of my family say (1.18) over the phone (1.18) I won't be in town until 4 o'clock.

or'until 4 p.m. (it is not so (that (I be in town))'it is not so (that until 4 p.m. (I be in town))

8.4 Entailment

Entailment is a centrally important type of inference in semantics. While the pragmatic inferences called explicatures and implicatures are can-cellable (as pointed out near the end of Section 1.1.3), an **entailment** is a guarantee.
Notation
⇒ represents entailment

Using the notation ⇒ for entailment, (1.19a) indicates that when *The accommodation was excellent* is true, we can be sure that it (the same accommodation at the same point in time) was very good. The statement in (1.19b) signifies that if it was excellent, it was (at least) good; and (1.19c) signifies that it was (at least) OK.

(1.19) a. The accommodation was excellent ⇒ The accommodation was very good

b. The accommodation was excellent ⇒ The accommodation was good
c. The accommodation was excellent ⇒ The accommodation was OK

Strictly speaking, **entailment** holds between propositions (see Section 1.3.1). However, explicated utterances based on declarative sentences express propositions and no great harm will come from the shortcut of thinking about a sentence as entailing other sentences (provided each sentence is considered in just one of its meanings, which amounts to it being an explicated utterance (see Section 1.1.2)).

Contrast the cancellability of the 'not all that good' guess that A made in (1.5) with the certainty of the inferences in (1.19).
The examples in (1.20) illustrate further points about entailment:

(1.20) a. Moira has arrived in Edinburgh.

b. Moira is in Edinburgh.
c. Moira has arrived in Edinburgh ⇒ Moira is in Edinburgh
d. *Moira has arrived in Edinburgh and she is not in Edinburgh.

When (1.20a) is true we can be sure that (1.20b) is also true (provided it is the same Moira and the same city). This is shown in (1.20c) as a state-ment about entailment. Attempting to cancel an entailment leads to contradiction, as in (1.20d). If the first clause in (1.20d) is true, it entails the proposition expressed by a non-negative version of the *and …* clause. Tacking on the negative clause yields a contradiction.

Examples (1.21a, b) show other entailments of (1.20a).

(1.21) a. Moira has arrived in Edinburgh ⇒ Moira is not in Birmingham

Moira has arrived in Edinburgh ⇒ Moira went to Edinburgh The word *arrived* is an important contributor to (1.20a) having the entailments shown. For instance, if *lived* or *been* were substituted for *arrived,* the entailments would be different. If someone not fully pro-ficient in English asks what *arrive,* means, a sentence like (1.20a) could be given as an example, explaining that it means that Moira journeyed from somewhere else (Birmingham perhaps) and is now in Edinburgh. (The construction with *has* in (1.20a), called present perfect in grammar books, is crucial to the entailment in (1.20c); see Chapter 6.)

b. If (1.20a) is understood and accepted as true, then none of the entail-ments in (1.20c) and (1.21a, b) needs to be put into words. They follow if (1.20a) is true; they can be inferred from it; they derive from the meaning of *arrive*. It would be fair to say that the main point of choosing which words to use when talking or writing is to select among entailments. The **sense** of a word can now be defined in terms of the particular entailment possibilities that sentences get from containing that word: whatever aspects of the word's meaning are responsible for the

sentences having those entailments are its sense. (Chapters 2, 3 and 4 explore the senses of different kinds of word. The notion of entailment will appear again in all chapters.)

8.5 Synonyms

Synonymy is equivalence of sense. The nouns *mother*, *mom* and *mum* are synonyms (of each other). When a single word in a sentence is replaced by a **synonym** – a word equivalent in sense – then the literal meaning of the sentence is not changed: *My mother's/mum's/mom's family name was Christie*. Sociolinguistic differences (such as the fact that *mom* and *mum* are informal, and that *mom* would typically be used by speakers of North American English while *mum* has currency in British English) are not relevant, because they do not affect literal meaning. (As explained in Chapter 1, literal meaning is abstracted away from contexts of use.)

Sentences with the same meaning are called **paraphrases**. Sentences (2.2a, b) are paraphrases. They differ only by intersubstitution of the synonyms *impudent* and *cheeky*.

(2.2) a. Andy is impudent.

b. Andy is cheeky.

c. (2.2a ⇒ 2.2b) & (2.2b ⇒ 2.2a)

d. *Andy is impudent but he isn't cheeky.

e. *Andy is cheeky but he isn't impudent.

(Remember that ⇒ represents entailment, and an asterisk at the begin-ning of a sentence signals that it has serious meaning problems.)

Sentence (2.2a), if it is true, entails – guarantees the truth of – sentence

(2.2b), provided it is the same Andy at the same point in time. When
(2.2a) is true, (2.2b) must also be true. To establish paraphrase we have to do more, however, than show that one sentence entails another: the entailment has to go both ways, (2.2a) entails (2.2b) and it is also the case that (2.2b) entails (2.2a), as summarised in (2.2c). In normal discourse,[1] both (2.2d) and (2.2e) are contradictions, because entailments cannot be cancelled. When an entailed sentence is false, sentences that entail it cannot be true.

What has been said about the synonyms *impudent* and *cheeky* can be employed in two different directions. One way round, if you are doing a semantic description of English and you are able to find paraphrases such as (2.2a, b) differing only in that one has *cheeky* where the other has *impu-dent*, then you have evidence that these two adjectives are synonyms of each other. Alternatively, if someone else's description of the semantics of English lists *impudent* and *cheeky* as synonyms, that would tell you that they are predicting that sentences such as (2.2a, b) are paraphrases of one

8.6 Antonyms

The term antonymy is sometimes employed to mean any kind of oppo-siteness. I follow the practice of most semanticists in applying it to one particular sort of opposition, exemplified by *noisy* and *silent* in (2.8).

(2.8) a. The street was noisy.

b. The street was silent.

2.2.3 Antonyms

The term antonymy is sometimes employed to mean any kind of oppo-siteness. I follow the practice of most semanticists in applying it to one particular sort of opposition, exemplified by *noisy* and *silent* in (2.8).

(2.8) a)The street was noisy.

b)The street was silent

Imagine a complaint to the mayor that a particular street is noisy. The mayor denies this and the complainant then says "Well, it's not silent". The mayor can reasonably respond by saying "Agreed, but it is not noisy either". There is a middling range of sound levels that are not loud enough to count as *noisy*, but that also cannot be said to be *silent*/*noiseless*.

a) Some other antonym pairs are listed in (2.9).

8.7 Converses

A general feature of the members of antonym pairs is that they have what grammarians term comparative forms, with the comparative suffix *-er* (*thicker*, *poorer*, *humbler*, for instance) or in the construction *more* + adjec-tive (for example, *more humble*, *more patient*, *more obstinate*, with some words, like *humble*, forming the comparative by either method). The comparative forms of an antonym pair have an interesting sense relation between them, called converseness. The pair {*richer*, *poorer*} is used as an illustra-tion in (2.10).

(2.10) a. California is richer than some countries.

b. Some countries are poorer than California.

is concerned with the labelling of sub-categories of a word's denotation: what kinds of Xs are there and what different kinds of entities count as Ys. For example, a *house* is one kind of *building*, and a *factory* and a *church* are other kinds of *building*; *buildings* are one kind of *structure*; *dams* are another kind of *structure*.

The pattern of entailment that defines hyponymy is illustrated in (3.8).

(3.8) a. There's a house next to the gate.

b. There's a building next to the gate.

c. (3.8a ⇒ 3.8b) & ~~(3.8b ⇒ 3.8a)~~

If it is true that there is a house next to the gate, then (with respect to the same gate at the same point in history) it must be true that there is a building next to the gate; it cannot be otherwise. On the other hand, if we are given (3.8b) as true information, then we cannot be sure that (3.8a) is true. It might be true, but there are other possibilities: the building next to the gate could be a barn or any other kind of building. That is why the second half of (3.8c) has been scored out; to show that – though it could follow – (3.8a) does not have to follow from (3.8b). Terminology: *building* is a superordinate[2] for *house* and nouns labelling other kinds of building. *House, barn, church, factory, hangar* and so forth are hyponyms of *building*.

It is possible to generalise about the pattern shown in (3.8): a sentence, such as (3.8a), containing a **hyponym** of a given superordinate entails a sentence that differs from the original one only in that the **super-ordinate** has been substituted for its hyponym, as in (3.8b). The sentence with the hyponym entails the corresponding sentence with the super-ordinate replacing it, but the entailment goes one way only – not from the sentence containing the superordinate. This generalisation is not water-tight. There are some other conditions that would have to be stated, for instance the sentences must not be negative. With reference back to (3.8), if we knew that it was true that *there isn't a building next to the gate*, then we could be sure that (talking about the same gate at the same time) *there isn't a house next to the gate*. Because of the negative, *n't*, the entailment goes the other way round: from the sentence with the superodinate to the corre-sponding one with the hyponym. Incidentally, this highlights the fact that there being a building by the gate is a necessary condition for there to be a house by the gate. If there is no building at the gate, then there cannot be a house there. Intuitively it is

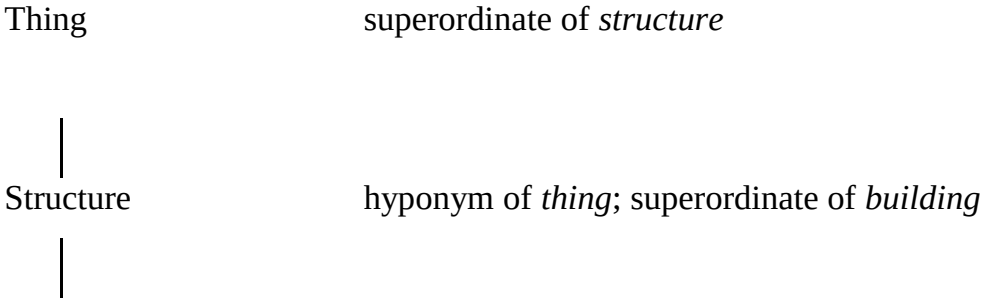
reasonable to say that ‘building’ is a component of the meaning of *house*: a *house* is a ‘building for living in’.

8.8 Hierarchies of hyponyms

Hyponym is the meaning of its immediate superordinate elaborated by a modifier; so the meaning of *house* is the meaning of *building* modified, in this case by the modifier ‘for living in’. Because *building* is itself a hyponym one level below *structure*, its meaning is that of *structure* plus a modifier, ‘with walls and a roof ’; and so on.

Figure 3.5 shows more of the hyponym hierarchy for nouns in English, though still only a small fraction of it. (Compound words like *garden tool* and *postgraduate* enter into semantic relations in the same way as simple words do.)

House is a hyponym of the superordinate *building*, but *building* is, in turn, a hyponym of the superordinate *structure*; and, in its turn, *structure* is a hyponym of the superordinate *thing*. A superordinate at a given level can itself be a hyponym at a higher level, as shown in Figure 3.2.



Building	hyponym of *structure*; superordinate of *house*
|	
House	hyponym of *building*

Figure 3.2 Superordinates can be hyponyms and vice versa

The hyponymy relation passes through intermediate levels in the hierarchy, which means that *house* is not only a hyponym of *building* , but is also a hyponym of *building*'s immediate superordinate, *structure*; and, via *structure*, *house* is also a hyponym of *thing*. *Thing* is a superordinate for all the words on lines that can be traced down from it in the hierarchy, and so on, as shown in Figure 3.3.

thing	superordinate of *structure*, *building* and
|	*house* (and some other words)
structure	hyponym of *thing*; superordinate of *building*
|	and *house* (and some other words)
building	hyponym of *thing* and *structure*; superordinate
|	of *house* (and some other words)
house	hyponym of *thing*, *structure* and *building*; superordinate of some other words

Figure 3.3 Hyponymy passes through intermediate levels

The significance of hyponymy passing through intermediate levels is that a hierarchy of this kind guarantees numerous inferences. Thus if someone who is speaking the truth tells us about a house, we know, with certainty and without having to ask, that the entity in question is a build-ing, that it is a structure and that it is a thing.

The phrase *and some other words* is used in Figure 3.3 because the diagram shows only a fragment of the hierarchy. There are other kinds of *thing* besides *structures* (for example, *plants* are *things*); there are other

hyponyms of a word immediately superordinate to them are not only incompatible with each other but are also incom-patible with hyponyms of their higher-level superordinates. The lists in (3.10) can be used to illustrate this.

(3.10)

Superordinate	Hyponyms
drinking vessel	glass, cup, mug
glass	wineglass, martini glass, tumbler
cup	coffee cup, tea cup
mug	coffee mug, beer mug

A *tea cup* is not only not a *coffee cup* or any other kind of *cup*. It is also not a *glass* or a *mug*, nor any of the hyponyms of *glass* or *mug*. It might seem that this is

boringly obvious: no given thing can be something else. That is not true, however. A *cup* can be a *present*, a *possession*, a *piece of crockery* and various other things.

Incompatibility is not pure unconstrained difference. Incompatibility is difference against a background of similarity. Remember that hypo-nyms of any superordinate have as their meaning the meaning of the superordinate plus some modification, for instance a *tumbler* is a 'glass without a stem' and a *glass* is a 'drinking vessel made of glass'. In the meaning given here for *tumbler*, the modifier 'without a stem' records the difference between a *tumbler* and other *glasses*, and 'glass' represents the similarity that the meaning of *tumbler* has with the meanings of *wine-glass, martini glass* and all the other kinds of *glasses*.

3.4 Count nouns and mass nouns

In the grammar of English, there is a clear distinction between count nouns, exemplified by *loaf* and *coin* in Table 3.2, and mass nouns, exem-plified by *bread* and *money*. The whole noun vocabulary divides into words that are almost always count nouns (*garment* for instance), ones that are almost always mass nouns (like *clothing*) and ambiguous ones which can be used as either mass or count nouns (like *cake*).

The question marks in Table 3.2 are there because of a special use allowable with some mass nouns, as when *bread* is taken to denote 'distinct variety of bread'. For example, one might say of a bakery that it produces

CHAPTER 9
Pragmatics

9.1 Definition of Pragmatics

People cannot really understand the nature of a language unless they understand how it is used in communication. It is important for people to understand language because it always expresses ideas, thoughts, feeling, and the speaker's intention. One branch of linguistics which studies language as being used is called pragmatics.

There are some points of view on pragmatics. According to Yule (1996:3), firstly, pragmatics is the study of utterances as communicated by a speaker and interpreted by a hearer. Secondly, pragmatics is the study of contextual meaning. It requires a consideration of how a speaker organizes what he or she wants to say. Thirdly, pragmatics is the study of how the hearer gets the implicit meaning of the speaker's utterances. The last, pragmatics is the study of the expression of a relative distance. It is assumed as the study of the relationship between linguistics forms and the users of those forms.

In addition, Leech (1983:6) states that pragmatics is the study of meaning which is related to the speech situations. Further he explains that

pragmatics can be seen as a way to solve problems which can arise, both from the perspective of a speaker and a hearer. For example from the speaker's point of view, the problem is the planning about how to produce an utterance. On the other hand, from the hearer's point of view, the problem is related to the interpretation, which forces the hearer to be able to interpret the possible reason that makes the speaker saying the utterance.

Meanwhile, Mey (1993:42) considers pragmatics as the study of human language uses' condition, which has a close relationship with the context of society. Similarly, Levinson (1983:5) states that pragmatics is the study of the use of language in communication. In this study, people try to see the relation between language and contexts.

In conclusion, pragmatics is the study of meaning of utterances in relation to the contexts which involves how a speaker produces an utterance to deliver his or her intention and how the listener interprets it.

9.2 The Scopes of Pragmatics

As one of linguistics branches, pragmatics covers several scopes; they are deixis, cooperative principles, implicature, presupposition and speech acts.

9.2.1.1 Deixis

Deixis is concerned with the way of how language encodes features of utterances' context and also with the ways of interpreting those utterances (Levinson, 1983: 54).

Another definition of deixis is proposed by Yule (1996: 9). He states that the word deixis comes from from a Greek word, to point something via language, and then he classifies it into three categories (1996: 10-14):

9.2.1.1.1 Person Deixis

Person deixis is used to point to people, for example the pronouns for first person ('I'), second person ('you'), and third person ('he', 'she', or 'it'). In many languages, this type of deixis is related to the social status (for example, addressee with a higher status versus addressee with a lower status). Expressions which indicate a higher status are described as honorifics.

9.2.1.1.2 Spatial Deixis

The second type of deixis is spatial deixis, which is used to point to location. The examples are the adverbs 'here', 'there', 'this' and 'that'.

9.2.1.1.3 Temporal Deixis

The last category of deixis proposed by Yule is temporal deixis, which is used to point to location in time. This includes time adverbs like ‘now’, ‘then’, ‘soon’, and etc.

9.2.1.2 Cooperative Principle

People use cooperative principles as their guidance, which usually performs between the speakers and hearers when they are involve in conversational interactions. According to Grice (in Leech, 1983: 7-8), “there is a general assumption underpinning all utterance interpretations”. Those interpretations are influenced by a cooperative principle in which a speaker and hearer are connected into the same goals. This cooperative principle is structured by a number of maxims.

9.2.1.2.1 Maxim of Quality

The maxim of quality requires the speakers to be truthful.

They should not make statement for which they have no evidence.

9.2.1.2.2 Maxim of Quantity

The maxim of quantity emphasizes the importance of information. The information delivered by the speaker should be informative (neither too little, nor too much) to make sure that the conversation will be able to proceed.

9.2.1.2.3 Maxim of Relation

This type of maxim forces the speaker to create a relevant statement which is related to the topic.

9.2.1.2.4 Maxim of Manner

The maxim of manner is done by the speaker by creating a clear and brief statement. He or she also has to avoid absurdity and ambiguity of expression.

9.2.1.3 Implicature

Grice (in Levinson, 1983: 31) defines implicature as "what the speaker can imply, suggest or mean as distict from what the speaker litteraly says". Thus, to understand a speaker's message, the hearer should be able to guess the intended meaning because sometimes the speaker delivers information more than what she or he is really said. The speaker may deliver the message both explicitly and implicitly. Grice (in Levinson, 1983: 127-128) then divides implicature into two, namely conventional implicature and conversational implicature.

9.2.1.3.1 Conventional Implicature

Conventional implicature happens when a true fact is being said in a misleading way by the speaker. It is also related to specific words and those words may carry additional conveyed meaning when they are used (Yule, 1996: 45). In addition, this type is not based on

pragmatic principles or maxims, and it does not need special context for its interpretation.

9.2.1.3.2 Conversational Implicature

The other type of implicature based on the maxims and contexts is a conversational implicature. It happens when a speaker meaning can differ from what is said, depending on the context of the conversation. There are two types of conversational implicature based on Grice's theory, they are generalized and particularized conversational implicature (Grice in Levinson, 1983: 126-129).

9.2.1.3.2.1 Generalized Conversational Implicature

According to Yule (1996: 41) this implicature happens when the hearer does not need to have a special knowledge to estimate the additional conveyed meaning. For the example, Doobie asks Mary whether she invites her friends Bella and Cathy to the party or not. Mary answers "I invited Bella". It means that Doobie automatically knows that Mary only invites Bella and she does not invite Cathy.

9.2.1.3.2.2 Particularized Conversational Implicature

A particularized implicature is a conversational implicature which is in contrast with the generalized conversational implicature (Yule, 1996: 42). This implicature happens when the speaker is saying something and implicitly the hearer is giving the

response. So the speaker must be able to interpret the hearer's statement based on the context.

9.2.1.4 Presupposition

Presupposition is treated as the relationship between two propositions. Yule (1996: 25) states that a presupposition is something that the speaker assumes to be the case prior in making an utterance. Meanwhile, Givon (in Brown and Yule, 1983: 29) writes that the notion of presupposition refers to a discourse analysis. It refers to the logical meaning of a sentence.

9.2.1.5 Speech act

Based on Searle's theory, speech acts are "the basic or the minimal units of linguistic communication" (1976:16). Austin adds that speech act refers to an utterance and also the total situation in which the utterance is issued (1960:52). The more explanation about the speech act will be discussed in the next subchapter.

9.2.2 Context of Situation

A situational context or context of situation is an important element in communication. As stated by Leech (1983: 13), context has a great influence and also effect in understanding the meaning of an utterance. Through the context, the speaker and the addressee share

their background in understanding the utterances. Malinowski (in Halliday and Hasan, 1986: 6) defines context of situation as the environment of the text that includes the verbal and the situational environment in which the text is uttered. Holmes (2001: 8) explains that there are some components, in any situation, will be generally reflected by the linguistic choices. They are the participant, the setting or social context of interaction, the topic, and the last is the function.

9.3 Speech Act

9.3.1 Definition of Speech Act

People do not only produce utterances which contain grammatical structure and words when they speak, but also perform action through those utterances. Utterances that perform an action is generally called as speech act (Yule, 1996:47). Similarly, Austin (in Tsui, 1994:4) states that speech act is an act refers to the action that is performed in making an utterance. Based on those opinions above, it can be concluded that speech act is the act performed by a speaker in uttering a sentence. The functions of the speech act itself is to state the speaker's intention to the hearer.

The discussion of speech act cannot be separated from the other aspects of speaking activities, such as speech situation and speech event.

Speech situation is a speech which is associated with the situation and an event may consist of one or more speech acts (Hymes in Fasold, 1999:42).

Austin (in Levinson, 1983:236) divides three basic senses in which when someone says something, he or she is also doing something in the same time. For this reason, he or she proposes three kinds of acts, they are:

9.3.1.1 Locutionary act is the real word that is uttered by the speaker and it contains the speaker's verbalized message.

9.3.1.2 Illocutionary act is the power or intention behind the words that is uttered by the speaker. It indicates the speaker's purpose in saying something. The speaker's expression can be in the form of statement, offer, promise, etc.

9.3.1.3 Perlocutionary act is the effect of the illocution on the hearer, such as the effect on the feelings, thoughts, or action of hearers.

In the other word, locutionary act is the simple act of saying words and the meaning of those words which are spoken by the speaker. While, illocutionary act is what is done the speaker is saying something, and finally perlocutionary act is the effect that arises when the speaker is saying something.

9.3.2 Direct and Indirect Speech Act

9.3.2.1 Direct Speech Act

A direct speech act occurs when there is a direct relationship between a structure and a function. Thus, to make a statement people

have to use a declarative form, to make questions they formulate it in the interrogative form, and to make commands they will use an imperative form. For example:

1)	You wear seatbelt	(declarative)
2)	Do you wear your seatbelt	(interrogative)
3)	Wear your seatbelt!	(imperative)

(Taken from Yule, 1996:54)

In (1), the speaker states that the hearer wears a seatbelt. In (2), the speaker asks a question to the hearer whether the hearer wears the seatbelt or not. In (3), the speaker commands the hearer to wear the seatbelt.

2) Indirect Speech Act

An indirect speech act occurs when there is an indirect relationship between a structure and a function. For example, a declarative and an interrogative forms are used to make commands in an indirect speech act. Allan states that in an indirect speech act, there is an implicit meaning behind what the speaker actually says (1986:204).

When people use indirect speech act, they will be able to create a polite statement. As stated by Yule, indirect commands or request are simply considered as more gentle or more polite way to express commands better than direct commands (1996:133). That is why people tend to use indirect speech act better than direct speech act.

9.3.3 Speech Act Classification

Searle (in Levinson, 1983:240) proposes that in speaking, one can perform five basic kinds of action, namely:

9.3.3.1 Representative

Representative is a kind of speech act that states what the speaker believes to be the case or not, for example state, conclude, represent, deduce, etc. By using this utterance, his or her expresses belief that the proportional content is true.

9.3.3.2 Directive

In this type of speech acts, the speaker wants to ask someone else to do something. Acts of commanding, ordering, requesting, inviting, are all the examples of how the speaker expressing his or her wants.

9.3.3.3 Commisive

When the speaker uses commisive speech acts, it means that he or she will commit some future action. Basically, it expresses what the speaker intends. The examples are promises, offers, threats, and refusals.

9.3.3.4 Expressive

Expressive is a kind of speech acts that states what the speaker feels. The form of expressive can be statements of pleasure, pain, like, dislike, joy, or sorrow. In this case, the speaker makes the words fit

with the situation which his or her feeling also includes in it. Acts of thanking, apologizing, congratulating are all the examples of what the speaker feels.

9.3.3.5 Declaration

Declaration is a kind of speech acts that change the situation via the speaker's utterance. In order to perform a declaration correctly, the speaker has to have a special institutional role, in a specific context. For example, appoint, nominate, sentence, pronounce, fire, and resign.

9.4 Directive

Directive is used when the speaker wants the hearer to do things for him or her. Searle (in Levinson, 1983:241) gives the notion of directive as the utterance which is used by a speaker to get the hearer to do something. Similarly, Holmes says that directive is a linguistic utterance which is meant to ask someone to do something (1992:239). Directive can be in a form of commanding, offering, requesting, asking, inviting, ordering, begging, permitting, daring or challenging. Directive include acts of commanding and requesting that lead for further actions of the hearers, and the actions are in accordance with the speaker's instruction. Based on the theory of Gordon and Lakoff (in Bovillain 2003:119) to employ directive, a speaker must fulfill the certain conditions as follows:

1. The speaker wants the hearer to do some actions.

2. The speaker assumes that the hearer is able to do the act.

3. The speaker assumes that the hearer is willing to do the action.

4. The speaker assumes that the hearer would not do an action if there is no request.

Directive can be performed directly and also indirectly. When a speaker expresses an utterance in an imperative form, it means that he or she uses a direct directive and when he or she expresses in an interrogative and declarative forms, he or she uses an indirect directive. Orders and commands are generally expressed in an imperative form. In order to be more polite in asking someone, the speaker can use interrogatives and declaratives forms. The example below may clarify the explanation above:

(a) Sit down!

(b) Could you sit down?

(c) You'd be more comfortable sitting down

(Taken from Holmes, 1992:290)

There are many factors that influence the use of a certain form of directive, such as social distance between the participants, their status, and the formality of the context. To get what he or she wants from someone else, a speaker must know the rule in expressing his or her desire and it should be relevant to the socio-cultural context. In choosing the appropriate linguistic

form of directive to family, friends, and foreigners, the speaker involves the dimensions of solidarity/social distance and status/power (Holmes, 1992:294).

4. Commands

a. Definition of Commands

In communication, people often employ commands to get someone to do something. In some occasions, commands are very important to be employed, for instance; when a chief of police commands his subordinates to catch the criminals. Even, in the modern technology, people can send commands only by clicking their computer's mouse. Every time they click on an icon on the computer they are sending a command to the computer's operating system.

According to Coulthard there is an easy way to predict whether a declarative or an interrogative form will be realizing something other than to make a statement or question (2004:24). He says that any declarative or interrogative form can be interpreted as a command if it refers to an action or an activity which is proscribed when the speaker utters it.

Chaika (1994:183) states that commands and questions, virtually, have the same precondition. They are:

a. The speaker who commands has the right and duty to command

b. The recipient of the command has the responsibility to carry out the command.

It means that, the person who has the right to command usually has a higher status than the person who must obey it.

Rescher (in Trosborg, 1995:194) writes that in expressing a command, the speaker should have a rational and a reasonable answer if someone asks him or her a question about why he or she issued a certain command.

According to Green (in Tsui, 1994:92) the form of request and order are different. The difference between both of them is in the level of politeness, in which the request form is more polite than the order form. Lyon (in Tsui, 1994:92-93) adds that the crucial difference between command and request is that a command has the unconditional feature; it means that the speaker assumes that the hearer will do the action in the way that the speaker has commanded. Whereas a request has the conditional feature, or, in other words, the speaker assumes that the request will only take an effect if the hearer agrees to do it.

Based on the explanations above, it can be concluded that a command is something that should be done by the hearer. A command can be interpreted only if the participants are actually in a commanding situation. The duty or obligation to carry out a command does not proceed

only from status of the speaker, but it may proceed from the physical circumstances in which the command has been uttered.

c. Types of Commands

1) Direct Commands

According to Chaika (1982:184), a direct command is allowed and commonly can be found in several certain circumstances, such as in family, in military form, in emergency situation (for example, during firefighting), and in hospital emergency rooms. Some examples of direct command:

a) Pick up toys up right way (in a family: Parents to young children)

b) Fire! (in military form)

c) Get the hose! Put up the ladders!(in firefighting)

d) Get me some bandages! (in hospital emergency rooms)

2) Indirect Commands

Searle (in Richards and Schmidt, 1975:93) describes one type of directive and he calls it as indirect commands. His categorization is primarily based on the content of commands. Sinclair and Coulthard (in Richards and Schmidt, 1975:96), also provide a rule for the interpretation of declarative and interrogative forms as indirect commands. The rule is that if the required action is not made explicit, so it is a kind of indirect commands. Below are some examples of indirect commands:

a) Do you have to stand in front of the TV? (interrogative)

b) You're standing in front of the TV. (declarative)

c) You close the door. (declarative)

d. Forms of Commands

There are some major categories of commands on the basis of its form (Holmes in Richards and Schmidt, 1983). They are explained as follows:

1) Imperatives

Here are the six structural variants of directive speech acts in the form of imperative, which include commands as the imperative form.

a) Base form of verb

Base form of verb is the first form of verb. For example, "Speak up" and "Put your hands down". The words 'speak' and 'put' are verb.

b) You + imperatives

Imperatives are the forms of a verb that expresses commands. For example, "You look here" and "You go with your work".

c) Present participle form of verb

Present participle is the form of verb that ends in –ing. For example, "Listening to me" and "Looking at me". The words listen and look are verb.

d) Verb ellipsis

Verb ellipsis is the leaving out of a word or word form of verb. For example, “Hands up” and “Now this one”.

e) Imperative + modifier

This type of imperative is the form of a verb that expresses commands. Modifier is a word of phrase, such as “please”, address forms, and modal tags. Some example of imperative + modifier are “Children looks this way, please” and “Please, turn around”.

f) Let + first person pronoun

A pronoun is a word used in a place of a noun or noun phrase, e.g., I, me, she, her, he, his, we, us, you, they, them, it, there. Some example of Let + first person pronoun are “Let’s finish there”, “Let’s try it”, and “Let’s find her”.

2) Declaratives

There are the two variants of directive speech acts which include commands as the declarative form:

a) Embedded agent

Declaratives, in this category, can be identified by the fact that the agent and the required activity are expressed explicitly in an embedded or a subordinate clause. In many cases the main clause was introduced by ‘I want’ or ‘I’d like’. For

example, “I’d like everyone sitting on the mat” and “I want you to draw a picture”.

b) Hints

Hints require addressees to infer what is required from their knowledge about the context or meaning of the speaker’s utterance. For example, “Kelly’s hand is up!”, “I’m not going to do it by myself”, and “I like the way you stood up quickly Neil”.

5. Politeness

Politeness is a very important principle in a language use, and in communication, it can be defined as a means to show awareness of another person’s face (Yule, 1998:60). The same opinion also stated by Holmes (1992:306). He says that a polite person makes other people are able to feel comfortable. So politeness involves how one can make others feel more pleasant. It also includes the appropriate linguistic choices in accordance with a certain social and a situational context.

Related to the discussion of politeness, in issuing commands, a speaker has to make sure that he or she is able to create a polite command. It is not only because he or she usually expects a positive result from the hearers (which the form is in compliance) but also because a speaker cannot employ commands directly (anytime and at any situation) because he or she must

consider several factors. Those factors are when and where he or she utters the expressions and also consider to whom he or she speaks to.

Bonvillain also adds that the above factors are very important because a speaker should make requests, so he or she will have a positive result, namely compliance; but because of the fact that sometimes there is a social relationship exists between the speaker and the addressee (even if the addressee is a strange person), a speaker must be sensitive to the hearer's feeling (2003:120).

The discussion of politeness cannot be separated from the discussion of face. Face means as a public self image, it refers to the emotional and social sense of self that every person has and expects to be recognized by everyone (Yule, 1996:134). From a film, a public self image can be found from the gesture, facial expressions, and other non-verbal expressions of the characters. Brown and Levinson (in Bonvillain, 2003:127) state that there are two kinds of "face", namely:

a. **Positive face:** a desire to be approved of, or to be appreciated and accepted by others, to be treated as a member of the same group, and to know that the others also want to have and share his or her desire.

b. **Negative face:** a desire that is not to be imposed upon by someone's action.

As one of the expressions of illocutionary acts which is about the power of the speaker's utterance, a command has a chance to damage the

hearer's face or even the speaker's own face; such acts are known as Face Threatening Act or FTAs. Therefore, a speaker needs to use certain strategies for accomplishing FTA in order to reduce the risk of damaging hearer's face. Brown and Levinson distinguish strategies of polite behavior to perform FTA in commands, they are:

a. Bald-on-record

The prime reason in using bald on record comes whenever a speaker wants to do the FTA with maximum efficiency more than he or she wants. It is to satisfy the hearer's face, even to any different degree. The speakers go on-record if there are good reasons to ignore the face risk of the hearer. They do not do any effort to minimize threats to the hearer's face.

When a speaker employs bald on record, there are some occasions in which the external factors can strain individual to speak directly so the speakers ignore face risk. For example, if there is an emergency situation (where there is a time limitation) and where there is some form of channel limitation such as in a communication via telephone. It would certainly require the speaker to speak with maximum efficiency. The other situations in which no attempt is made to mitigate the face risk are found where the power differential is great; in such cases the powerful participant will often employ no indirectness at all.

There are some sub strategies in bald on record, they are:

1) An emergency: HELP!

2) Task oriented or command: Give me the nails!

3) Alerting or warning hearers: Turn your headlights on! (When alerting someone to something they should be doing).

b. Positive Politeness

Positive politeness is oriented toward the positive face of the hearer. It is the positive self image that he or she claims for himself or herself. It is about the face of the addressee by indicating that in some respects, the speaker wants the hearer's wants (for example by treating him as a member of an in-group, a friend, and a person whose wants personality traits are known and liked).

Positive politeness utterances are used as a kind of "metaphorical extension of intimacy". It is to eliminate the distance between the speaker and the hearer. So, it is considered as if they are known and they have no specific restrictions or differences in their social status.

When people speak to someone, they may orient positive face and employ positive politeness which appeals the hearer's desire to be liked and approved of in conversation. Positive

politeness is oriented to enhance the positive face needs of the interlocutor. There are some sub strategies in positive politeness such as:

1) Noticing or attending to the hearer's interests, wants, needs or goods: "You must be hungry; it's a long time since breakfast. How about some lunch?"
2) Avoid disagreement

A: "What is she, small?"

B: "Yes, yes, she's small, smallish, um, not really small but certainly not very big."
3) Assume agreement: "So, when are you coming to see us?"
4) Give (or ask for) reasons: "Why don't you lend us your record player?"
5) Use in-group identity markers: "Come here, buddy."

c. Negative Politeness

Negative politeness is a strategy in which the speaker states the FTA by utilizing strategies oriented towards redressing the negative face-threat to the hearer. The realizations of this strategy consists in assurances that the speaker recognizes and respects the addressee's negative face wants and will not interfere with the addressee's freedom of action.

The main focus in using this kind of strategy is to assume that the speaker may be imposing on the hearer and intruding on their space. Therefore, these are automatically assumed that there might be some social distance or awkwardness in the situation. The example of the negative politeness is represented below:

1) Be conventionally indirect: “Could you pass the salt?”

2) Minimize imposition: “I just want to ask you if I would use your computer?”
3) Be pessimistic: “Could you jump over that five foot fence?”
4) Impersonalize speaker and hearer: “Give it.”

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