



Intan Mustika Sari
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DESCRIPTIVE LINGUISTICS

TEACHER'S BOOK

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First published in 2026 by Penerbit BRIN

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BRIN Publishing

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Cataloging in Publication

Descriptive Linguistics: Teacher's Book/Intan Mustika Sari, Karlina Denistia,
Desi Wulandari –Jakarta: Penerbit BRIN, 2026

xx + 217 p.; 14,8 × 21 cm

ISBN 978-602-6303-99-8 (*e-book*)

1. Descriptive linguistics
3. Morphology & syntax

2. Phonetics & phonology
4. English semantics

410

Acquisition editor	: Anggy Denok Sukmawati
Copy editor	: Nunung Nuraida
Proofreader	: Nunung Nuraida
Layouter	: M. Isnaini
Cover designer	: M. Isnaini

First edition : September 2026



Published by:

BRIN Publishing, Member of Ikapi
Directorate of Repository, Multimedia, and Scientific Publishing
Gedung B.J. Habibie,

Jl. M.H. Thamrin No. 8, Kb. Sirih,
Kec. Menteng, Kota Jakarta Pusat,
Daerah Khusus Ibukota Jakarta 10340

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Publisher's Foreword

As a scientific publisher, BRIN Publishing has a responsibility to continuously strive to provide high-quality scientific publications. This effort represents one of the realisations of BRIN Publishing's duty to participate in building superior human resources and educating the nation's life, as mandated in the preamble to the 1945 Constitution of the Republic of Indonesia.

The "Descriptive Linguistics: Teacher's Book" is designed to equip educators with the essential tools needed to teach the core elements of English linguistics dynamically and interactively. Tailored for students with minimal prior knowledge, this book bridges theoretical concepts and practical applications through hands-on activities, case studies, and comprehensive exercises.

Key Coverage Includes:

- **Language Concepts:** Fundamentals of language structure, properties, and social communication.
- **Phonetics:** Practical guidance on speech sound production, places/manners of articulation, and the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA).
- **Phonology:** Insights into sound patterns, phonemes, minimal pairs, and allophonic environments.
- **Morphology:** Structural analysis of word formation, morphemes, and morphological tree diagrams.

- **Syntax:** Sentence-building rules, grammatical structures, and syntax trees.
- **Semantics:** Deeper analysis of meaning, ambiguity, and lexical relations.

Complete with detailed answer keys, structured rubrics for individual and group assessments, and practical text-production skills, this teacher's book is an invaluable resource for fostering critical thinking and effective oral and written communication in the classroom.

We hope that this book will serve as a useful reading reference to enrich the insights and knowledge of all readers. Finally, we express our gratitude to all parties who have contributed to the publication of this book.

August 2026

Acknowledgement

Acknowledgment is extended to all those who have contributed to the development of this descriptive linguistic teacher's book. Deep appreciation goes to the dedicated and supportive lecturer friends who formed the core of the book team. Their collaboration, expertise, and tireless efforts have been fundamental in shaping this teacher's book into a comprehensive teaching tool. Special thanks are due to the English Diploma Program, whose careful arrangement of grant funds facilitated the project's success. The financial support from the Vocational School and Universitas Sebelas Maret was essential in bringing this initiative to completion, and their commitment to advancing education is gratefully acknowledged.

The purpose of this teacher's book is to serve as a practical guide for teachers, offering essential resources for teaching descriptive linguistics effectively. Designed with the needs of educators in mind, the teacher's book provides comprehensive materials that cover key areas such as language concepts, phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics. It also includes class activities, detailed instructions, answer keys, and an assessment rubric to ensure that teachers are well-prepared to guide their students through the learning process. This structured approach enables educators to lead their students confidently, fostering a deeper understanding of linguistic principles while ensuring classroom engagement.

As with any educational resource, this teacher's book is viewed as a dynamic tool, open to improvement. Feedback from teachers and peers is warmly encouraged in order to refine and enhance the content for future publications. Continued revision and collaborative input will allow this teacher book to evolve and better meet the needs of both educators and students. Heartfelt thanks are extended once again to everyone involved in this endeavor.

Preface

This teacher's book consists of six units, providing students with knowledge of basic linguistics, starting from language characteristics, phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics. Students with minimal knowledge of linguistics will be able to understand basic linguistic concepts by reading the general theories and doing some exercises in this teacher's book. The exercises in this teacher's book can be done individually, in pairs, in small groups, or large groups. Furthermore, there are case studies at the end of each unit so that students are able to demonstrate critical, logical, and creative thinking attitudes. This book also provides the assessment rubrics, as well as answer keys for the exercises. For long-term benefits, this teacher's book provides the basic linguistics knowledge for producing expository, argumentative, persuasive, descriptive, instructional, and narrative texts in English. In addition, students would master the nature and function of English and Indonesian as a means of oral and written communication properly and correctly. By the end of the course, students are expected to be able to communicate effectively and appropriately in English, both written and spoken.

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Framework

Unit	Objectives	Materials
The Language Concepts	• Students are able to describe the concept of language	• The Definition of Language • The Characteristics of Language • The Language Properties • The Language Variant
Phonetics	• Students are able to explain the basic concept of phonetics • Students are able to produce sound based on phonetic theory • Students are able to read the International Phonetic Alphabet	• What phonetics is • Place of articulation • Manner of articulation • International Phonetics Alphabet
Phonology	• Students are able to describe the basic concept of phonology • Students are able to formulate the phonological environment of allophone	• What phonology is • Minimal pairs • Natural classes • Distinctive features • Allophone

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Unit	Objectives	Materials
Morphology	• Students are able to explain the basic concept of morphology • Students are able to identify the types of morphemes • Students are able to analyze the word formations	• The Definition of Morphology • Morphemes • Allomorphs • Lexemes • Words • Morphological Tree Diagrams
Syntax	• Students are able to explain the basic concept of syntax • Students are able to identify the types and elements of syntax • Students are able to analyze the sentences using syntactic rules and syntax tree diagrams	• Understanding Syntax • Parts of Speech • English Grammatical Structures • Phrase Structures • Clause Structures • Syntax Trees • Syntax Ambiguity
Semantics	• Students are able to explain the basic concept of semantics. • Students are able to identify and differentiate between various types of meaning, including lexical, sentential, and pragmatic meanings. • Students are able to analyse and describe semantic relations between words, such as synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, hypernymy, and polysemy. • Students are able to practice identifying, interpreting, and creating metaphors to deepen their understanding of this figurative language.	• What semantics is • Semantic ambiguity • Semantic Lexical relation (Synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, hypernymy, polysemy, and metaphor)

Bab I

The Language Concepts

Objectives:

1. Students are able to describe the concept of language.

Materials:

1. The Definition of Language
2. The Characteristics of Language
3. The Language Properties
4. The Language Variants

The Language Concepts

A. The Definition of Language

These days, language is an essential component of human civilization. Language alone has made human civilization possible: in fact, language alone has made this civilization possible. As the principle method of communication employed by human societies, it functions as a complex system of conventional spoken, manual (signed), or written symbols. Through these symbols, human beings express themselves as members of a social group and participants in its culture. This conventional system comprises both grammar and vocabulary, enabling the effective expression of ideas, emotions, and information that are crucial to the ongoing development and functioning of human society.

Language is a subject of linguistic analysis that can be understood in two main ways: as an abstract idea and as a particular linguistic system, like English. Ferdinand de Saussure, a prominent Swiss linguist credited with establishing the field of linguistics, was the first to clearly articulate the differentiation by employing the French terms “*langage*” to refer to the abstract notion of language, “*langue*” to denote a specific manifestation of a language system, and “*parole*” to describe the actual use of speech within a particular language through which we can communicate with others and express our ideas, feelings, and information.

According to Richards et al. (1985), language is the human communication system that uses a structured arrangement of sounds (or their written representation) to form larger units, such as morphemes, words, and sentences. Meanwhile, Bussmann (2006) said that language is a vehicle for expressing or exchanging thoughts, concepts, knowledge, and information and fixing and transmitting experience and knowledge. It is based on cognitive processes, subject to societal factors, and subject to historical change and development.

Language interacts with every aspect of human life in society, and it can be understood only if it is considered about society. Language becomes the most important aspect of life because it allows people to create cultural ties, friendships, and relationships by spreading their thoughts and ideas. The functions of language include communication, the expression of identity, play, imaginative expression, and emotional release.

In spoken language, this symbol set consists of noises resulting from movements of certain organs within the throat and mouth. In signed languages, these symbols may be hand or body movements, gestures, or facial expressions. Using these symbols, people can impart information, express feelings and emotions, influence the activities of others, and comport themselves with varying degrees of friendliness or hostility toward persons who use substantially the same set of symbols.

Human beings are unrestricted in what they can communicate; no area of experience is accepted as necessarily incommunicable, though it may be necessary to adapt one's language to cope with discoveries or new modes of thought. However, communication systems are generally recognized as different languages if they cannot be understood without specific learning by both parties. However, the precise limits of mutual intelligibility are hard to draw and belong on a scale rather than on either side of a definite dividing line. Dialects of a language are significantly distinct communication systems that may hinder but do not prevent mutual comprehension. To describe in detail the different language patterns of individuals, the term *idiolect*, meaning the habits of expression of a single person, has been coined. In this case, subsequent "second" languages are learned to different degrees of competence under various conditions.

B. The Characteristics of Language

Language is an intricate system of communication that reflects the complexity and diversity of human thought. Despite the vast differences across languages, humans share several core characteristics

that are fundamental to their language structure and function. These characteristics shape how languages are learned, used, and evolve over time. The characteristics are given below:

1. *Language is Dynamic*

Language is always changing and continually evolving. Language develops along with the human need to communicate (Widyastuti et al., 2024). The words the “baby boomers” and the “Z generation” demographic use to communicate are very different, to the extent that some terms and phrases have become obsolete. The development and diversity of languages as a means of communication is also determined by the background of the participants involved, which is influenced by social, psychological, political and others (Putriana et al., 2021).

2. *Language is a Social Phenomenon*

Language should be considered a social phenomenon considering its uses, importance, and unique value. Language is a medium that people use to communicate with others in a given society about their thoughts, feelings, and knowledge (Cahya et al., 2023). Language exists in our society, playing a big role in nursing, developing culture, and establishing good relationships between human beings.

3. *Language is the Main Means of Human Communication*

It is universally acknowledged that language is the main means of communication among human beings. Although some means of communication exist among us, like nods, winks, mathematical symbols, sirens, maps, codes, horns, etc., these communication systems are too limited to language and not as appropriate as language.

4. *Language is Vocal*

Language is primarily composed of vocal sounds produced by the vocal cord, an articulatory organ of the human body. Initially, it must have come out as sounds only, and writing should come much later. A person has to speak more than write during their lifetime.

5. *Language is Unique, Complex, Creative and Adaptable*

Language is a unique substance on the planet. There is no other talking species in the world without human beings. Humans have their way of communicating, and each language is unique. Though there are similarities among languages, each language has its particularities. Therefore, language changes every moment, and new languages are created with time. The old English language is not the same as modern English. So, language is also modifiable.

6. *Language is Social*

Language is a set of conventional communicative symbols humans use for social communication. In this sense, language is a possession of a social group, comprising an indispensable set of rules that permits its members to share thoughts, communicate, and cooperate. It is called a social institution. So, language exists in society, nourishing and developing culture and establishing human relations.

7. *Language is Systematic*

Despite being symbolic, the symbols of language are arranged in specific systems. All languages have their individual and unique arrangement of plans. Each language is an arrangement of systems.

8. *Language is a Symbolic System*

Language is signified as a symbolic system. It consists of different symbols based on sound for concepts, things, ideas, thoughts, objects, etc. Language has specific sounds and words according to their symbols. In this case, words in a language are not just patterns or images but symbols with meaning. The true explanation of these symbols sometimes forms the core value of a language.

9. *Language is Noninstinctive and Conventional*

No language was made in a single day. Language is the result of the advancement of culture and tradition. Every age transmits this tradition to the following. Like every human organization or system, languages

may be changed, passed on, developed, modified, and extended. We can consider language noninstinctive because we naturally acquire and modify it.

C. The Language Properties

There are six properties of language that can be interpreted as the fundamental distinctions between animal and human language. These characteristics are the kind of things that make it unlikely for other living things' languages to have them. The properties are listed below in this case.

1. *Arbitrary*

Arbitrary refers to the absence of any inherent or logical connection between a linguistic form and its meaning. This implies that the words or symbols used to create an accurate understanding of items are not naturally linked to the objects they represent. Human language exhibits the characteristic of arbitrariness, meaning that it does not have any inherent connection or resemblance to the objects or concepts it represents.

Typically, there is no inherent correlation between a linguistic structure and its semantic content. There is no inherent connection between the term CAT and the animal it represents. Linguistic signs possess the characteristic of arbitrariness in their interaction with the objects they are employed to signify. The feature of human language is demonstrated by the fact that its forms do not correspond to the objects they represent.

For the arbitrary character of signs, Saussure (1959) continues by saying that words would not have exact equal meanings across languages if they represented pre-existing notions. The world is divided into different languages. Saussure uses the term “boeuf” as an example to clarify this. He points out that although the terms “meat product” and “animal” are used differently in English (beef and ox),

the French term “boeuf” is used to describe both. The French lexicon lacks any sense of distinction between the two ideas.

According to Saussure, words originate from the demands of a certain civilization rather than from the necessity to categorize an already-existing body of knowledge. Onomatopoeia is an additional problem. He was aware that his detractors might contend that onomatopoeia establishes a clear connection between signifier and signified, or word and meaning. On careful etymological examination, Saussure contends that onomatopoeic words may, in reality, be coincidental, deriving from non-onomatopoeic roots. He gives an example of the onomatopoeic terms for a dog’s bark in English, “Bow Wow”.

2. *Productivity*

Productivity refers to the output or results of our efforts. Verbal communication is also a form of productivity. The speaker has the ability to integrate fundamental linguistic elements into more intricate structures. We can discuss topics that are unrelated, potential or non-existent, or anything pertaining to the past, present, or future. Productivity enables the creation of novel linguistic structures and meanings that were previously non-existent. Productivity can be likened to the limitless variety of distinct words, sentences, and word combinations. It is connected to the fact that the potential number of spoken expressions in human languages is limitless.

The majority of animals possess a highly restricted capacity to transmit or receive messages. This constraint is absent in human language. Language users use their linguistic abilities to generate novel expressions and sentences. The characteristic of human language being able to generate new and unique expressions is referred to as productivity or creativity. Language variation is connected to the limitless number of possible utterances in any human language. Conversely, all animal signals possess a characteristic known as fixed reference, indicating that each signal is specifically associated with a particular object or event.

3. *Cultural Transmission*

Language acquisition is mostly influenced by cultural exposure and interaction with other individuals who speak the language, rather than being determined by genetic inheritance from parents. Despite assertions that humans have an innate inclination to acquire languages, it is clear that individuals are not inherently capable of speaking a language such as English from the moment of birth. Typically, we acquire the colour of our eyes or height from our parents through inheritance, but we do not inherit their language. Language acquisition occurs within a cultural context, when individuals learn a language via interaction with other speakers, rather than inheriting it from their parents' genetic makeup. An Indonesian child born to Indonesian parents may inherit black hair and a yellow or brown complexion. Nevertheless, if an individual is raised by English speakers in the United Kingdom from infancy, they will surely acquire the ability to speak English. The phenomenon by which language is transferred from one generation to another is referred to as cultural transmission. Infants that are raised in isolation do not naturally develop any innate kind of language.

4. *Discreteness*

This feature guarantees that the sounds employed in languages are meaningfully distinct, and allowing us to recognize them as unique units of meaning. The phonemes we employ in language possess meaningful distinctions. At a certain stage of language, we observe two types of simultaneity in language: discrete sounds and discrete meanings. The letter *b*, for the example, can be used to form the words “buy”, “by”, and “buy” with the pronunciation /baɪ/. These words are homophones, meaning they have the same pronunciation but different meanings.

Another instance is the minimal disparity between /i/ and /i/. However, in a given language, substituting /i/ for /i/ is not permissible due to the presence of a semantic differential. The same applies to pairs

of sounds such as /p/, /b/, /t/, /d/, and so on. Discreteness is the term used to define the feature of language when each sound is considered as separate and distinct. As an illustration, the English term “tin” is composed of three individual components, namely /t/, /i/, and /n/. Speech units can be arranged and rearranged, merged, and separated.

5. *Duality*

Language is structured into two tiers. The quality in question is referred to as duality or twofold articulation. One level of speech production generates sounds such as “k, t, d.” None of these separate versions possess any inherent value as distinct sounds. At a higher level, we generate these sounds in a certain arrangement, “hit, bit,” resulting in a distinct meaning compared to other arrangements of these noises. On one level, we encounter separate auditory stimuli, while on another level, we encounter separate semantic interpretations.

By using a restricted range of certain sounds, we are able to generate countless combinations with distinct meanings. Phonemes lack meaning when considered individually, but acquire significance when they are coupled with other phonemes. The ability to generate numerous sound combinations, such as words, using a limited set of distinct sounds, is a fundamental and efficient characteristic of human language.

6. *Displacement*

The majority of animals possess the ability to converse solely about matters within their local surroundings. A bird vocalises its alarm call just in the presence of imminent danger. It is incapable of providing information regarding past or future threat. In contrast, human language has the ability to convey information about both present and absent entities with equal ease. The term used to describe this aspect of human language is displacement. It enables language users to discuss occurrences and objects that are not already present in their immediate surroundings. Animal communication is typically regarded as lacking this characteristic. Honey bees exhibit a restricted level of

communication. This linguistic characteristic enables individuals to craft works of fiction and articulate theoretical realms.

A far wider range of circumstances influences the manifestation of displacement in human language than just the communication of a single location. It allows us to discuss particular topics and locations about whose existence we are not even certain of. We can bring up mythological beings, angels, fairies, demons, Santa Claus, and more recently created figures like Superman. The ability to relocate makes humans unique among other animals, enabling them to imagine and depict potential future worlds.

D. The Language Variants

The term “language” encompasses a variety of distinct classifications. There are two distinct senses that have been identified: language as a universal skill that is peculiar to the human species, and languages as the different forms in which this ability is expressed, such as English, Latin, Dutch, and so on. There is no discernible global language that exists outside the several languages that have been or are currently spoken or written. However, it is possible to focus on the overall and widespread attributes, traits, and elements of many languages and how the identical descriptive methods and explanatory theories might be utilised. By doing this, one can consider language (in a general sense) as the subject of their research. Linguists achieve this by dedicating themselves to the scientific examination of languages, rather than being perceived as polyglots who just possess proficiency in multiple languages.

1. *Dialects*

It has already been pointed out that no two persons speak exactly alike. Within the area of all but the smallest speech communities (groups of people speaking the same language), there are subdivisions of recognizably different types of language called dialects that do not render intercommunication impossible or markedly difficult. Because

incomprehensibility lies along a scale, the degree required for two or more forms of speech to qualify as dialects of a single language, instead of being regarded as separate languages, is not easy to quantify or to lay down in advance, and the actual cutoff point must in the last resort be arbitrary. However, dialect and language can be used with reasonable agreement. One speaks of different dialects of English, such as Scottish English, American English, Australian English, etc. Many more delicately distinguished subdialects within these very general categories.

2. *Jargon*

Sometimes, as in the case of criminal argots, part of the function of special languages is deliberately to mislead and obstruct the rest of society and the authorities in particular; they may even become wholly impenetrable to outsiders. However, this is not the sole or main purpose of most specialized language varieties. Professions whose members value their social standing and public service often cultivate a specialised vocabulary, partly to enhance the dignity of their craft and partly to increase their efficiency. An example of this is the language of the law and lawyers.

Certain professions' cultivation and maintenance of specialised types of language should not be regarded as trivially or superficially motivated. Generally, languages are necessarily imprecise or lack the flexibility and infinite extensibility demanded. But for certain purposes in restricted situations, much greater precision is required, and part of the function of the particular style and vocabulary of legal language is the avoidance, so far as possible, of all ambiguity and the explicit statement of all necessary distinctions. This is why legal texts, when read out of their context, seem so absurdly pedantic and are an easy target for ridicule.

Similar provision for detail and clarity characterizes the specialist jargon of medicine, the sciences in general, and philosophy. The formulas of modern symbolic logic can be viewed as deliberately

constructed written language designed to formalise implications and inferences, which are often ambiguous and open to misinterpretation when expressed in everyday speech. Some have gone as far as to say that traditional metaphysics is no more than the result of misunderstanding everyday discourse and that the main purpose of philosophy is to resolve the puzzles that arise from such misunderstandings.

The use of specialised language to promote cohesion is clearly seen in the standardized vocabulary of nearly all sports and activities. Cricketers vocally plead to the umpire by exclaiming, “How’s that?” when they suspect that a batsman may be dismissed. The various forms of being eliminated are indicated by stereotypes, such as “run out” or “stumped,” among others. Another example involves the effectiveness of religious worship and prayers, which is often linked to the meticulous adherence to proper language taught by priests to their successors. In India, priests are responsible for safeguarding the language used to recite Sanskrit incantations or chants during religious ceremonies.

3. *Pidgins and creoles*

Several specialised languages were created to exclude outsiders. On few occasions, languages have been intentionally constructed to enhance communication with individuals from outside groups. This occurs when individuals who speak two distinct languages are required to collaborate, typically in the context of trade or administrative procedures. During such circumstances, a type of language known as pidgins emerges, which is intentionally constructed using vocabulary from other languages. In order to avoid confusion, both parties involved in the communication mutually discard the grammatical intricacies of their own languages. For instance, Pidgins have been specifically linked to regions colonised by European merchants. In the past, they communicated in Chinook Jargon, a pidgin language derived from an indigenous American language, as well as English, which was previously spoken in Oregon. Additionally, certain pidgins, like Tok Pisin in Papua New Guinea, have gained widespread usage.

Creoles distinguish themselves from pidgins by undergoing the same natural processes of development as any other language, since they are used as first languages. Despite originating from simplified pidgins, creoles gradually acquire complexities over generations. This phenomenon arises from the limited purposes for which pidgins were initially created, which did not necessitate a high degree of adaptability. When a language becomes the primary or exclusive language of a large number of people, it needs to develop the necessary resources (i.e., complexity) to effectively meet the demands of a natural language. Sociolinguistics investigates the mechanisms by which a pidgin language evolves into a creole, as well as the connection between creoles and the official language of a particular country. The enquiry may provoke controversy due to the potential absence of historical records and the significant complexities surrounding cultural and ethnic identification.

Exercises

A. Work in Pairs

Discuss with your partner regarding the concept of language. Answer these questions below in complete sentences.

1. What is language?
2. What is the objective study of linguistics?
3. What is the importance of studying language?
4. Mention and describe the language variants that exist around you (In Java Island, Indonesia).
5. Give some examples of the application of language in society. Elaborate your answer.

B. Group Presentation

1. *Make a group of 3-4 people.*
2. *Find out and discuss with your partners related to the following questions:*
 - What role does English play as a global language?
 - How does language interact with every aspect of human life in society?
 - What are the differences between formal and informal English?
 - How has technology impacted the English language?
 - What are the challenges faced by non-native speakers when learning English linguistics?
3. *Write down your discussion result in PPT slides.*
4. *Present your work in front of the class.*

C. Multiple Choices (Individual Work)

*Choose the BEST answer (A, B, C, or D) for the following questions.
Bold only the letter of the correct answer.*

1. What is the most basic property of language that allows humans to communicate?
A. Arbitrariness
B. Discreteness
C. Productivity
D. Duality
2. Which property of language allows speakers to create and understand an infinite number of sentences?
A. Displacement
B. Cultural Transmission
C. Productivity
D. Discreteness
3. Which of the following refers to the idea that the relationship between words and their meanings is arbitrary?
A. Displacement
B. Arbitrariness
C. Productivity
D. Duality
4. What does “displacement” in language refer to?
A. The ability to refer to things not present
B. The ability to generate new sentences
C. The arbitrary relationship between words and meaning
D. The use of syntax
5. Which characteristic of language allows us to combine sounds into words and words into sentences?
A. Cultural Transmission
B. Discreteness
C. Productivity
D. Displacement

6. Which property of language enables speakers to refer to abstract concepts, distant places, or times?
 - A. Arbitrariness
 - B. Productivity
 - C. Duality
 - D. Displacement
7. The fact that language is passed from one generation to the next is known as:
 - A. Displacement
 - B. Productivity
 - C. Cultural Transmission
 - D. Discreteness
8. What is the property of “duality” in language?
 - A. The capacity for language to evolve
 - B. The organization of sounds at two levels: sounds and meaning
 - C. The use of metaphors
 - D. The distinction between formal and informal language
9. Which characteristic explains that each language has a finite set of discrete sounds?
 - A. Productivity
 - B. Discreteness
 - C. Duality
 - D. Cultural Transmission
10. What property of language allows for infinite creativity in expression?
 - A. Productivity
 - B. Arbitrariness
 - C. Displacement
 - D. Cultural Transmission
11. Which property highlights that sound in language have no intrinsic meaning?
 - A. Discreteness

- B. Arbitrariness
 - C. Productivity
 - D. Displacement
12. Which of the following explains why language can be learned and transmitted between generations?
- A. Cultural Transmission
 - B. Displacement
 - C. Duality
 - D. Productivity
13. The ability to distinguish between different sounds in language refers to which property?
- A. Discreteness
 - B. Arbitrariness
 - C. Productivity
 - D. Cultural Transmission
14. Which of the following best describes the property of duality in language?
- A. It allows us to talk about things that are not present.
 - B. It refers to the double articulation of sounds and meanings.
 - C. It describes the transmission of language across cultures.
 - D. It indicates that words and sounds are distinct entities.
15. Which characteristic of language is responsible for our ability to talk about the past, future, or hypothetical situations?
- A. Displacement
 - B. Productivity
 - C. Discreteness
 - D. Duality
16. Which property allows us to communicate entirely new concepts and ideas?
- A. Arbitrariness
 - B. Productivity

- C. Cultural Transmission
- D. Discreteness

17. In which property of language do smaller meaningless units combine to form meaningful units?
- A. Cultural Transmission
 - B. Duality
 - C. Displacement
 - D. Arbitrariness
18. Which property explains that speakers can make judgments about whether a sentence is grammatically correct or not?
- A. Productivity
 - B. Displacement
 - C. Grammaticality
 - D. Discreteness
19. The fact that human languages can describe abstract and theoretical concepts reflects which property?
- A. Displacement
 - B. Duality
 - C. Productivity
 - D. Arbitrariness
20. The double articulation of language refers to:
- A. Displacement and productivity
 - B. Arbitrariness and discreteness
 - C. Duality of patterning
 - D. Phonetics and semantics
21. Which property suggests that humans can understand sentences they have never heard before?
- A. Arbitrariness
 - B. Displacement
 - C. Cultural Transmission
 - D. Productivity

22. The fact that different languages can have distinct words for the same concept relates to:
- A. Productivity
 - B. Arbitrariness
 - C. Discreteness
 - D. Cultural Transmission
23. Which property allows humans to talk about things that are distant in time and space?
- A. Discreteness
 - B. Cultural Transmission
 - C. Displacement
 - D. Duality
24. Which property refers to the learned nature of language?
- A. Discreteness
 - B. Cultural Transmission
 - C. Displacement
 - D. Arbitrariness
25. Which property of language explains that language changes and evolves over time?
- A. Cultural Transmission
 - B. Arbitrariness
 - C. Productivity
 - D. Duality

ANSWER KEYS

A. Work in Pairs

1. Language is a system of communication used by humans that involves a structured arrangement of sounds, symbols, or gestures to convey meaning. It is governed by grammatical rules and conventions that allow individuals to express thoughts, emotions, and ideas in an understandable form. Language can be spoken, written, or signed, and it serves as a fundamental tool for social interaction and cultural expression.
2. The objective study of linguistics involves the scientific analysis of language, focusing on understanding its structure, function, development, and use. Linguists examine various aspects such as:
 - Phonology (study of sounds);
 - Morphology (study of word structure);
 - Syntax (sentence structure);
 - Semantics (meaning of words and sentences);
 - Pragmatics (use of language in context);
 - Sociolinguistics (relationship between language and society); and
 - Psycholinguistics (how language is processed in the brain).The goal is to uncover the underlying rules and principles governing language use across different cultures and time periods.
3. Studying language is essential because it:
 - enhances communication: understanding how language works improves clarity and effectiveness in both written and spoken forms.
 - preserves cultural heritage: language is tied to identity and culture, and studying it helps preserve traditions, histories, and worldviews.
 - fosters social integration: knowledge of languages enables individuals to bridge cultural gaps and promotes inclusivity and mutual understanding.

- promotes cognitive development: learning languages stimulate cognitive abilities like memory, problem-solving, and multitasking.
 - supports language education: linguistic studies inform language teaching methodologies, improving how languages are taught and learned.
4. Java Island is linguistically diverse, with various language variants, including:
- Javanese: Javanese is the largest local language spoken in Java. Depending on social hierarchy and context, it has different speech levels (*Ngoko*, *Krama*, and *Krama Inggil*).
 - Sundanese: Predominantly spoken in West Java, it also has speech levels that reflect politeness and respect.
 - Madurese: This language is spoken by people in Madura and parts of East Java. It has a distinct grammar and vocabulary.
 - Betawi is a language variant spoken by the indigenous people of Jakarta. It is a creole that blends Malay, Javanese, Sundanese, and other influences.
 - Bahasa Indonesia: The national language, used as a lingua franca across the island for communication among people with different native languages.
5. The examples of language application in the society are:
- Education
Language is the primary medium of instruction in schools and universities, allowing the transmission of knowledge and skills.
- Example:** In Java, local schools teach various subjects in Javanese and Bahasa Indonesia, ensuring that students are fluent in both their regional language and the national language.
- Government
Language creates laws, communicates policies, and conducts official affairs.

Example: Government documents and announcements are typically in Bahasa Indonesia, ensuring consistency and understanding across regions.

- **Media and Entertainment**
Language shapes the content of newspapers, TV shows, radio broadcasts, and online platforms, influencing public opinion and social behavior.

Example: Many TV shows in Java feature a mix of Bahasa Indonesia and Javanese, reflecting the linguistic repertoire of the island (the overall set of language variations that a community can use).

- **Religion**
Religious practices are often conducted in specific languages, depending on the tradition and community.

Example: In Java, religious sermons might be delivered in Javanese or Arabic, depending on the faith community.

- **Commerce and Trade**
Language facilitates transactions and trade, both locally and internationally.

Example: Javanese and Bahasa Indonesia are commonly spoken in local markets, while international trade communications may occur in English or other foreign languages.

B. Group Presentation

Here are possible answers that students could generate during their group work discussions for the questions provided:

1. What role does English play as a global language?
 - **Global Communication:** English serves as a lingua franca, allowing people from different linguistic backgrounds to communicate effectively in fields like business, science, technology, and diplomacy.

- Cultural Exchange: It facilitates the spread of popular culture, including music, movies, and literature, across the globe.
 - Educational Language: English is the dominant language of academia and research, with many universities offering programs in English, regardless of their geographical location.
 - Economic and Political Power: The widespread use of English is partly tied to the historical and contemporary economic and political influence of English-speaking countries, notably the United States and the United Kingdom.
2. How does language interact with every aspect of human life in society?
- Social Identity: Language plays a crucial role in forming and expressing social identity. It can indicate a person's cultural background, social status, and even group membership.
 - Cultural Transmission: Language is a medium through which cultural values, traditions, and beliefs are passed from generation to generation.
 - Cognitive Development: Language influences cognitive processes such as thinking, reasoning, and problem-solving. It shapes how individuals perceive the world around them.
 - Social Interaction: Language is essential for communication within a society. It enables people to share information, form relationships, and build communities.
 - Law and Governance: Language is critical in areas such as law, politics, and governance, as it helps to codify laws, negotiate agreements, and facilitate public discourse.
3. What are the differences between formal and informal English?
- Vocabulary Choice: Formal English uses sophisticated, precise vocabulary, often with technical or academic words, whereas informal English tends to use more conversational words, idioms, and slang.

- Tone and Style: Formal English is generally polite, serious, and structured. Informal English is casual, relaxed, and may include contractions, abbreviations, and colloquial expressions.
 - Sentence Structure: Formal English often employs complex sentence structures and passive voice, while informal English tends to use simple sentences and active voice.
 - Context of Use: Formal English is typically used in academic writing, business correspondence, and professional settings. Informal English is used in daily conversations, text messaging, social media, and among friends and family.
4. How has technology impacted the English language?
- Creation of New Words: Technology has introduced new terms and neologisms, such as “selfie,” “blog,” “hashtag,” “emoji,” and “vlog.” Many of these words relate directly to digital culture.
 - Language Simplification: Communication via texting, social media, and instant messaging has led to the use of abbreviations (e.g., “LOL,” “BRB”) and shortened forms of words.
 - Global Influence: The internet has facilitated the spread of English, particularly through social media, making it even more prominent as a global language.
 - Language Change: Technology has influenced both spelling conventions and grammar usage due to the informal nature of many digital platforms. For example, the use of emojis as non-verbal communication has changed how people express emotions in text.
 - Online Learning: Technology has made learning English more accessible to non-native speakers through apps, online courses, and digital resources.
5. What are the challenges faced by non-native speakers when learning English linguistics?

- Pronunciation and Phonology: English has many sounds that do not exist in other languages, making pronunciation difficult. The inconsistent spelling-to-sound relationship in English further complicates pronunciation.

(You might want to include here: cross-linguistic interference. An example of this is how it is typically difficult for Japanese to pronounce English word correctly, because they have different phonological system (it is difficult for Japanese to pronounce ‘l’ or two adjacent consonants other than ‘ts’). You can find more references in Ortega’s book (2009), *Understanding Second Language Acquisition*.

- Grammar Rules: English grammar, with its irregular verbs, tenses, and complex sentence structures, can be challenging for learners.
- Idiomatic Expressions: English is full of idiomatic expressions and phrasal verbs (e.g., “give up,” “take off”), which are often difficult to understand and translate.
- Vocabulary and Collocations: Learning the vast number of words and their correct collocations (e.g., “make a decision” vs. “do a decision”) can be challenging for non-native speakers.
- Cultural Nuances: Understanding the cultural context behind language use is crucial. Non-native speakers may struggle to understand when to use formal vs. informal language or how to interpret indirect communication (e.g., politeness strategies).
- Fluency and Confidence: Non-native speakers may face challenges with fluency, especially when engaging in spontaneous conversation, which can affect their confidence in using the language.

Note:

These answers provide a strong foundation for students to engage in discussion and expand their understanding of English as a global language and its complexities in various societal and technological contexts.

C. Multiple Choices (Individual Work)

1. a. Arbitrariness
2. c. Productivity
3. b. Arbitrariness
4. a. The ability to refer to things not present
5. b. Discreteness
6. d. Displacement
7. c. Cultural Transmission
8. b. The organization of sounds at two levels: sounds and meaning
9. b. Discreteness
10. a. Productivity
11. b. Arbitrariness
12. a. Cultural Transmission
13. a. Discreteness
14. b. It refers to the double articulation of sounds and meanings.
15. a. Displacement
16. b. Productivity
17. b. Duality
18. c. Grammaticality
19. a. Displacement
20. c. Duality of patterning
21. d. Productivity
22. b. Arbitrariness
23. c. Displacement
24. b. Cultural Transmission
25. a. Cultural Transmission

Bab II

Phonetics

Objectives:

1. Students are able to explain the basic concept of phonetics
2. Students are able to read and write based on the International Phonetic Alphabet
3. Students are able to produce sound based on phonetic theory

Materials:

1. What phonetics is
2. Place of articulation
3. Manner of articulation
4. International Phonetic Alphabet

PHONETICS

The study of speech sounds is known as phonetics. It contains three subfields or branches.

- Articulatory phonetics studies the role of vocal organs in producing speech sounds -- i.e., what speech organs are involved and what physical gestures are required to produce the sounds.
- Acoustic phonetics studies the physical qualities of speech sounds as they pass through the air in the form of sound waves, including frequency (how many cycles per second), amplitude (how loud), and duration (for how long).
- Auditory phonetics explores how humans hear speech sounds through the ear, including quality, pitch, volume, and length.

The minimal distinct sounds we distinguish one after the other in speech are called speech sounds (= phones), whereas phoneme is the smallest unit of speech sound with linguistic meaning. The International Phonetic Association developed an internationally known phonetic alphabet (henceforth IPA) to symbolize the sounds of all languages. In the phonetic alphabet, each symbol had exactly one sound value. In IPA, the most appropriate symbol is usually used as the representative of the phoneme. Thus, the word <cat> would begin with a [k] rather than a [c]. The Roman alphabet uses angle brackets < > to encapsulate typical orthographic forms. Meanwhile, the slashes / / are used to denote the phonetic form.

All languages' sounds are classified as consonants or vowels as seen in figure 2.1. We produce vowels with some constriction or closure in the vocal tract, which hinders air movement out of the lungs. Vowels are classified as monophthongs and diphthongs. Simple vowels are known as monophthongs. A diphthong is a combination of two vowels, regarded as a single phoneme. In phonetics, consonants and vowels relate to types of sounds, not orthography.

Consonants			
1	/p/	as in	pen /pen/
2	/b/	as in	big /big/
3	/t/	as in	tea /ti:/
4	/d/	as in	do /du:/
5	/k/	as in	cat /kæt/
6	/g/	as in	go /gəʊ/
7	/f/	as in	four /fɔ:/
8	/v/	as in	very /'veri/
9	/s/	as in	son /sʌn/
10	/z/	as in	zoo /zu:/
11	/l/	as in	live /lɪv/
12	/m/	as in	my /maɪ/
13	/n/	as in	near /nɪə/
14	/h/	as in	happy /hæpi/
15	/r/	as in	red /red/
16	/j/	as in	yes /jes/
17	/w/	as in	want /wɒnt/
18	/θ/	as in	thanks /θæŋks/
19	/ð/	as in	the /ðə/
20	/ʃ/	as in	she /ʃi:/
21	/ʒ/	as in	television /'telɪvɪʒn/
22	/tʃ/	as in	child /tʃaɪld/
23	/dʒ/	as in	German /'dʒɜ:mən/
24	/ŋ/	as in	English /'ɪŋɡlɪʃ/

Vowels			
25	/i:/	as in	see /si:/
26	/ɪ/	as in	his /hɪz/
27	/i/	as in	twenty /'twenti/
28	/e/	as in	ten /ten/
29	/æ/	as in	stamp /stæmp/
30	/ɑ:/	as in	father /'fɑ:ðə/
31	/ɒ/	as in	hot /hɒt/
32	/ɔ:/	as in	morning /mɔ:nɪŋ/
33	/ʊ/	as in	football /'fʊtbɔ:l/
34	/u:/	as in	you /ju:/
35	/ʌ/	as in	sun /sʌn/
36	/ɜ:/	as in	learn /lɜ:n/
37	/ə/	as in	letter /'leta/

Diphthongs (two vowels together)			
38	/eɪ/	as in	name /neɪm/
39	/əʊ/	as in	new /nju:/
40	/aɪ/	as in	my /maɪ/
41	/aʊ/	as in	how /haʊ/
42	/ɔɪ/	as in	boy /bɔɪ/
43	/ɪə/	as in	hear /hɪə/
44	/eə/	as in	where /weə/
45	/ʊə/	as in	tour /tʊə/

(Source: <https://zuugs.ch/showcase/pronunciation/back-matter/appendix/>)

Figure 2.1 The International Phonetic Alphabet

A. Place and Manner of Articulation

As air moves through the vocal tract, we use several structures inside the mouth to shape speech sounds. Articulators consist of the lips and tongue.

1. Vowels

Although no bones are in the tongue, different sections can move independently. The articulators include the tongue front (containing the tip and the blade), the tongue body, and the tongue root (see Figure 2.2). Vowel sounds are categorized as either monophthong (simple vowels) or diphthong (a combination of two vowel sounds; regarded as a single phoneme).

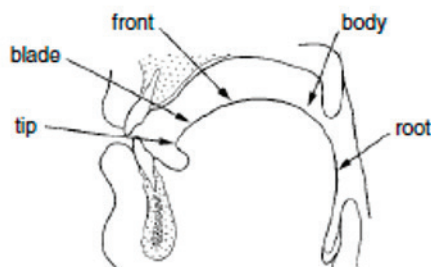


Figure 2.2 Areas of the Tongue (Zsiga, 2006)

Vowels are produced with minimum obstruction of airflow from the lungs through the nose and/or mouth (see Figure 2.3 for English vowel chart). The configuration of the vocal tract during the passage of air determines the acoustic characteristics of a vowel. Within the oral cavity, different sections of the tongue can be lifted or lowered; the lips can be extended or contracted; and the velum can be elevated or lowered. For high vowels [u, ʊ, i, ɪ], the tongue body moves up. For low vowels [a, æ], the tongue body moves down. And for mid vowels [o, ɔ, e, ε, ʌ, ə], the tongue body stays. For front vowels [e, ε, æ, i, ɪ], the tongue slides forward. For rear vowels [o, ɔ, a, u, ʊ], the tongue slides backward. The vowels [ʌ, ə] are central. Vowels also differ in terms of lip rounding. The back vowels [o, ɔ, u, ʊ] are rounded, whereas the other vowels are unrounded. Furthermore, vowels are also divided into lax and tense. The tense vowels [e, o, u, i] require more tongue root stiffening compared to their lax counterparts [ɔ, ʊ, ɪ, ε]. The tense/lax difference does not apply to low vowels. All vowel descriptions can be combined into one. Therefore, the vowel [ɪ] is high, front, lax, unrounded, whereas the vowel [o] is mid, back, tense, round.

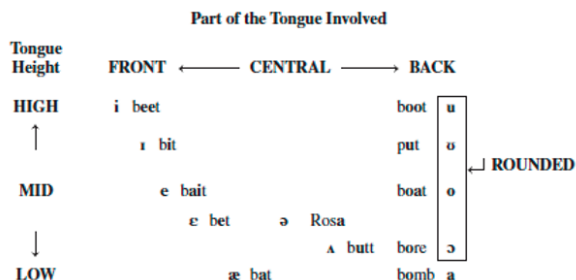


Figure 2.3 English Vowels (Fromkin et al., 2009)

a. Exercises

- 1) Work in pairs to identify the place and manner of articulation for each vowel in these words.
 - Homemaker / 'həʊm, meɪkə /
 - Numerous / 'nju:m(ə)rəs /
 - Obedient / əʊ'bi:diənt /
 - Idea / aɪ'diə /
 - Modern / 'mɒdn /
 - Pronounce / prə'naʊns /
 - International / ɪntə'næʃənəl /
 - Phonetic / fəʊ'netɪk /
 - Alphabet / 'ælfəbet /
 - Linguistics / lɪŋ'ɡwɪstɪks /
- 2) Work individually to identify the diphthong in every word and tick (✓) the suitable box (can also be done in pairs or group).

Words	/eɪ/	/əʊ/	/aɪ/	/aʊ/	/ɔɪ/	/ɪə/	/eə/	/ʊə/
toy								
how								
may								
now								
near								

Words	/eɪ/	/əʊ/	/aɪ/	/aʊ/	/ɔɪ/	/ɪə/	/eə/	/ʊə/
pear								
low								
high								
rose								
town								

3) Consonants

Figure 2.4 depicts the articulators. From behind your upper **teeth**, run your tongue across the top of your mouth. First, you will come upon the **alveolar ridge** to the **hard palate**. Far back in your mouth, there is the **soft palate**, sometimes known as **velum**. The velum is a muscle tissue that controls the velar port, connecting the mouth and nose. When you pronounce “ah”, you can see the tiny pink pendulum, **uvula**, hanging down at the rear of your mouth, marking the very end of the velum.

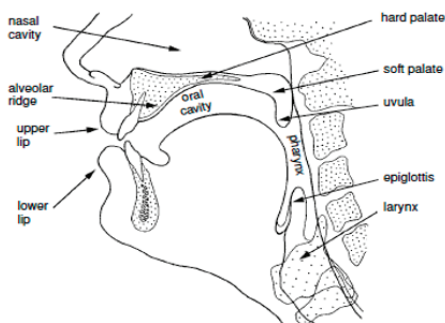


Figure 2.4 Part of the Vocal Tract (Zsiga, 2006)

Table 2.1 summarizes the English consonant **places of articulation**. **Bilabial** sounds are produced when the upper and lower lips come together (i.e., [p], [b], [m]). The

lower lip may touch the upper teeth, creating a **labiodental** sound. (i.e., [v], [f]). Placing the tongue tip on the alveolar ridge—also called the **alveolar** of articulation—results in the English sounds [n], [t], [d], [s], and [z]. Further back, the [ʃ] and [ʒ] are produced as the tongue’s blade constricts at the **palato-alveolar** place of articulation. The English words <you> and <yacht> begin with a palatal **glide**—that is, [j]. **Velar** is when the tongue body goes up to form a constriction against the velum—that is, [k] and [g].

Table 2.1 Place of Articulation of English Consonant
(Fromkin et al., 2009)

Bilabial	p	b	m				
Labiodental	f	v					
Interdental	θ	ð					
Alveolar	t	d	n	s	z	l	r
Palatal	ʃ	ʒ	tʃ	dʒ			
Velar	k	g	ŋ				
Glottal	h	ʔ					

For consonant’s **manner of articulation**, vocal fold vibration produces **voiced** sounds. Sounds produced without vocal fold vibration are **voiceless**. Apart from choosing what to do with the larynx, the speaker must also determine whether to open the velum or not. If the velum is open, air enters the nose and produces **nasal** sounds. An **oral** sound results from a closed velum.

Now, we address the consonant’s manners of articulation: stop, fricative, affricate, glide, lateral, and rothics. When the articulators come together to create a complete closure, closing off airflow out of the mouth entirely, the manner of articulation is called a **stop** (e.g., [p], [t], [k]). The sound [m] signals a **nasal** stop. When the articulators are brought close together but not totally closed, the stream of air pressed between them becomes turbulent; it is called a **fricative** manner of articulation (e.g., [s], [z], [f], [v]). **Affricates** are

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sounds composed of a stop followed directly by a fricative (e.g., [tʃ]). When the articulator moves to constrict the vocal tract without generating fricative sounds, it results in an **approximant** manner of articulation (e.g., [ɪ], [r], [w], [j]). **Glides**, like [j] and [w] are known as a semivowel, is a speech sound with vowel-like qualities that functions as a consonant, acting as a smooth, quick transition (or “glide”) into a full vowel sound. Because air moves out of the tongue’s sides, the l-sounds in <languages> are known as **laterals**. Try pronouncing [l]. Now, breathe without moving your tongue. Your tongue will feel air flowing over its sides. The r-sounds are **rhotics**.

Oral stops, fricatives, and affricates are categorized as **obstruents** since they generate noise by blocking airflow in the vocal tract, producing a burst of sound when a closure is released or a hissing sound when air flows across a narrow constriction. **Sonorants** are a type of sound comprising nasal stops, approximants, and vowels—that is, anything except an obstruent. Sonorant noises are nearly always vocal. Table 2.2 summarizes the place and manner of articulation for some English consonants.

Table 2.2 Some Phonetic Symbols for English Consonants (Fromkin et al., 2009)

	Bilabial	Labiodental	Interdental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stop (oral)							
voiceless	p			t		k	ʔ
voiced	b			d		g	
Nasal (voiced)	m			n		ŋ	
Fricative							
voiceless		f	θ	s	ʃ		h
voiced		v	ð	z	ʒ		
Affricate							
voiceless					tʃ		
voiced					dʒ		
Glide							
voiceless	ɸ					ɰ	
voiced	w				j	w	
Liquid (voiced)							
(central)				r			
(lateral)				l			

EXERCISES

- a. Identify the place and manner of articulation for each consonant in these words

o Continue	/ kən'tɪnju: /
o Change	/ 'tʃeɪndʒ /
o Traditional	/ trə'dɪʃənəl /
o Victorian	/ vɪk'tɔ:riən /
o Breadwinner	/ 'brɛd,wɪnə /
o Pronounce	/ prə'naʊns /
o International	/ ɪntə'næʃənəl /
o Phonetic	/ fəʊ'netɪk /
o Alphabet	/ 'ælfəbet /
o Linguistics	/ lɪŋ'ɡwɪstɪks /

- b. Read and guess the words of the following IPA

Phonetics	Phonetics
/ 'ɔ:lweɪz /	/ eɪs /
/ ə'meɪzɪŋ /	/ 'ɪntəvju /
/ 'ɔ:fəl /	/ 'ɪntreɪstɪŋ /
/ bɔ:t /	/ lɑ:f /
/ kʌm /	/ lʌv /
/ 'kʌzən /	/ 'mʌni /
/ 'draɪvɪŋ /	/ mju'zi:əm /
/ ɪg'zɔ:stɪd /	/ 'peərənts /
/ aɪz /	/ saɪəns /
/ 'feɪvrət /	/ sɪns /
/ faɪnd /	/ sməʊk /
/ 'fʊləʊd /	/ tɔ:k /
/ frenz /	/ tɔ:l /
/ ɡest /	/ 'vedʒtəbəl /
/ 'hedeɪk /	/ 'wɑ:drəʊb /

- c. Write the sentence into the phonetics transcriptions.
- Change your language and you change your thoughts.
 - A language is an exact reflection of the character and growth of its speakers
 - Remember, when it comes to applying for jobs, books are judged by their cover!
 - Minds are like parachutes — they only function when open.
 - Follow your passion, stay true to yourself.
 - Never follow someone else's path unless you're in the woods and you're lost and you see a path then by all means you should follow that.

ANSWER KEYS

A.1.a.1. Identify the place and manner of articulation for each vowel in these words

Word	IPA	Vowel (monophthong)	Place and manner of articulation
Homemaker	/ 'həʊm,meɪkə /	[ə]	Central mid rounded lax vowel
Numerous	/ 'nju:m(ə)rəs /	[u:]	Back high rounded tense vowel
		[ə]	Central mid unrounded lax vowel
Obedient	/ əʊ'bi:diənt /	[i:]	Front high unrounded tense vowel
Idea	/ ɪ'dɪə /	-	-
Modern	/ 'mɒdn /	[ɒ]	Back mid rounded lax vowel
Pronounce	/ prə'naʊns /	[ə]	Central mid rounded lax vowel
International	/ ɪntə'næʃənəl /	[ɪ]	Front high unrounded lax vowel
		[ə]	Central mid rounded lax vowel
		[æ]	Central low unrounded lax vowel
Phonetic	/ fəʊ'netɪk /	[ɛ]	Front mid unrounded lax vowel
		[ɪ]	Front high unrounded lax vowel

Word	IPA	Vowel (monophthong)	Place and manner of articulation
Alphabet	/ 'ælfəbet /	[æ] [ə] [ɛ]	Central low unrounded lax vowel Central mid unrounded lax vowel Front mid unrounded lax vowel
Linguistics	/ lɪŋ'gwɪstɪks /	[ɪ]	Front high unrounded lax vowel

A.1.a.2. Identify the diphthong in every word and tick (v) the suitable box.

Words	/eɪ/	/əʊ/	/aɪ/	/aʊ/	/ɔɪ/	/ɪə/	/eə/	/ʊə/
toy					v			
how								
may	v							
now				v				
near						v		
pear							v	
low		v						
high			v					
rose		v						
town				v				

B.1. a. Identify the place and manner of articulation for each consonant in these words!

Word	IPA	Consonant	Place and manner of articulation
Continue	/ kən'tɪnjuː /	[k]	Velar stop voiced consonant
		[n]	Alveolar nasal voiced consonant
		[t]	Alveolar stop voiceless consonant
		[j]	Palatal glide voiced consonant
Change	/ 'tʃeɪndʒ /	[tʃ]	Palatal affricate voiceless consonant
		[n]	Alveolar nasal voiced consonant
		[dʒ]	Palatal affricate voiced consonant
Traditional	/ trə'dɪʃənəl /	[t]	Alveolar stop voiceless consonant
		[r]	Alveolar liquid-central voiced consonant
		[d]	Alveolar stop voiced consonant
		[ʃ]	Palatal fricative voiceless consonant
		[n]	Alveolar nasal voiced consonant
		[l]	Alveolar liquid-lateral voiced consonant
Victorian	/ vɪk'tɔːrɪən /	[v]	Labiodental fricative voiced consonant
		[k]	Velar stop voiced consonant
		[t]	Alveolar stop voiceless consonant

Word	IPA	Consonant	Place and manner of articulation
		[r]	Alveolar liquid-central voiced consonant
		[n]	Alveolar nasal voiced consonant
Breadwinner	/ 'brɛdˌwɪnə /	[b]	Bilabial stop voiced consonant
		[r]	Alveolar liquid-central voiced consonant
		[d]	Alveolar stop voiced consonant
		[w]	Bilabial glide voiced consonant
		[n]	Alveolar nasal voiced consonant
Pronounce	/ prəˈnaʊns /	[p]	Bilabial stop voiceless consonant
		[r]	Alveolar liquid-central voiced consonant
		[n]	Alveolar nasal voiced consonant
		[s]	Alveolar fricative voiceless consonant
International	/ ɪntəˈnæʃənəl /	[n]	Alveolar nasal voiced consonant
		[t]	Alveolar stop voiceless consonant
		[ʃ]	Palatal fricative voiceless consonant
		[l]	Alveolar liquid-lateral voiced consonant

Word	IPA	Consonant	Place and manner of articulation
Phonetic	/ fəʊ'nɛtɪk /	[f]	Labiodental fricative voiceless consonant
		[n]	Alveolar nasal voiced consonant
		[t]	Alveolar stop voiceless consonant
		[k]	Velar stop voiced consonant
Alphabet	/ 'ælfəbɛt /	[l]	Alveolar liquid-lateral voiced consonant
		[f]	Labiodental fricative voiceless consonant
		[b]	Bilabial stop voiced consonant
		[t]	Alveolar stop voiceless consonant
Linguistics	/ lɪŋ'gwɪstɪks /	[l]	Alveolar liquid-lateral voiced consonant
		[ŋ]	Velar nasal voiced consonant
		[g]	Velar stop voiced consonant
		[w]	Velar glide voiced consonant
		[s]	Alveolar fricative voiceless consonant
		[t]	Alveolar stop voiceless consonant
		[k]	Velar stop voiced consonant

B.1.b Read and guess the words of the following IPA

Phonetics	Word	Phonetics	Word
/ 'ɔ:lweɪz /	always	/ eɪs /	ice
/ ə'meɪzɪŋ /	amazing	/ 'ɪntəvjʊ /	interview
/ 'ɔ:fəl /	awful	/ 'ɪntrəstɪŋ /	interesting
/ bɔ:t /	bought	/ lɑ:f /	laugh
/ kʌm /	come	/ lʌv /	love
/ 'kʌzən /	cousin	/ 'mʌni /	many
/ 'draɪvɪŋ /	driving	/ mju'zi:əm /	museum
/ ɪg'zɔ:stɪd /	exhausted	/ 'peərənts /	parents
/ aɪz /	eyes	/ saɪəns /	science
/ 'feɪvrət /	favourite	/ sɪns /	since
/ faɪnd /	find / fined	/ sməʊk /	smoke
/ 'fɒləʊd /	followed	/ tɔ:k /	talk
/ frenz /	friends	/ tɔ:l /	tall
/ gest /	guest	/ 'vedʒtəbəl /	vegetable
/ 'hedeɪk /	headache	/ 'wɑ:drəʊb /	wardrobe

B.1.c Write the sentence of these phonetics transcriptions.

- / ʃeɪndʒ jɔ: 'læŋɡwɪdʒ ænd ju: ʃeɪndʒ jɔ: θɔ:ts/
Change your language and you change your thoughts.
- 'læŋɡwɪdʒ ɪz ən ɪg'zækt rɪ'fleɪʃən ɒv ðə 'kæræktər ænd grəʊθ
ɒv ɪts 'spi:kə/
A language is an exact reflection of the character and growth
of its speakers
- / rɪ'membə, wen ɪt kʌmz tu: ə 'plʌɪŋ fɔ: dʒɒbz, bʊks ɑ: 'dʒʌdʒd
baɪ ðə 'kʌvə!/
Remember, when it comes to applying for jobs, books are
judged by their cover!
- / maɪndz ɑ: laɪk 'pærəʃu:ts — ðeɪ 'əʊnli 'fʌŋkʃən wen 'əʊpən/
Minds are like parachutes — they only function when open.
- / 'fɒləʊ jɔ: 'pæʃən, steɪ tru: tu: jɔ: 'self/
Follow your passion, stay true to yourself
- / 'nevə 'fɒləʊ 'sʌmwʌn 'elsɪz pɑ:θən'les jɔ:rɪn ðə wɜ:dz ænd jɔ:
lɒst ænd ju:si: ə pɑ:θ ðen baɪ ɔ:l mi:nz ju: ʃʊd 'fɒləʊ ðæt./
Never follow someone else's path unless you're in the woods
and you're lost and you see a path then by all means you
should follow that.

Bab III

Phonology

Objectives :

1. Students are able to describe the basic concept of phonology
2. Students are able to formulate the phonological environment of allophone

Materials :

1. What phonology is
2. Minimal pairs
3. Natural classes
4. Distinctive features
5. Allophone

PHONOLOGY

Phonetics enables us to study the process of producing sounds (phones) in language. Phonology refers to speakers' linguistic knowledge regarding their language's sound patterns. Phonology informs you which sound combinations can create words, and which cannot. **Phonology**, then, is the study of sound pattern organization. Phonology clarifies how different sounds combine to create phonemes.

A. Phoneme

A **phoneme** is an abstract minimal sound unit of a particular language that discriminate between words. The minimal pair method helps one find phonemes. The two sounds indicate separate phonemes if changing one sound with another generates a new word. So, the two sounds form a minimum pair. Usually, we put speech sounds between slashes // when we transcribe them from the point of view of the phoneme.

A **phonetic feature** is considered unique when the positive (+) value of that feature in certain words contrasts with the negative (–) value of that feature in other words. Every phoneme in a language has to have at least one feature difference set out from the others. The feature matrix in Table 3.1 offers a more particular definition of the phonemes /m/, /p/, /b/.

Table 3.1 Phonetic Features of [p], [m], [b]

	[p]	[b]	[m]
Stop	+	+	+
Labial	+	+	+
Voiced	–	+	+
Nasal	–	–	+

Features	i	ɪ	e	ɛ	æ	u	ʊ	o	ɔ	a	ʌ
High	+	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-
Mid	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	+	-	+
Low	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-
Back	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	-
Central	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+
Round	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	+	-	-
Tense	+	-	+	-	-	+	-	+	-	+	-

Features	p	b	m	t	d	n	k	g	ŋ	f	v	θ	ð	s	z	ʃ	ʒ	tʃ	dʒ	l	r	j	w	h
Consonantal	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	-
Sonorant	-	-	+	-	-	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	+
Syllabic	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Nasal	-	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Voiced	-	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Continuant	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Labial	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Alveolar	-	-	-	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Palatal	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Anterior	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Velar	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Coronal	-	-	-	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Sibilant	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	-

Note: The phonemes /r/ and /l/ are distinguished by the feature [lateral], not shown here. /l/ is the only phoneme that would be [+lateral].

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1. *Minimal pairs*

Minimal pairings reveal that some speech sounds in a language are contrastive, such as <big> and <dig>. **Minimal pairs** suggest that the two sounds have contrastive differences; that is, a new word when one sound is changed into another. Consequently, when two sounds form minimal pairs, those two sounds represent different phonemes. The four essential criteria for minimal pairs are as follows: (1) they must possess an equal number of phonetic elements, (2) they must be identical in all aspects except for one sound, (3) the differing sounds must occupy identical positions in each word, and (4) the words must convey distinct meanings. See the examples of minimal pairs in table 3.2.

Table 3.2 Minimal Pairs Examples

MINIMAL PAIRS			
	INITIAL	MEDIAL	FINAL
1.	<u>B</u> all, <u>t</u> all	Bab <u>b</u> le, batt <u>l</u> e	Cab, cat
	/B <u>ɒ</u> l, t <u>ɒ</u> l /	/bæ <u>b</u> əl, bæ <u>t</u> əl/	/kæ <u>b</u> , kæt/
2.	<u>B</u> ow, <u>p</u> ow	Stab <u>l</u> e, stap <u>l</u> e	lab, lap
	/b <u>au</u> , p <u>au</u> /	/steb <u>əl</u> step <u>əl</u> /	/læ <u>b</u> læ <u>p</u> /
3.	<u>D</u> eed, <u>n</u> eed	Tid <u>y</u> , tin <u>y</u>	Bad, ban
	/d <u>id</u> , n <u>id</u> /	/tard <u>i</u> , tarn <u>i</u> /	/bæ <u>d</u> , bæ <u>n</u> /
4.	<u>D</u> ie, <u>l</u> ie	Tid <u>ing</u> , til <u>ing</u>	Pad, Pal
	/da <u>i</u> , la <u>i</u> /	/tard <u>ɪ</u> n, ta <u>ɪ</u> l <u>ɪ</u> n/	/Pæ <u>d</u> , Pæ <u>l</u> /
5.	<u>P</u> ie, <u>t</u> ie	Top <u>per</u> , tot <u>ter</u>	Hip, hit
	/pa <u>i</u> , ta <u>i</u> /	/tə <u>p</u> ər, tət <u>ər</u> /	/h <u>ɪ</u> p, h <u>ɪ</u> t/

(<https://www.ecenglish.com/en/school-locations/blog/ec/learn-english-in-brighton/2019/05/13/minimal-pairs-just-a-phoneme-apart/>)

Exercise (Roma, 2018)

In a group of 3, create one minimal pair (write the phonetic transcription) with each given word in an initial position. In pairs,

create one minimal pair (write the phonetic transcription) with each given word in the medial position. Individually, create one minimal pair (write the phonetic transcription) with each given word in the final position. An example in Table 3.3 is provided for each position.

Table 3.3 Minimal Pair Exercises

Initial	Medial	Final
Example: /t/ tea: pea, sea	charter: charmer, charger	seat: seed, seal
/p/ pack:	mapping:	ape:
/m/ mate:	slimming:	room:
/s/ seek:	leasing:	class:
/ʃ/ sheet:	mashed:	bash:
/l/ lash:	rolling:	coal:
/f/ feel:	refined:	staff:
/n/ knee:	sneak:	bone:
/d/ dash:	budding:	bed:
/g/ gain:	plugging:	wig:
/ɹ/ rain:	roaring:	four:
/z/ zip:	buzzing:	seize:

2. Natural classes and distinctive features

A **natural class** refers to a group of sounds that share specific qualities (e.g., [–voiced] [–continuant] to characterize /t/, /k/, /p/, and /tʃ/). To identify natural classes, select segments with one or more features that precisely correspond. For example, the natural class of voiced stops /d, n, g, ɳ, b, m/ is characterized by the features [+voice] and [–continuant], while the natural class of high vowels /u, ʊ, i:, ɪ/ is characterized by the feature [+high].

Two phones must have some phonetic difference if their meanings differ as well. We acknowledge the distinction in voicing between [s] and [z], with [s] being voiceless and [z] being voiced. A **distinctive feature** separates one phoneme from another. Table 3.4 shows the unique qualities of English voiced stops. Every phoneme in this chart stands out from all the others at least in one unique aspect:

Table 3.4 Distinctive Feature Example

	/m/	/n/	/b/	/d/	/g/	/ŋ/
Stop	+	+	+	+	+	+
Voiced	+	+	+	+	+	+
Labial	+	-	+	-	-	-
Alveolar	-	+	-	+	-	-
Velar	-	-	-	-	+	+
Nasal	+	+	-	-	-	+

Vowels also have distinctive features. As an illustration, [±tense] distinguishes the vowel system by separating [i] from [ɪ] (<beat> against <bit>).

B. Allophone

Each phoneme is associated with one or more **allophones**, which are the specific sounds produced by the phoneme in distinct predictable contexts. Phonemes are denoted by slashes / /, and allophones by square brackets []. For example, the aspirated phoneme /p/ in <spit> and the unaspirated allophone [p^h] in <pit>. In other words, the allophones of a phoneme are a group of phones that represent the same phoneme. The allophone is in a complementary distribution and rule-governed.

Cat/cats, dog/dogs, and fox/foxes are among English nouns with a plural form. But have you ever given more thought to the pronunciation of plural forms? Consider the plural allomorphs example in Table 3.5, taken from (Fromkin et al., 2009):

Table 3.5 Plural Allomorph Samples

A	B	C	D
cab	cap	bus	child
cad	cat	bush	ox
bag	back	buzz	mouse
love	cuff	garage	criterion
lathe	faith	match	sheep
cam		badge	
can			
call			
bar			
spa			
boy			

The plural nouns in Column A end with a [z], a voiced alveolar fricative. The plural ending for Column B is [s], a voiceless alveolar fricative. For Column C, it's [əz]. This is our first instance of a morpheme with several pronunciations. Furthermore, we might notice the regularity of columns A, B, and C, which column D lacks. The plural forms in D—children, oxen, mice, criteria, and sheep—are specific circumstances you memorize individually.

How should we pronounce the plural morpheme? Making a chart noting the phonological settings in which each variant of the morpheme helps you answer this kind of inquiry. More precisely, a phoneme variety is called an **allophone**. We will create a chart for the plural morpheme (as in Table 3.6) by writing the sample words in phonetic transcription:

Table 3.6 Plural Morpheme Examples

Allomorph	Environment
[s]	After [kæp], [kæt], [bæk], [kʌf], [feθ] e.g., [kæps], [kæts] . . . [feθs]
[z]	After [kæb], [kæd], [bæg], [lʌv], [leð], [kæm], [kæn], [bæŋ], [kɔl], [bar], [spɑ], [bɔɪ] e.g., [kæbz], [kædz] . . . [bɔɪz]
[əz]	After [bʌs], [bʊf], [bʌz], [gərəʒ], [mætʃ], [bædʒ] e.g., [bʌsəz], [bʊfəz] . . . [bædʒəz]

To identify the pattern of plural pronunciation, we look for an environmental trait related to each group of allomorphs. For instance, why will the plural morpheme have the form [z] instead of [s] or [əz] as in <cab> [kæb] or <love> [lʌv] or <bag> [bæg] and <badge> [bædʒ]? The final segment of the word shapes the distribution of plural allomorphs in English. By concentrating on the last segment, we may create a more compact chart as shown in Table 3.7:

Table 3.7 The Distribution of Plural Allomorphs

Allomorph	Environment
[s]	After [f], [θ], [k], [p], [t]
[z]	After [l], [r], [v], [ð], [b], [d], [g], [m], [n], [ŋ], [a], [ɔɪ]
[əz]	After [tʃ], [dʒ], [s], [ʃ], [z], [ʒ]

We now want to find the reason English plurals follow this pattern. We constantly evaluate the phonetic properties. An investigation reveals that the segments that trigger the [əz] plural have a common characteristic: they are sibilants. The nonsibilants use the [s] plural, and the voices use the [z] plural. The rules can now be stated more generally as shown in Table 3.8:

Table 3.8 English Plurals Allomorph's Rule

Allomorph	Phonological environment
[z]	After voiced nonsibilant phoneme
[s]	After voiceless nonsibilant phoneme
[əz]	After sibilant phoneme

When two distinct sounds are predictable depending on the context, we refer to it as a **complementary distribution**. It may not sound like Standard English pronunciation, but changing one sound for another will not change the word's meaning. Given these facts, some phonemes are expressed by a single sound and have one allophone. When there are multiple allophones in a set, they must be phonetically similar, meaning they share the majority of phonetic properties.

EXERCISES

1. Work in groups of 4 or 5. Examine the following past tense forms in English:

hated	pulled	roared	walked
raided	opened	hugged	pushed
faded	groomed	robbed	missed
fitted	mowed	bruised	hoped
mated	cried	loved	fetched
loaded	paid	judged	laughed

- Determine the allomorphs of this inflectional suffix.
 - Determine the conditioning environments for each of the allomorphs. You should apply the step-by-step allomorph identification. We will discuss the answer together.
2. Complete the statement by choosing one of the options from the words in the brackets (half exercise can be done in a group of pair work, the other can be done individually) (Roma, 2018)

- (a) If two languages have the same sounds, then they (sometimes / always / often / never) have different phonologies.
- (b) If the phonetic difference between two sounds serves as the basis for distinguishing words, then the difference is (distinctive / phonemic / non-predictable / allophonic / predictable).
- (c) Occurrences of the allophones of a single phoneme are (always / sometimes / often / never) predictable.
- (d) Allophones of a single phoneme are (sometimes / often / always / never) phonetically similar.
- (e) If two phonetically similar sounds are in complementary distribution, then they are (sometimes / often / always / never) allophones of the same phoneme.
- (f) If two sounds are in free variation, then they are (sometimes / always / never) allophones of the same phoneme.
- (g) Speakers of a language tend to be (more / less / equally) consciously aware of phonemes than of allophones.
- (h) Two sounds that appear in a minimal pair (sometimes / always / never) belong to distinct phonemes.

Figure 3.1 Completing Statements Exercise

ANSWER KEYS

A.1.a. Create one minimal pair (write the phonetic transcription) with each given word in a different position. An example is provided for each position.

Initial	Medial	Final
Example: /t/ tea: pea, sea	charter: charmer, charger	seat: seed, seal
/p/ pack:	mapping:	ape:
/m/ mate:	slimming:	room:
/s/ seek:	leasing:	class:
/ʃ/ sheet:	mashed:	bash:
/l/ lash:	rolling:	coal:
/f/ feel:	refined:	staff:
/n/ knee:	sneak:	bone:
/d/ dash:	budding:	bed:
/g/ gain:	plugging:	wig:
/ɹ/ rain:	roaring:	four:
/z/ zip:	buzzing:	seize:

Initial	Medial	Final
Example: /t/ tea: pea, sea	charter: charmer, charger	seat: seed, seal
/p/ pack: back, tack	mapping: matting, mashing	ape: ate, aim
/m/ mate: bait, hate	slimming: slipping, slitting	room: root, rouge
/s/ seek: leak, beak	leasing: leashing, leaping	class: clap, clam
/ʃ/ sheet: feet, beat	mashed: mapped, mast	bash: bat, bass [fish]
/l/ lash: sash, gash	rolling: roping, roaming	coal: comb, cope
/f/ feel: peel, real	refined: remind, rewind	staff: stack, stab
/n/ knee: bee, fee	sneak: speak, sleek	bone: boat, bowl
/d/ dash: bash, cash	budding: butting, bumming	bed: bet, beg
/g/ gain: rain, pain	plugging: plucking, plumbing	wig: win, wit
/ɹ/ rain: mane, cane	roaring: roaming, rolling	four: fall, fog
/z/ zip: tip, sip	buzzing: budding, bugging	seize: seek, seen

B.1.a. The allomorphs of the past tense all have the orthographic form -ed, but phonologically they are [əd], [d], and [t].

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- b. The [əd] allomorph follows roots ending in [t] or [d]; the [t] allomorph follows roots ending in voiceless obstruents, and the [d] allomorph follows roots ending in voiced stops and fricatives, liquids, nasals, and vowels. The underlying or “elsewhere” form is likely to be [d] since it is found after the greatest variety of sounds. In addition, it is easy to derive the other allomorphs from it by natural phonological process: schwa insertion to break up a cluster of two alveolar stops will yield [əd], and voice assimilation will yield [t].

{past} → [əd] / after alveolar stops
 [t] / after voiceless consonants
 [d] / elsewhere

Note that the rule is read downward. Thus, since [t] and [d] occur in the first line, they are not included among the voiceless consonants in the second line or other sounds in the third line.

- B.2. Complete the statement by choosing one of the options from the words in the brackets (half of the exercise can be done in a group of pair work, and half of the other can be done individually)

- (a) If two languages have the same sounds, then they (sometimes / always / often / never) have different phonologies.
- (b) If the phonetic difference between two sounds serves as the basis for distinguishing words, then the difference is (distinctive / phonemic / non-predictable / allophonic / predictable).
- (c) Occurrences of the allophones of a single phoneme are (always / sometimes / often / never) predictable.
- (d) Allophones of a single phoneme are (sometimes / often / always / never) phonetically similar.
- (e) If two phonetically similar sounds are in complementary distribution, then they are (sometimes / often / always / never) allophones of the same phoneme.
- (f) If two sounds are in free variation, then they are (sometimes / always / never) allophones of the same phoneme.
- (g) Speakers of a language tend to be (more / less / equally) consciously aware of phonemes than of allophones.
- (h) Two sounds that appear in a minimal pair (sometimes / always / never) belong to distinct phonemes.
- (i) If two sounds are not phonemically distinct, their distribution overlaps / does not overlap.

Bab IV

Morphology

Objectives :

1. Students are able to explain the basic concept of morphology
2. Students are able to identify the types of morphemes
3. Students are able to analyze the word formations

Materials :

1. The Definition of Morphology
2. Morphemes
3. Allomorphs
4. Lexemes
5. Words
6. Morphological Tree Diagrams

MORPHOLOGY

A. The Definition of Morphology

Morphology occupies a crucial position within the domain of linguistics, focusing on the analysis of a word's internal constitution. For example, the incorporation of the suffix “-s” to the morpheme “cookie” generates the derivative word “cookies,” signifying its plural variant. The terminology ‘morphology’ is derived from the Greek, with “morph-” translating to “shape, form,” and the suffix “-ology” indicating “the scholarly study of.” Morphology is regarded as a sub-discipline of linguistics and was named for the first time in 1859 by the German linguist August Schleicher, who applied the term to see the form of words (Booij, 2005).

Morphology is a part of lexicology and etymology, studying words, their meanings, and origins. Morphology explores how words are derived and the variations that occur when adding affixes or modifying word forms. This field also investigates words' historical development and evolution, shedding light on their etymology and changes in form and meaning over time.

In linguistics, morphology (*mor-FOL-a-jee*^[1]) (Roach et al., 2006) It is the study of words, including the principles by which they are formed and how they relate to each other within a language (Aronoff & Fudeman, 2011). Most approaches to morphology examine the structure of words in terms of morphemes, which are the smallest units in a language with some independent meaning.

B. Morphemes

1. Definition of Morphemes

Morphemes are the smallest meaning-bearing units of a linguistic expression. (Haspelmath & Sims, 2010). Morphemes serve as the basic components of morphology. Morphology dissects word forms into morphemes for analysis. It focuses on how morphemes can be

merged or divided to form various words with distinct meanings. A notable illustration is how singular nouns are transformed into their plural counterparts. The root word of a noun signifies the singular form; for instance, the morpheme “dog” means “one dog.” We add an -s to the morpheme “dog” to indicate two or more dogs because using -s or -es to form plurals is common in English. Understanding how “dog” becomes “dogs” by adding the suffix -s is an important part of morphology. In a word like “unbelievable,” the morphemes are “un-,” “believe-,” and “-able” is the bound root, and the other morphemes are derivational affixes in this case. In words like “books,” “book” is the root, and the -s is an inflectional morpheme.

The traditional way of analyzing word forms, called “item-and-arrangement,” handles words as if they were made of linked morphemes, like beads on a string. More current and advanced methods, like distributed morphology, aim to maintain the idea of the morpheme while accommodating non-linked, analogical, and other processes that have presented challenges for item-and-arrangement theories and similar approaches. (Beard, 1995)

Roots and affixes uniformly hold the status of morphemes. The “lexical morpheme” hypothesis posits that morphemes, encompassing both affixes and roots, are catalogued within the lexicon. According to Bloomfield, morphemes are considered the smallest unit capable of conveying meaning, although they do not intrinsically hold meaning. In contrast, Hockett argues that morphemes primarily function as bearers of meaning rather than structural units. He illustrates this concept with the example of the plural morpheme, which can appear in various forms or allomorphs, such as -s, -en, and -ren. Contemporary discussions in morpheme-based morphology often blend these approaches in a manner that lacks systematicity, leading to discussions that might simultaneously refer to “the plural morpheme” and “the -s morpheme” within the same framework (Swiggers, 2011).

2. *Types of Morphemes*

The concept of morphemes plays a crucial role in studying linguistics, specifically in understanding how meaning is constructed within languages. Morphemes, as the smallest units of meaning, are instrumental in dissecting the structure and formation of words. These units can be segmented into two principal categories: free morphemes and bound morphemes. Free morphemes can exist independently as standalone words, encompassing their distinct meanings. Free morphemes constitute elementary words comprised of a single morpheme. They can stand independently as separate words and are often identified as root or foundational.

e.g., house, work, high, chair, wrap. They are words in themselves.

In contrast, bound morphemes are characterized by their reliance on attachment to other morphemes, lacking the ability to convey meaning when isolated. Exploring these two morpheme types provides valuable insights into the morphological composition of language and its semantic capabilities. Bound morphemes are linguistic units that require attachment to another morpheme to convey meaning. These elements cannot stand alone and necessitate incorporation with a root word to function properly. Commonly, they manifest as affixes, encompassing both prefixes and suffixes.

1st example: “unkindness”

un- and -ness are bound morphemes, requiring the root “kind” to form the word.

These are also called affixes, as they are attached to the stem. There are two types as outlined below:

- a. Prefix (front of the base) = im-
- b. Suffix (end of the base) = -ity

Let's look at another example:

2nd example: “impossible”

The term “impossible” comprises two distinct morphemic units, among which solely “possible” qualifies as a free morpheme. This morpheme can stand autonomously without necessitating any supplementary elements.

Please remember the information below:

In the word “independent,” there is one morpheme: “im-” a bound morpheme. The prefix “im” is a negative affix that changes the meaning of the base word. For example, if “possible” means “can happen,” adding the prefix “im-” changes the definition to “cannot happen”.

Furthermore, the prefix “-ness” in “kindness” is a grammatical morpheme that converts the word “kind” into an adjective or a noun. When combined, these morphemes create the new word “kindness.” This word has a different meaning than its base word, “kind”, and is even a different part of speech, as “kind” is an adjective while “kindness” is a noun.

3. Allomorphs

Allomorphs represent distinct variations of a morpheme that manifest owing to phonological or contextual considerations. In linguistics, allomorph refers to a change in the form of a morpheme due to the influence of the environment of the word it enters. These changes can occur in the sound (phonological) aspect, but the meaning of the words does not change (Pasaribu et al., 2024). While allomorphs of a specific morpheme retain equivalent functional roles and closely related semantic content, they may exhibit variations in pronunciation or orthography.

Morphological complexity in the English language is significantly attributed to the inconsistency in the direct correlation between meaning and form across various instances within the language. Notably, word pair examples such as mouse/mice and goose/geese exemplify deviations from standard morphological patterns, utilizing internal vowel mutation rather than affixation to signal plural forms.

Furthermore, instances traditionally considered regular, like the suffix -s, display their complexities. For example, the phonetic

realization of the -s in “bats” contrasts with its pronunciation in “bags,” and plural forms like “clothes” necessitate the addition of a vowel preceding the -s, indicating a further layer of irregularity in pluralization rules. Allomorph refers to situations where different word forms are used to express the same grammatical or semantic distinction (Haspelmath & Sims, 2010).

C. Lexemes

In linguistics, a lexeme comprises inflected variants, frequently denoted in scholarly texts by the citation form rendered in small capitals (Haspelmath & Sims, 2010). To illustrate, the lexical item “swim” encompasses the morphological variants “swim,” “swims,” “swam,” and “swum.” Consequently, “swim” and “swims” are recognized as distinct morphological manifestations of the identical lexeme “swim.”

D. Words

1. *The Definition of Words*

Words are the fundamental building blocks of language, serving as the smallest independent units that carry meaning and can stand alone or be combined to form sentences (Fasold & Connor-Linton, 2006). They constitute an independent linguistic unit that does not rely on additional words for its existence, thereby enabling its separation from other units or repositioning within the linguistic structure.

Example:

The woman looked at the trees.

- a. Suffix -s is the plural marker, dependent on the noun “trees” to receive meaning.
- b. “Tree” is a word that can occur in other positions or stand on its own.

Additionally, words have internal structures composed of even smaller components.

2. *Types of Words*

a. Simple Words

Simple words do not have an internal structure (they only consist of one morpheme).

e.g.: work, build, run.

Those words cannot be split into smaller parts that carry meaning or function.

b. Complex Words

Complex words have an internal structure (consisting of two or more morphemes).

e.g.: worker

Affix -er added to the root word to form a noun.

E. Word Formation

In the academic study of linguistics, the mechanisms through which new words are generated in a language play a crucial role in understanding language evolution and morphology. Sometimes, we need to understand a linguistic process, such as rebracketing. Rebracketing, also known as misdivision, is a fascinating linguistic process where the boundaries between morphemes in a word shift, leading to a new interpretation of the word's components. This often occurs when a word is borrowed from another language or evolves within a language over time, causing speakers to perceive the structure of the word differently than its original form.

For example: “hamburger”

Original Form:

The word “hamburger” originally comes from “Hamburg,” a city in Germany, combined with the suffix “-er” to mean “a person or thing from Hamburg.” So, “Hamburger” essentially meant “a person from Hamburg.”

Rebracketing:

Over time, English speakers divided the word as “ham” + “burger,” mistakenly associating “ham” with the meat and interpreting “burger” as a standalone food item. This led to the creation of new terms like “cheeseburger” and “veggie burger,” even though the original word had nothing to do with ham.

Word formation refers to the process of creating new words in a language. It involves various methods by which new words are constructed, expanded, or modified based on existing words, morphemes (the smallest units of meaning), or patterns. The main types of word formation processes include:

1. *Reduplication*

It involves repeating a whole or part of a word to convey meaning or grammatical function. It is often used to emphasize, intensify, or denote plurality.

Examples:

- Bye-bye
- Tick-tock
- Chit-chat
- Zig-zag
- Tip-top

2. *Compounding*

Compounding is the process of combining two or more free morphemes to create a new word. The resulting compound word can be written as one word, hyphenated, or separated by spaces. Compounding is commonly seen in English, and the resulting word often conveys a new, specific meaning.

Examples:

- Toothbrush
- Blackboard
- Firefighter
- Notebook
- Laptop

3. *Back-formation*

It is yet another method in which a new word is created by removing a supposed or real affix from an existing word, typically creating a shorter form. This process often changes the part of speech of the original word.

Examples:

- Edit (from “editor”)
- Donate (from “donation”)
- Babysit (from “babysitter”)
- Burgle (from “burglar”)
- Laze (from “lazy”)

4. *Clipping*

It involves shortening a longer word to form a new, typically more concise word, usually without changing its meaning. This often results in a more casual or colloquial version of the word. Clipping can occur at the front (aphaeresis), middle (syncope), or end (apocope) of the word.

Examples:

- Ad (from “advertisement”)
- Gym (from “gymnasium”)
- Lab (from “laboratory”)
- Phone (from “telephone”)
- Math (from “mathematics”)

5. *Blending*

It represents another creative process wherein parts of two or more words are merged to form a new word. Blended words often combine the beginning of one word with the end of another to form a new, meaningful term.

Examples:

- Brunch (from “breakfast” + “lunch”)
- Motel (from “motor” + “hotel”)
- Smog (from “smoke” + “fog”)
- Chillax (from “chill” + “relax”)
- Spork (from “spoon” + “fork”)

6. *Onomatopoeia*

It captures the instances where words phonetically imitate the sounds in nature, animals, human actions, or objects they describe, like ‘sizzle’ (a hissing sound, like when food is cooking or frying). In other words, onomatopoeic words provide a direct auditory association with the sound they depict.

Examples:

- Buzz
- Bang
- Meow
- Crash
- Whistle
- Clink-clang
- Bark
- Quack-squawk

7. *Borrowing*

It plays a significant role in diversifying a language, involving incorporating words from one language into another. This typically occurs when two cultures or languages come into contact, and certain words are adopted without translation, often because there

is no equivalent term. Understanding these processes enriches our comprehension of language development and the dynamic nature of word formation.

Examples:

- Taco (from Spanish)
- Ballet (from French)
- Algebra (from Arabic)
- Karaoke (from Japanese)
- Safari (from Swahili)

8. *Shortenings*

Shortenings are the process of word formation used to shorten longer phrases or words. The type of shortening words are:

a. Acronyms

It constitutes a unique form of word formation, created from the initial letters of a series of words, where the resulting word is pronounced as a single term. Acronyms are often created for efficiency and are common in technology, organizations, and colloquial use.

Examples:

- Radar (Radio Detection and Ranging)
- NASA (National Aeronautics and Space Administration)
- ASAP (As Soon As Possible)
- UNICEF (United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund)

b. Abbreviations

Abbreviations are shortened forms of words or phrases, where a part of the original word is omitted. They are typically written as shortened versions and are used to save time or space. Abbreviations can be pronounced as the full word or in their shortened form.

Examples:

- Dr.: for Doctor
- etc.: for et cetera
- Ave.: for Avenue

c. Initialisms

Initialisms are formed by taking the initial letters of a phrase, similar to acronyms, but they are pronounced by stating each letter individually. Initialisms are pronounced letter by letter rather than as a single word.

Examples:

- FBI: Federal Bureau of Investigation
- ATM: Automated Teller Machine
- HTML: Hypertext Markup Language

9. *Affixation*

Considering the concept of a lexeme, a differentiation can be made between two categories of morphological regulations. On the one hand, certain morphological directives are relevant to the variant manifestations of an identical lexeme. Conversely, alternative directives concern themselves with distinct lexemes. The differences being discussed can be interpreted in the context of linguistic morphology. The rules of the first category relate to changes in word endings and forms, while the rules of the second category are linked to creating new words and their associated processes (Anderson, 1992). The generation of the plural form “dogs” from “dog” exemplifies an inflectional rule, whereas the construction of compound terms such as “dog catcher” or “dishwasher” illustrates processes of word formation. Informally, rules of word formation give rise to “new” words (or, more precisely, new lexemes), whereas inflectional rules produce variant forms of the “same” word (lexeme).

The distinction between inflection and word formation could be clearer. Numerous instances exist where linguists diverge in classifying

specific rules as either inflectional or related to word formation. The following section aims to elucidate this distinction.

Word formation encompasses a process by which two complete words are amalgamated. In contrast, inflection permits the amalgamation of a suffix with a verb, thereby altering the verb form to accord with the sentence's subject. For instance, in the present indefinite tense, "go" aligns with the subjects I/we/you/they and plural nouns, whereas the use of third-person singular pronouns (he/she/it) and singular nouns necessitates the use of "goes." Therefore, the suffix "-es" acts as an inflectional marker, aligning the verb with its subject. A salient difference is that, through word formation, the resultant word may deviate in grammatical category from its source. In contrast, in inflection, the word's grammatical category needs to be more balanced.

a. Affixes

Affixes are prefixes and suffixes, constituting small bound morphemes that modify the meanings of the base words to which they are attached. Owing to their status as bound morphemes, they necessitate attachment to base words, devoid of the ability to exist independently.

b. Prefixes

Prefixes are affixes positioned at the commencement of a word. Among the most prevalent prefixes is "un-," a negative prefix that negates the meaning of its base word. For instance, appending the prefix "un-" to the base word "tie" yields "untying," signifying "to cancel or reverse an action."

Example in a sentence:

She sat on the porch, untying the knots in the old rope, her fingers working patiently under the fading evening light.

c. Suffixes

Suffixes are affixes that come at the end of a word. They are commonly used to form plural nouns and modify words' grammatical functions. For instance, you can use the suffix -ness

to change an adjective into a noun, as in transforming “faithful” into “faithfulness.”

Example in a sentence:

*Despite the challenges they faced, her **faithful** heart never wavered, and his **faithfulness** was a constant source of strength in their relationship.*

Suffixes play a crucial role in verb conjugation by helping the verb to agree with the number, gender, and person of the subject and by forming different verb tenses. For example, observe the use of the suffixes -s and -ed with the base word “eat” in the following examples:

- *I **eat** some mangos.*
- *My little sister **eats** some mangos.*
- *Yesterday, my little sister **ate** some mangos.*

Derivational and inflectional affixations are processes that involve adding affixes (prefixes, suffixes, infixes, or circumfixes) to words to either change their meaning (derivation) or modify their form for grammatical purposes (inflection). Here are examples of both:

a. Derivational Affixation

Derivational affixation creates new words by changing the word class or meaning of a base word.

1) Noun to Adjective:

Base: “care” → Derived: “careful” (Suffix “-ful” changes the noun into an adjective)

Base: “use” → Derived: “useful” (Suffix “-ful” changes the noun into an adjective)

2) Verb to Noun:

Base: “employ” → Derived: “employment” (Suffix “-ment” changes the verb into a noun)

Base: “teach” → Derived: “teacher” (Suffix “-er” changes the verb into a noun)

3) Adjective to Noun:

Base: “happy” → Derived: “happiness” (Suffix “-ness” changes the adjective into a noun)

Base: “active” → Derived: “activity” (Suffix “-ity” changes the adjective into a noun)

Base: “happy” → Derived: “unhappy” (Prefix “un-” changes the meaning of the adjective to the opposite)

b. Inflectional Affixation

Inflectional affixation modifies a word to express grammatical functions, such as tense, mood, number, or case, without changing the word’s class or core meaning.

1) Pluralization (Nouns):

Base: “cat” → Inflected: “cats” (Suffix “-s” marks plural form)

Base: “child” → Inflected: “children” (Irregular plural form)

2) Verb Tenses (Verbs):

Base: “walk” → Inflected: “walked” (Suffix “-ed” marks past tense)

Base: “run” → Inflected: “running” (Suffix “-ing” marks continuous/progressive aspect)

3) Comparative/Superlative (Adjectives):

Base: “fast” → Inflected: “faster” (Suffix “-er” marks comparative degree)

Base: “fast” → Inflected: “fastest” (Suffix “-est” marks superlative degree)

4) Possessive (Nouns):

Base: “dog” → Inflected: “dog’s” (Suffix “-’s” marks possession)

Base: “James” → Inflected: “James’s” (Suffix “-’s” marks possession)

Here are the derivational affixations categorized by prefixes, infixes, and suffixes, including the new word class and the derived meanings of the words. The main parts of speech are illustrated with corresponding affixations shown in table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Derivational Affixation with Prefixes

Base Word	Prefix	Derived Word	New Word Class	Meaning of Derived Word
happy	un-	unhappy	Adjective	Not happy; opposite of happy
connect	dis-	disconnect	Verb	To sever a connection
legal	il-	illegal	Adjective	Not legal; against the law
read	re-	reread	Verb	To read again
approve	dis-	disapprove	Verb	To have a negative opinion

Meanwhile, infixes are rare in English, but here in table 4.2 is an example:

Table 4.2 Derivational Affixation with Infixes

Base Word	Infix	Derived Word	New Word Class	Meaning of Derived Word
fantastic	-bloody-	fan-bloody-tastic	Adjective	Emphasizes excitement, enthusiasm (informal usage)

Table 4.3 Derivational Affixation with Suffixes

Base Word	Suffix	Derived Word	New Word Class	Meaning of Derived Word
teach	-er	teacher	Noun	Someone who teaches
hope	-ful	hopeful	Adjective	Full of hope; optimistic
care	-less	careless	Adjective	Without care; reckless
quick	-ly	quickly	Adverb	In a quick manner
child	-hood	childhood	Noun	The state of being a child
act	-ion	action	Noun	The process of doing something
bright	-ness	brightness	Noun	The quality of being bright

Note:

- Prefixes: Are added to the beginning of a word and often change the meaning (e.g., “un-”, “dis-”, “re-”).
- Infixes: Are inserted within a word (rare in English, more common in other languages like Tagalog or Indonesian).
- Suffixes: Are added to the end of a word, and they typically change the word class (e.g., “-er”, “-ful”, “-ness”).

The structures shown in Table 4.1, Table 4.2, and Table 4.3 provide clarity on how affixes can transform words into different parts of speech while changing or enhancing their meanings.

F. Morphological Tree Diagrams

A morphological tree, sometimes referred to as a word family tree, is a graphic representation of the process by which a word is created by appending prefixes and suffixes to its root. Morphology trees show the internal structure of a word. Additionally, all the words in each morphological family can be seen in these trees. Let’s examine the benefits of employing these trees.

1. *Word Clustering*

Learners can see related words grouped together by using morphological trees. It gets simpler to remember words when you learn them in clusters. For instance, knowing that the terms “care,” “careful,” and “carelessness” belong to the same family aids in clarifying their respective meanings.

2. *Decreased Forgetting*

Learners strengthen their memory by learning words from the same family. One phrase reduces the likelihood of forgetting other related words by evoking memories with it.

3. *Prefix and Suffix Meanings*

Understanding prefixes and suffixes helps one understand the meanings of words. For example, learning that the word “careful” has the prefix “care-” and the suffix “-ful” can help students grasp that it implies “full of care.”

Below is a step-by-step guide to drawing a morphology tree:

- beauty [noun]
 - beautiful [adjective] (beauty + ful)
 - beautifully [adverb] (beauty + ful + ly)
 - beautifulness [noun] (beauty + ful + ness)
 - unbeautiful [adjective] (un+beauty +ful)
 - unbeautifully [adverb] (un+beauty +ful + ly)

In the mentioned stages, you can see how the root “beauty” combines with different affixes to create the related word “unbeautiful”. Then, you can describe the word further in the following analysis.

Tree Diagram: Unbeautiful

- **Unbeautiful**
 - **Un-** (Prefix: Negation)

- **Beautiful** (Root: Base word)
 - **Beauty** (Noun: The quality of being pleasing)
 - **-ful** (Suffix: Forms an adjective, “full of”)

This diagram showcases how “unbeautiful” is constructed:

- “**Un-**” negates the word “**beautiful**,” which is derived from the root “**beauty**” with the suffix “**-ful**.”

This diagram showcases how “unbeautiful” is constructed:

- “**Un-**” negates the word “**beautiful**,” which is derived from the root “**beauty**” with the suffix “**-ful**.”

This description can be visualized through Figure 4.1.

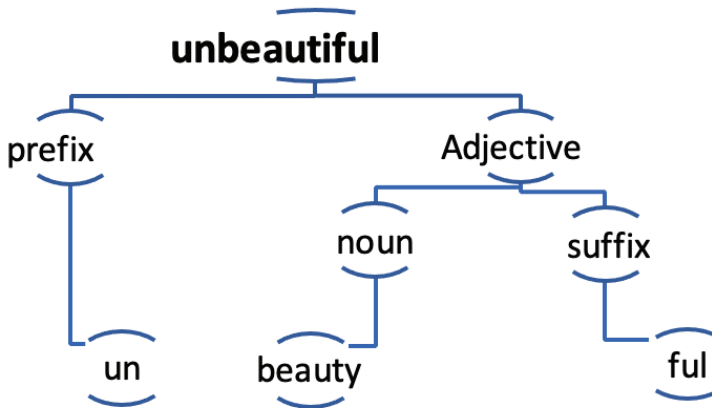


Figure 4.1 The Tree Diagram of the Word “Unbeautiful”

EXERCISES

A. Collaborative Game: Morphology Jigsaw Activity Worksheet

Stage 1: Introduction

Welcome to today's Jigsaw activity on Morphology! In this game, you will work together to explore the structure of words by breaking them down into their smallest parts—morphemes. You will dive into derivational and inflectional processes, along with identifying allomorphs. Let's get started!

Stage 2: Expert Groups

Step 1: You will begin by forming an Expert Group. Each group will focus on one of the following topics:

- **Group 1:** Free and Bound Morphemes
- **Group 2:** Derivational Morphology
- **Group 3:** Inflectional Morphology
- **Group 4:** Allomorphs

Instructions:

- Research and discuss your assigned topic for 10-15 minutes.
- Make sure each member of your group understands the topic thoroughly—each of you will teach this concept to your peers later.

Things to Focus on:

- Definitions of key terms.
- Examples that illustrate the concept.
- Visuals or diagrams that clarify the information.

Stage 3: Jigsaw Groups

Step 2: Now, you will be rearranged into Jigsaw Groups. Each new group will have one expert from each of the four topics.

Instructions:

- Take turns teaching your expert topic to the other members of your Jigsaw Group.
- Explain your topic clearly and provide examples. Feel free to ask and answer questions during this teaching session.

Hint: Remember to explain how your topic connects with others. For example, how do morphemes change during inflectional or derivational processes?

Stage 4: Group Analysis and Discussion

Step 3: Once everyone has shared their expert knowledge, your Jigsaw Group will now collaborate to analyze complex words using what you've learned.

Instructions:

- Identify the morphemes in each word.
- Classify the morphemes as either free or bound.
- Determine if the word has undergone derivational or inflectional changes.
- Identify any allomorphs present in the word forms.

Word List for Analysis:

- Unhappiness
- Players
- Rewriting
- Misunderstood
- Nationalization

Stage 5: Group Presentation

Step 4: Each Jigsaw Group will now present their analysis to the entire class.

Instructions:

- Choose at least two words from your list to present.

- Break the words down into their morphemes and explain the morphological structure to the class.
- Describe whether the words have been affected by derivational or inflectional processes and identify any allomorphs.

Be prepared for questions from your classmates and your teacher.

Stage 6: Reflection

Step 5: Finally, reflect on what you have learned during this activity.

Instructions:

- Answer the following reflection questions individually:
 - How did identifying morphemes help you understand the structure of words?
 - What challenges did you face while analyzing the words?
 - How do you think this knowledge of morphology can be useful in other areas of linguistics?

Write your answers below:

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

Reflection Responses:

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

B. Work in Pairs

Exercise 1: The Concepts of Morphology

We will examine the basic concepts of morphology in this session, including the many kinds of morphemes, derivational and inflectional morphology, allomorphs, and word creation procedures. You ought to have a firm grasp of the formation and structure of English words by the end of this lesson.

Discuss with your partner, then write at least 500 words on “The Role of Morphology in Understanding the Structure of Words.” Write about the following topics in your essay:

1. Morphology and its importance in language.
2. Bound and free morphemes.
3. Derivational and inflectional morphology
4. Allomorph
5. The procedures of reduplication, backformation, onomatopoeia.

Exercise 2- Inflectional vs. Derivational Morphology

1. List five examples of inflectional morphemes and five examples of derivational morphemes.
2. Explain the grammatical function of each inflectional morpheme and how each derivational morpheme changes the meaning or category of the base word.

C. Group Presentation: The Word Formation

1. Divide the class into 5 groups.
2. Every group has one kind of word formation process: compounding, blending, acronyms, clipping, and borrowing.
3. Prepare a short presentation that includes:
 - A definition of the assigned process
 - Examples of words formed by this process
 - An explanation of how this process contributes to language development

4. Discuss how the word formation processes enhance the richness and dynamic nature of the English language.
5. Write down the discussion result in PPT slides.
6. Present your work in front of the class

D. Essay (Individual Work): Identifying Morphemes

Break down the following words into their morphemes and identify them as free or bound morphemes.

1. Unhappiness
2. Rewriting
3. Players
4. Disagree
5. Nationalization
6. Misunderstanding
7. Unbelievable
8. Teacher
9. Prepaid
10. Joyful

E. Multiple Choices (Individual Work)

Choose the BEST answer (A, B, C, or D) for the following questions. Bold only the letter of the correct answer.

1. What is morphology in linguistics?
 - A. Study of language sounds
 - B. Study of word formation and structure
 - C. Study of sentence structure
 - D. Study of language history
2. What is a morpheme?
 - A. The smallest unit of sound
 - B. The smallest unit of meaning
 - C. A part of the speech
 - D. A type of verb

3. What is the difference between a free morpheme and a bound morpheme?
 - A. Free morphemes cannot stand alone
 - B. Bound morphemes can stand alone
 - C. Free morphemes can stand alone; bound morphemes cannot
 - D. Bound morphemes carry no meaning
4. Which of the following is a free morpheme?
 - A. “ing”
 - B. “book”
 - C. “ed”
 - D. “ly”
5. What is an example of a bound morpheme?
 - A. “house”
 - B. “play”
 - C. “s”
 - D. “run”
6. Which of the following is an inflectional morpheme?
 - A. “un”
 - B. “s”
 - C. “re”
 - D. “ly”
7. Derivational morphemes are used to:
 - A. Form new words or change a word’s category
 - B. Modify the tense of verbs
 - C. Indicate possession
 - D. Show grammatical relationships
8. Which of the following is an example of a derivational morpheme?
 - A. “ed”
 - B. “ing”
 - C. “un”
 - D. “s”

9. Which of the following words has two morphemes?
 - A. “jumping”
 - B. “boy”
 - C. “played”
 - D. “happy”
10. Which of these processes involves creating new words by combining morphemes?
 - A. Affixation
 - B. Clipping
 - C. Blending
 - D. Borrowing
11. Which word formation process is used in the word “brunch” (from “breakfast” + “lunch”)?
 - A. Reduplication
 - B. Blending
 - C. Compounding
 - D. Clipping
12. What is the term for adding a morpheme to the beginning of a word?
 - A. Suffixation
 - B. Infixation
 - C. Prefixation
 - D. Circumfixation
13. Which of the following is an example of compounding?
 - A. “unhappy”
 - B. “cats”
 - C. “blackboard”
 - D. “running”
14. How many morphemes does the word “singer” contain?
 - A. 1
 - B. 2
 - C. 3
 - D. 4

15. Which of the following best describes a root morpheme?
 - A. A morpheme that can stand alone as a word
 - B. A morpheme that cannot be further broken down
 - C. A morpheme that gives the core meaning to a word
 - D. All of the above
16. In the word “impossible”, what is the function of the prefix “im”?
 - A. It creates a plural form
 - B. It negates the meaning of the word
 - C. It indicates tense
 - D. It creates a superlative form
17. Which of the following is an example of reduplication?
 - A. “chitchat”
 - B. “childhood”
 - C. “joyful”
 - D. “walked”
18. What is an allomorph?
 - A. A variant form of a morpheme
 - B. A type of prefix
 - C. A type of suffix
 - D. A process of word formation
19. Which of the following is an example of a lexical morpheme?
 - A. “ing”
 - B. “cat”
 - C. “ed”
 - D. “s”
20. How many morphemes does the word “unhappiness” consist of?
 - A. 1
 - B. 2
 - C. 3
 - D. 4

21. Which of these is an example of an infix in English?
 - A. “absobloodylutely”
 - B. “careful”
 - C. “happiness”
 - D. “books”
22. The word “reusable” is an example of:
 - A. Reduplication
 - B. Clipping
 - C. Affixation
 - D. Borrowing
23. Which of the following involves the formation of new words by shortening existing words?
 - A. Compounding
 - B. Clipping
 - C. Derivation
 - D. Reduplication
24. In English, how are plurals typically marked on nouns?
 - A. Prefixation
 - B. Suffixation
 - C. Infixation
 - D. Reduplication
25. What is a morph?
 - A. A variant form of a phoneme
 - B. A specific realization of a morpheme in speech or writing
 - C. A syllable of a word
 - D. An error in language processing

ANSWER KEYS

A. Morphology Jigsaw Game: Unveiling the Structure of Words

Here's a step-by-step instructional narration for using a "Jigsaw" game in a morphology class:

Stage 1: Introduction

Instructor Narration:

"Welcome, everyone! Today, we are diving into a dynamic and collaborative way of learning morphology through a jigsaw activity. This game will help you uncover the building blocks of words—morphemes—and the processes involved in creating and modifying words. Let's explore inflection, derivation, and allomorphs in a fun and engaging way!"

Stage 2: Formation of Expert Groups

Instructor Narration:

"To start, we will divide the class into four 'Expert Groups.' Each group will be given a specific topic related to morphology. Your mission is to become experts on that topic. The topics will be:

1. Free and Bound Morphemes
2. Derivational Morphology
3. Inflectional Morphology
4. Allomorphs

Spend the next 10-15 minutes discussing and researching your topic. Use textbooks, notes, and examples provided to fully understand it. Ensure that everyone in your group grasps the concept well because you will soon teach this to your peers."

Stage 3: Reformation into Jigsaw Groups

Instructor Narration:

“Now that you are experts, it’s time to spread your knowledge! We will reconfigure the groups into new ‘Jigsaw Groups.’ Each Jigsaw Group will have one expert from each topic. In your new groups, you will take turns teaching the others about your expert topic. Be thorough in your explanations, and feel free to use examples and visuals to help others understand. Remember, the better you teach, the better your group performs!”

Stage 4: Group Discussion and Collaboration

Instructor Narration:

“Once everyone has presented their expert topic, engage in a group discussion. As a team, you will apply what you’ve learned by analyzing complex words. Work together to identify the morphemes, classify them as free or bound, and determine whether the word has undergone inflectional or derivational changes. You will also discuss any allomorphs that appear in the word forms.”

Stage 5: Synthesis and Review

Instructor Narration:

“Now that your groups have explored various aspects of morphology, it’s time to consolidate your knowledge. Each Jigsaw Group will present their findings to the entire class. You will share an analysis of at least two words, explaining their morphological structure and how they were formed or modified. Be prepared for questions from your classmates and me!”

Stage 6: Reflection and Debriefing

Instructor Narration:

“Great job, everyone! Let’s finish by reflecting on what we’ve learned today. How did breaking down the words into morphemes help your understanding of word formation? What challenges did you face in

identifying morphemes or allomorphs? Share your thoughts with the class, and let's discuss how we can apply this knowledge in future linguistic studies.”

B. Work in Pairs

Exercise 1: Identifying the Morphemes

This is one possible answer for the essay.

Morphology is the branch of linguistics that studies the internal structure of words and the rules governing word formation. It examines how words are constructed from smaller meaningful units called morphemes, which are the smallest grammatical units in a language. Morphology is essential for understanding the complexities of language because it provides insights into how words carry meaning, how they change based on grammatical context, and how new words are formed. In understanding English or any other language, the study of morphology helps us recognize the systematic ways in which words are built and modified, which contributes significantly to language comprehension, learning, and linguistic analysis.

Morphemes can be classified into two categories: free and bound morphemes. Free morphemes are those that can stand alone as words. They are independent units of meaning, such as “book,” “run,” or “happy.” These morphemes do not require any other morphemes to form a complete word, which is why they can function as standalone words.

In contrast, bound morphemes cannot stand alone and must be attached to other morphemes to convey meaning. These morphemes typically include prefixes, suffixes, and infixes. For example, the suffix “-ed” in “walked” is a bound morpheme because it indicates the past tense but cannot exist as an independent word. Another example is the prefix “un-” in “unhappy,” which alters the meaning of the word by negating it.

Morphology can be further divided into derivational and inflectional morphology. Both involve the modification of words, but they differ in function and effect. Derivational morphology deals with the creation of new words by adding affixes (prefixes, suffixes) to base forms. These affixes often change the word's grammatical category (e.g., from a noun to a verb or adjective) or its meaning. For instance, by adding the suffix “-ness” to the adjective “happy,” we derive the noun “happiness.” Similarly, adding the prefix “re-” to the verb “write” results in the verb “rewrite,” which implies writing again.

On the other hand, inflectional morphology involves modifying a word to express grammatical relationships, such as tense, number, case, or aspect, without changing the word's core meaning or part of speech. Inflectional morphemes include suffixes like “-s” for plural (e.g., “cats”), “-ed” for past tense (e.g., “played”), and “-ing” for continuous aspect (e.g., “running”). While derivational morphemes can change a word's meaning or category, inflectional morphemes do not; instead, they adjust the word to fit within a sentence's grammatical structure.

An allomorph is a variant form of a morpheme that occurs depending on the phonological or grammatical context. Allomorphs have different pronunciations or spellings but serve the same function and carry the same meaning. A common example is the plural morpheme in English. The plural “-s” morpheme can be realized as three different allomorphs: /s/ (as in “cats”), /z/ (as in “dogs”), and /ɪz/ (as in “buses”). All three forms represent the concept of plurality, but their pronunciation changes based on the final sound of the root word. Understanding allomorphs is crucial for recognizing variations in morpheme expression without altering the core meaning.

Morphology also deals with various word formation processes, which are mechanisms by which new words are created in a language. Below is the word formation processes for the procedures of reduplication, backformation, onomatopoeia with examples:

1. *Reduplication*

Process Procedure:

Reduplication involves repeating all or part of a word to form a new word. It can be full reduplication (where the entire word is repeated) or partial reduplication (where only a part of the word is repeated).

Examples:

- Full Reduplication:
 - bye-bye → The entire word “bye” is repeated to form a colloquial expression for saying goodbye.
 - goody-goody → Repeats “goody” to describe someone who is excessively virtuous.
- Partial Reduplication:
 - zigzag → “Zig” is partially repeated with a change to “zag” to describe a movement that goes in alternating directions.
 - chit-chat → “Chit” is partially repeated with a change to “chat” to describe informal conversation.

Explanation:

Reduplication is often used to convey emphasis, repetition, plurality, or intensity. It is common in child language and colloquial speech. In some languages (e.g., Indonesian, Tagalog), reduplication is a grammatical process to indicate plurality or intensity.

2. *Backformation*

Process Procedure:

Backformation is the process of creating a new word by removing what is perceived to be an affix (often a suffix) from an existing word. This often results in a change of the word’s grammatical category (e.g., from noun to verb).

Examples:

- Editor → edit
The noun “editor” was back-formed by removing the perceived suffix “-or” to create the verb “edit.”
- Burglar → burgle
The noun “burglar” led to the creation of the verb “burgle” by removing the “-ar” suffix.
- Television → televise
The noun “television” was back-formed to create the verb “televise” by removing the “-ion” suffix.

Explanation:

Backformation simplifies words by removing affixes, usually resulting in the creation of new verbs. It often happens when speakers incorrectly analyze the structure of complex words and assume that part of the word is an affix.

3. *Onomatopoeia*

Process Procedure:

Onomatopoeia is the process of forming words that imitate the natural sounds associated with objects or actions they refer to. The sound of the word mimics the sound made by the object or action.

Examples:

- Buzz → the word mimics the sound made by bees or electronic devices.
- Bang → imitates the sound of an explosion or a loud, sharp noise
- Meow → reflects the sound made by a cat.
- Splash → represents the sound of something hitting water.

Explanation:

Onomatopoeic words are created to capture the real-world sounds they represent. They are frequently used in children’s literature, comic

books, and sound-based descriptions to provide vivid, sensory detail. In conclusion, morphology is central to understanding the structure and formation of words in any language, particularly English. By studying morphemes—both free and bound—along with the processes of derivational and inflectional morphology, we gain insight into how words evolve and adapt in language. The concept of allomorphs helps us recognize the variations in word structure, while word formation processes like compounding, blending, clipping, and borrowing demonstrate the dynamic nature of language development. Morphology, therefore, is a fundamental aspect of linguistic analysis that enhances our comprehension of how words function and change within a language.

Exercise 2: Inflectional versus Derivational Morphology

Here's the possible answers for the detailed breakdown of inflectional and derivational morphemes, including their examples and explanations.

1. Inflectional Morphemes

- a. -s (plural)

Example: dogs

Grammatical function: Indicates that there is more than one dog. It changes a singular noun into its plural form.

- b. -ed (past tense)

Example: walked

Grammatical function: Marks the verb as being in the past tense, indicating that the action occurred in the past.

- c. -ing (present participle)

Example: running

Grammatical function: Shows that the action is ongoing or continuous. It is also used to form the gerund, which can function as a noun.

- d. -er (comparative)

Example: taller

Grammatical function: Compares two entities, indicating that one has a greater degree of the quality described by the adjective (e.g., “tall” compared to another tall entity).

- e. -est (superlative)

Example: fastest

Grammatical function: Indicates that the entity has the highest degree of the quality described by the adjective among three or more entities.

2. Derivational Morphemes

- a. un- (prefix)

Example: unhappy

Change in meaning/category: The prefix “un-” negates the meaning of the adjective “happy,” creating a new adjective that means “not happy.”

- b. -ly (suffix)

Example: quickly

Change in meaning/category: The suffix “-ly” changes the adjective “quick” into an adverb, describing the manner in which something is done.

- c. -ness (suffix)

Example: happiness

Change in meaning/category: The suffix “-ness” converts the adjective “happy” into a noun “happiness,” representing the state or quality of being happy.

- d. re- (prefix)

Example: rewrite

Change in meaning/category: The prefix “re-” indicates doing something again, changing the verb “write” to “rewrite,” meaning to write again or revise.

- e. -er (suffix)

Example: teacher

Change in meaning/category: The suffix “-er” converts the verb “teach” into a noun “teacher,” referring to a person who teaches.

Explanation:

1. Inflectional Morphemes:

These morphemes modify a word to express different grammatical features like tense, number, or comparison, without changing the word’s base meaning or its grammatical category. For instance, “-ed” changes a verb’s tense, while “-s” indicates plurality.

2. Derivational Morphemes:

These morphemes create new words by altering the meaning or category of the base word. They can change a word’s grammatical category (e.g., from an adjective to an adverb with “-ly”) or add a specific nuance to its meaning (e.g., “un-” to negate).

C. Essay (Individual Work): Identifying Morphemes

1. Unhappiness

- Morphemes: un- (bound), happy (free), -ness (bound)
- Explanation:
 - un- is a bound morpheme (prefix) that negates the meaning of the word.
 - happy is a free morpheme and the base word.
 - ness is a bound morpheme (suffix) that turns the adjective into a noun.

2. Rewriting

- Morphemes: re- (bound), write (free), -ing (bound)
- Explanation:
 - re- is a bound morpheme (prefix) meaning to do again.
 - write is a free morpheme, the base verb.
 - ing is a bound morpheme (suffix) indicating a continuous action.

3. Players

- Morphemes: play (free), -er (bound), -s (bound)
- Explanation:
 - play is a free morpheme, the base verb.
 - er is a bound morpheme (suffix) that forms a noun meaning a person who plays.
 - s is a bound morpheme (suffix) indicating plural.

4. Disagree

- Morphemes: dis- (bound), agree (free)
- Explanation:
 - dis- is a bound morpheme (prefix) meaning the opposite of.
 - agree is a free morpheme, the base verb.

5. Nationalization

- Morphemes: nation (free), -al (bound), -ize (bound), -ation (bound)
- Explanation:
 - nation is a free morpheme, the base noun.
 - al is a bound morpheme (suffix) that turns the noun into an adjective.
 - ize is a bound morpheme (suffix) that turns the adjective into a verb.
 - ation is a bound morpheme (suffix) that turns the verb into a noun.

6. Misunderstanding
 - Morphemes: mis- (bound), understand (free), -ing (bound)
 - Explanation:
 - mis- is a bound morpheme (prefix) meaning incorrect or wrong.
 - understand is a free morpheme, the base verb.
 - ing is a bound morpheme (suffix) indicating a continuous action or noun form.
7. Unbelievable
 - Morphemes: un- (bound), believe (free), -able (bound)
 - Explanation:
 - un- is a bound morpheme (prefix) meaning the opposite of.
 - believe is a free morpheme, the base verb.
 - able is a bound morpheme (suffix) that turns the verb into an adjective.
8. Teacher
 - Morphemes: teach (free), -er (bound)
 - Explanation:
 - teach is a free morpheme, the base verb.
 - er is a bound morpheme (suffix) that turns the verb into a noun meaning a person who teaches.
9. Prepaid
 - Morphemes: pre- (bound), pay (free), -ed (bound)
 - Explanation:
 - pre- is a bound morpheme (prefix) meaning before.
 - pay is a free morpheme, the base verb.
 - ed is a bound morpheme (suffix) indicating past tense.
10. Joyful
 - Morphemes: joy (free), -ful (bound)
 - Explanation:

- joy is a free morpheme, the base noun.
- ful is a bound morpheme (suffix) meaning full of.

D. Multiple Choices (Individual Work)

1. b. Study of word formation and structure
2. b. The smallest unit of meaning
3. c. Free morphemes can stand alone; bound morphemes cannot
4. b. "book"
5. c. "s"
6. b. "s"
7. a. Form new words or change a word's category
8. c. "un"
9. a. "jumping"
10. a. Affixation
11. b. Blending
12. c. Prefixation
13. c. "blackboard"
14. b. 2
15. d. All of the above
16. b. It negates the meaning of the word
17. a. "chitchat"
18. a. A variant form of a morpheme
19. b. "cat"
20. c. 3
21. a. "absobloodylutely"
22. c. Affixation
23. b. Clipping
24. b. Suffixation
25. b. A specific realization of a morpheme in speech or writing

Bab V

Syntax

Objectives:

1. Students are able to explain the basic concept of syntax
2. Students are able to identify the types and elements of syntax
3. Students are able to analyze the sentences using syntactic rules and syntax tree diagrams

Materials:

1. Understanding Syntax
2. Parts of Speech
3. English Grammatical Structures
4. Phrase Structures
5. Clause Structures
6. Syntax Trees
7. Syntax Ambiguity

A. Understanding Syntax

Syntax is a field of linguistics that aims to comprehend the generation of grammar in languages and the construction of sentences. While native speakers often intuitively understand syntax, it can be challenging to articulate. Languages have intricate syntax, requiring linguists to analyze speech to grasp the underlying rules meticulously. Syntax in linguistics is commonly represented using tree-like diagrams that illustrate the relationships between words in a sentence. So, what significance does syntax hold for educators and learners? Mastering the construction of grammatically correct sentences in English is crucial for students striving to enhance their literacy and writing skills, enabling them to write with increased confidence and precision.

In linguistics, syntax studies how words and morphemes form larger units like phrases and sentences. Central aspects of syntax include word order, grammatical relationships, hierarchical sentence structure, agreement, cross-linguistic variation, and the interplay between form and meaning (semantics). Various approaches to syntax exist, each with its unique assumptions and objectives (Luuk, 2015).

The word syntax comes from Ancient Greek roots: σύνταξις “coordination,” which consists of “together” [σύν syn] and “ordering” [τάξις taxis]. One common way to describe the syntax of a language is by examining the typical order of the subject (S), verb (V), and object (O) in sentences. It has been observed that over 85% of languages tend to place the subject first in either the SVO or SOV sequence. Less common sequences include VSO, VOS, OVS, and OSV. According to most generative syntax theories, these differences in word order result from a more intricate clausal phrase structure, and each order can be associated with multiple derivations. Word order can also convey the semantics or function of the ordered elements.

Many types of syntax can manifest as different sentence structures in English. English sentences can be:

1. *Simple Sentences*

The easiest kind of sentence to understand in English is a simple sentence. Simple sentences consist of just one independent clause expressing a single idea. Despite their simple structure, these sentences can get long, provided they continue to consist only of a single independent clause. Examples of simple sentences include:

- I will bring her my comic.
- Sam and I love swimming.

2. *Compound Sentences*

A compound sentence contains two or more independent clauses (complete thoughts) joined by a coordinating conjunction (e.g., for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so), or by a semicolon.

Structure:

Independent Clause + Coordinating Conjunction + Independent Clause

Examples:

- She wanted to go to the park, but it started to rain.
- I like coffee, and she prefers tea.
- He did not study for the test, but he still passed.

3. *Complex Sentences*

A complex sentence consists of one independent clause and at least one dependent clause. The dependent clause is typically introduced by subordinating conjunctions like because, although, since, when, if, while, until, etc.

Structure:

Dependent Clause + Independent Clause
or
Independent Clause + Dependent Clause

Examples:

- Because she was tired, she decided to go to bed early.
- I will call you when I arrive home.
- Although it was raining, they went for a walk.

4. Compound-Complex Sentences

A compound-complex sentence contains at least two independent clauses and one or more dependent clauses. It combines elements of both compound and complex sentences.

Structure:

Dependent Clause + Independent Clause +
Coordinating Conjunction + Independent Clause
or
Independent Clause + Dependent Clause +
Coordinating Conjunction + Independent Clause

Examples:

- Although she was tired, she finished her homework, and she prepared for her presentation.
- I went to the store, but they were out of milk because there was a delivery delay.
- She did not like the movie, but she stayed until the end because her friend wanted to watch it.

B. Parts of Speech

Understanding the nuances of nouns, pronouns, and verbs is fundamental to mastering the complexities of English grammar. Each class of words is dissected to offer a clearer view of its essence and functionality within the language.

1. Nouns

Nouns form the cornerstone of English vocabulary, encapsulating entities, locations, concepts, or phenomena identifiers. Whether it is an individual (e.g., woman), an educational institution (UNS College),

a residential structure (house), or an emotional state (sadness), nouns provide the labels by which cognition and communication are possible. Beyond their basic classification as names, nouns carry additional distinctions. They vary in countability, tangibility, and their role in conveying possession, marked by appending “s.” They may serve as subjects, direct or indirect objects, subject complements, or objects of prepositions within sentences. The pertinent characteristics of proper versus common nouns and the principles governing their usage alongside articles form a significant area of study within the discipline.

2. *Pronouns*

Pronouns, by definition, act as placeholders or substitutes for nouns, facilitating cohesion and avoiding redundancy in discourse. Exemplified by terms such as ‘she,’ ‘we,’ ‘they,’ and ‘it,’ pronouns assume the reference of their antecedents, the specific nouns they replace, allowing for smoother transitions and referential clarity in narrative and expository texts. The taxonomy of pronouns extends to include personal, possessive, reflexive, relative, and demonstrative categories, each performing unique functions in conveying viewpoints, denoting possession, creating emphasis, introducing subordinate clauses, or identifying specific entities or classes thereof. The strategic deployment of pronouns requires an intricate understanding of their correlation with antecedent nouns and their grammatical roles within sentences.

3. *Verbs*

Action and stative verbs establish the core narrative and descriptive framework of a sentence. The conceptual breadth of verbs encompasses both the tangible (e.g., write, put) and the abstract (is, are), embodying the dynamism and temporality of the subjects they describe. A sentence’s verb structure, potentially a composite of main and auxiliary (helping) verbs, predicates its syntactic and semantic coherence. The conjugation of verbs, adapting to reflect nuances in number agreement with subjects and temporal context, poses one of

the more intricate aspects of verbal grammar. Mastery over verb forms and their alignment with subject entities is pivotal to achievements in linguistic competence.

In summation, grasping nouns, pronouns, and verbs and their interplay within the grammar framework is indispensable for linguistic proficiency. Detailed examination of these elements reveals language's structural and functional beauty, offering a pathway to effective and eloquent communication. Further exploration of these categories is encouraged through dedicated educational resources, which elucidate the subtle nuances that govern their application. A verb is a part of speech that typically signifies an action. In English, there are two primary types of verbs: action verbs and linking verbs. An action verb denotes an activity performed by the subject of a sentence, while a linking verb connects the subject to a state of being. In other words, a linking verb describes the subject rather than expressing an action. Linking verbs are also called state-of-being verbs, with the most common one in English being the verb "to be."

For example, in the sentence "Claura reads a novel," the verb "reads" is an action verb as it indicates what Claura does. However, in the sentence "Claura is diligent," the verb "is" (a form of "to be") is a linking verb. In this case, "is" describes Claura's state or condition and links Claura to the subject complement "diligent." There are several kinds of verbs that you need to know.

a. **Transitive verb**

A transitive verb is a type of verb that needs an object to make complete sense of the action being performed by the subject.

- *Toni/watched*
(subject/verb)
- *Toni/watched/a TV program.*
(subject/verb/object)

In the above example, the verb 'watched' is a transitive verb that demands an object. As you can see, the first sentence,

“Toni watched”, does not seem complete. When you say, “Toni watched,” the people listening to you would ask, “Watched what?” The second sentence, “Toni watched a TV program”, is the complete one. That explains why ‘watched’ can be classified as a transitive verb and follows the pattern SVO.

b. Intransitive verb

An intransitive verb is a verb that does not necessarily require an object to make sense of the action being performed by the subject in a sentence or context. However, some exceptional verbs can perform the role of both a transitive verb and an intransitive verb.

Example:

- *The man/is/running.*
(subject/verb)

The verb in the above sentence is “is running” and does not require an object to complete the sentence. Look at the table 5.1 and try comprehending the difference between transitive and intransitive verbs.

Table 5.1 Transitive and Intransitive Verbs

Transitive Verbs	Intransitive Verbs
The meaning conveyed by complete actions with transitive verbs necessitates an object.	An object is not needed for intransitive verbs to complete the sentence or convey the meaning of the action.
• In sentences using transitive verbs, the order of occurrence follows the patterns: SVO, SVIODO, SVOC, SVOA, ASVO.	Intransitive verbs are commonly found in sentences with structures such as ASVC, SV, SVC, ASVA, and others.
A sentence with a transitive verb can be transformed into a passive voice.	It is not possible to transform a sentence using an intransitive verb into a passive voice.
• Following transitive verbs, there will be either indirect or direct objects.	Intransitive verbs are followed by either an adjunct or a complement.

4. *Adjectives*

An adjective modifies or describes a noun or pronoun, effectively adding detail or specificity. Such words typically provide answers to questions like “Which one?”, “How many?” and “What kind?”. It is noteworthy that articles (a, an, the) traditionally fall under the adjective category due to their modifying nature.

Example:

*The **handsome** man quickly disappeared after handing me an unusually long letter from the landlord.*

5. *Adverbs*

An adverb plays a crucial role in modifying or elaborating upon a verb, another adverb, or an adjective, yet it never modifies a noun directly. It predominantly addresses “when,” “where,” “how,” “why,” “under what circumstances,” or “to what extent.” Typically, adverbs can be identified by their “-ly” suffix.

Example:

*The little guy **quickly** vanished after the rich man left a noticeably long message for him.*

6. *Prepositions*

A preposition is a word placed before a noun or pronoun. It initiates a phrase that modifies another word within the sentence. A prepositional phrase invariably functions as either an adjective or an adverb, reflecting its integral role in sentence construction. The repertoire of commonly used prepositions includes “by,” “with,” “about,” “on,” etc.

Example:

*The old man gave a somewhat big doughnut to the homeless child **on** the street.*

7. *Conjunctions*

A conjunction’s primary function is to join words, phrases, or clauses, delineating the relationship between the linked elements. There are

two main types: coordinating conjunctions, linking grammatically equivalent elements (“and”, “but”, “or”, “nor”, “for”, “so”, “yet”), and subordinating conjunctions, which connect clauses of unequal grammatical weight (“because”, “although”, “after”, “since”, etc).

Example:

***After** providing me with a thick coat, the old man went to the street corner!*

8. *Interjections*

Employed to convey emotional responses, an interjection is typically punctuated with an exclamation point. This category of words encompasses expressions such as “Oh!”, “Wow!” and “Oops!” Each serves to inject spontaneous emotion into speech or writing.

Example:

***Hey!** I like your idea so much.*

Interjections are emotion-driven outbursts. They are often standalone which are different from exclamations. Interjections are usually single words or short phrases, such as “Ouch!” and “Yeah!” while exclamations are often full sentences with proper grammatical structure and often involve subjects and verbs, so that they can emphasize strong feelings or emotions, such as “What a fantastic idea!” Furthermore, interjections can express a wide range of emotions, such as surprise, disgust, joy, or pain, and they are often followed by punctuation like exclamation marks. Meanwhile, exclamations are used to express heightened emotion like excitement, anger, surprise, or other strong feelings. The examples are:

- **What** a beautiful sunset! (*admiration*)
- *I cannot believe you did that!* (*surprise*)
- *Stop it!* (*anger*)

Both interjections and exclamations usually end with an exclamation mark to indicate strong emotion.

C. English Grammatical Structure

Sentence structure is how all the parts of a sentence fit together. To enhance the sophistication and intrigue of English sentences, it is a must to grasp the fundamentals of sentence construction.

Understanding the order of all the parts in a sentence, such as the subject, predicate, objects, phrases, and punctuation, is essential for dealing with independent and dependent clauses and how they combine. It also involves placing words and phrases beside what they modify and using proper grammar.

Every English sentence must include a verb and a subject; a verb represents an action, and a subject means the noun acting. The subject is the person or thing in a sentence performing the action or being discussed, while the verb is the action or state of being that the subject carries out.

She is sleeping.

In this instance, “is sleeping” functions as the verb. The main verb is “sleep” but when we conjugate it in the present continuous, we utilize the “-ing” form and include the auxiliary verb “is.” The subject is “She,” the individual who is sleeping. The only exception to this rule is imperative sentences (commands), which only necessitate a verb. In such instances, we can infer that the subject is the person the speaker directs the command to.

Stop!

The word ‘stop’ functions as a complete sentence, with ‘stop’ as the verb. As it is a command, no subject is required.

Some sentences may include objects, which are nouns involved in the action. For instance, if you forget your car key and ask your mother to lend hers.

My mother gives me the car key.

In this instance, “gives” functions as the verb, and my mother is the subject because they do the lending. The term “the car key” is

the direct object, the noun that receives the action. In this situation, the direct object is the item being lent, “the car key.”

The indirect object is the noun that receives the direct object. The indirect object in the example is “me” because that is who gets the car key. Indirect objects are positioned between the verb and the direct object. Only a specific type of transitive verb can be used with direct and indirect objects.

Most sentences in English are constructed using one of the following two forms:

1. *Verbal Sentences*

Verbal sentences are sentences that start with a verb. They have two kinds of sentences:

a. **Subject–Verb (SV)**

This type of sentence begins with a core sentence, such as “James talks.” In this simple sentence, “James” is the subject acting, and “talks” is the verb indicating the action. Additional parts of speech can be incorporated to provide more detail and depth to the sentence.

We can enhance the sentence by including an adverb to convey how the action is performed, for instance, “James talks slowly.” Furthermore, we can introduce an expression of time to specify when the action occurs, for example, “James talks in the class.”

b. **Subject–Verb–Object (SVO)**

Sentences of this structure begin with a core sentence, such as “Sasya is drinking a cup of coffee.” In this sentence, “Sasya” serves as the subject, “is drinking” acts as the verb, and “a cup of coffee” functions as the object affected by the action. To enrich the sentence, modifiers such as **adjectives** can be incorporated (e.g., “Sasya is drinking a cup of **hot** coffee”), or **adverbs** can be added to describe how the action is performed (e.g., “Sasya is drinking a cup of coffee **elegantly**.”).

2. *Nominal sentences*

A nominal sentence starts with a noun and may or may not include a verb.

a. **Subject–Verb–Adjective (SVAdj)**

This sentence pattern is initiated with a simple sentence like “He is tall.” In this instance, “he” is the subject of the sentence, “is” is the verb, and “tall” is the descriptive adjective providing information about the subject. Like other sentence structures, this type can be expanded by including other parts of speech, such as “He is very tall,” where “very” serves as an adverb to intensify the adjective.

b. **Subject–Verb–Noun (SVN)**

Sentences of this type start with a fundamental sentence, such as “The janitor is my neighbor.” In this case, the subject is “The janitor,” the verb is “is,” and “my neighbor” functions as the noun. Similar to other sentence types, additional words and phrases can be incorporated to provide more detail, for example, “The janitor at the school is my neighbor,” which further specifies the profession and includes information about her place of work.

In some forms, adjuncts and complements are also used to form more detailed sentences, such as:

1) Subject + Verb + Complement (SVC)

Example:

Maryam/is/a doctor.

Subject/Verb/Complement

2) Subject + Verb + Adjunct (SVA)

Example:

I/went/downstairs.

Subject/Verb/Adjunct

3) Subject + Verb + Object + Complement (SVOC)

Example:

Siti/makes/her daughter/happy.

Subject/Verb/Object/Complement

- 4) Subject + Verb + Object + Adjunct (SVOA)
 Example:
My friends/eat/fried chicken/every day.
 Subject/Verb/Object/Adjunct
- 5) Subject + Verb + Indirect Object + Direct Object (SVIODO)
 Example:
Jane/shows/me/her project.
 Subject/Verb/Indirect Object/Direct Object
- 6) Adjunct + Subject + Verb + Complement (ASVC)
 Example:
Suddenly,/the blouse color/grew/fading.
 Adjunct/Subject/Verb/Complement
- 7) Adjunct + Subject + Verb + Object (ASVO)
 Example:
Every year, /Sigit/visits/the house.
 Adjunct/Subject /Verb/Object
- 8) Adjunct + Subject + Verb + Indirect Object + Direct Object (ASVIODO)
 Example:
Two days ago, /my brother/lent/me/his bicycle.
 Adjunct/Subject/Verb/Indirect Object/Direct Object
- 9) Subject + Verb + Adjunct + Adjunct (SVAA)
 Example:
My little sister/walks/every night/with me.
 Subject/Verb/Adjunct/Adjunct
- 10) Adjunct + Subject + Verb + Adjunct + Adjunct (ASVAA)
 Example:
Last week, /we/went/to Bali/for two days.
 Adjunct/Subject/Verb/Adjunct/Adjunct

Remember always to follow these grammar rules:

1. Always capitalize the first letter of the first word in a sentence.
2. End a sentence with a period, question mark, exclamation point, or quotation mark.
3. A complete sentence consists of a subject mentioned only once.
4. A sentence comprises either a single verb or a verb phrase.
5. Structure your sentences with the subject coming first, the verb coming second, and the objects coming last (Subject => Verb => Object).
6. Ensure subject-verb agreement: if the subject is singular, the verb must be singular, and if the subject is plural, the verb must also be plural.
7. A sentence comprises an independent clause, which means it must express a complete thought and be able to stand alone.

D. Phrase Structures

Phrase structure grammar is a type of generative grammar that uses phrase structure rules or rewrite rules to represent constituent structures. This framework has evolved into multiple modern iterations, including head-driven phrase structure grammar. In Noam Chomsky's original formulation of transformational grammar in the late 1950s (2009), a phrase structure, also known as a constituent, is considered the fundamental component. The fundamental framework of a sentence or phrase is occasionally known as its phrase structure or phrase marker.

Various forms of phrase-structure grammar exist. Context-free grammars exclusively comprise rules that are not restricted to certain contexts, while context-sensitive grammars may encompass rules that can only be employed under specified circumstances. In a context-free rule, the substitution of the left-hand sign with the right-hand symbol is always possible, irrespective of the surrounding context. For instance, the conjugation of a verb in either its singular or plural form is contingent upon the context provided by the preceding noun phrase.

1. *Noun-Phrases*

When we refer to things, people, places, ideas, and other entities, we utilize noun phrases (NP). All nouns that can operate grammatically in this position, such as I, we, he, she, you, they, her, it, and so on, as well as everyone, anyone, no one, none, some, etc., can be considered NPs. The head word of a noun phrase, also known as a nominal phrase (NP), serves as the phrase's functional component. In NP, a noun is easily recognized by eliminating every other word from the phrase without compromising the sentence's structure. We refer to these terms as head words. If we take away this Head Word, the sentence structure breaks down and becomes meaningless. As an illustration:

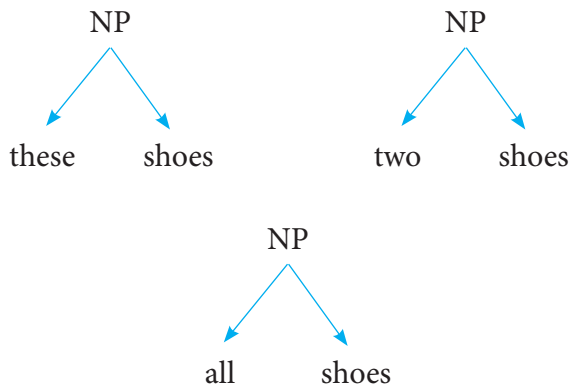
My beautiful little girl is attracting the attention of everyone in the ball room.

“My beautiful little girl” is an NP in the sentence above. The removal of the word “girl” will distort the meaning of the sentence, but removing the modifiers “my,” “beautiful,” and “little” will not have any negative effects on the text. So, in this case, “girl” is the Head Word. According to Burton-Roberts (2021), The Head of the phrase is said to be the essential center of a phrase containing a modified form.” Any word that has a noun function can serve as the head word.

In a sentence, a noun phrase can serve multiple purposes. The following are some of the most typical uses for noun phrases:

- A noun phrase can be a subject. Like in the sentence:
***The new laptop** is terrific.*
- A noun phrase can be a direct object. See italicized words in the following sentence:
Sari had met ***a new person***.
- A noun phrase can be an indirect object. See the sentence:
*My father has taught **me** the lesson.*
- A noun phrase can be the object of a preposition. For example:
*Maya is cutting with **a knife**.*

This is the graphic representation of phrase structure with NP examples:



a. The Components of Noun Phrase

A noun, which is the phrase's head, and zero or more dependents of different kinds make up a standard noun phrase. These dependencies are referred to as adnominal since they alter a noun. These adjuncts exhibit shape and class-specific morphological alterations.

1) Determiners

A word, phrase, or affix that appears in the context alongside a noun or noun phrase is called a determiner (Det). A determiner can specify whether the noun refers to a specific person or thing, to a specific number or quantity, to a closer or more distant element, to a definite or indefinite element of a class, etc. The categories below can be used to group determiners.

a) Pre-determiners

A pre-determiner is a word that precedes a central determiner (such as an article or a possessive pronoun) within a noun phrase. It typically specifies quantity, multiplier values, or adds emphasis to the noun that follows.

- Expressing proportion: *half, all*, etc.
For example: ***all the woman***
- Multiplying expressions: *double, triple*, etc.
For example: ***triple the stamps***
- Fraction: *one-third, three-fourth*, etc.
For example: ***five-seconds of my income***
- Exclamative: *when, what, how*, etc.
For example: ***what an excellent answer!***

Pre-determiners perform very particular functions:

- Adding information to a determiner.
- Demonstrating a speaker or writer's opinion about the quantitative of the noun.
- Often being used to show surprise or intensify other kinds of emotions.

b) Central-determiners

In a sentence, central determiners come before nouns and are preceded by a predicate. Nor do they co-occur. There are three categories for them:

- Articles: The definite and indefinite articles “a/an” are the most often used central determiners.

a, an, the, each, every, etc.

For example: *all **the** people*

- Possessives: As previously mentioned, several words that we employ as pronouns can also be used as central determiners. In the category of central determiners, possessives may be placed.

my, our, your, his, her, its, their, N's, etc.

For example: *all **his** baggage*

- Demonstratives: Additionally, the demonstratives serve as key determinants. Twice that size.

the, this, that, these, those, etc.

For example: *He opens **those** boxes.*

The roles of central determinants are:

- Provide details regarding the noun or noun phrase's definiteness and indefiniteness.
- To provide possession to a noun or noun phrase in order to change it.
- To make clear which entities being discussed.

c) Post-determiners

Post-determiners come after determiners and before adjectives. Although the order of adjectives might vary, post-determiners always have specific locations. They have the ability to occur together in a sentence. There are three types:

□ Ordinals

Ordinal determiners are used to tell the order of the Noun or Noun Phrase. They tell us the level or position in a group.

For example:

the first few days

□ Cardinals

Cardinal determiners are used in counting to indicate the quantity of nouns or noun phrases.

For example:

the four girls, my three sisters, these two problems

□ Quantifiers

Other Quantifiers are also used as post-determiners:

- **Ordinal Numbers:** *First, second, third, last, etc.*
- **Cardinal Numbers:** *One, two, three, twenty, etc.*

- **Quantifiers:** *Many, much, more, less, few, several, etc.*

For example:

my many friends

2) Modifiers

In phrase structure, a modifier is an optional component that is supposed to alter and provide more context for the head word in the structure it depends on. Since their removal does not affect the sentences' syntax, these modifiers are optional.

By using modifiers, we can condense a lot of information into a small number of words, improving the style's conciseness.

For example:

*This is a **black** belt.*

"Black" functions as a modifier in the sentence indicated above because its removal would not change the sentence's grammar and would leave the original sentence's structure intact. Second, the word "black" depends on the headword "belt" and cannot exist on its own.

Modifiers fall into two categories based on their positions:

a) Pre-modifiers

- The pre-modifiers come before the headword. They can describe or limit its meaning in some way, and they can be either an adjective or a noun.

For example:

*a **heavy** bag*

(The adjective "heavy" is a pre-modifier here)

- Adjectives can also be changed by another adjective.

For example:

*The **attractive young** lady talked to him.*

(Here adjective “attractive” is modified by another adjective “young”).

- In addition, adjectives can also be modified by degree adverbs.

For example:

*My friends are a **very faithful** people.*

(Here “very” is an adverb that modifies the adjective “faithful”)

- One of the nouns in a phrase that contains two of them may function as a premodifier).

For example:

***badminton** match*

(Here, “badminton” is a pre-modifier of the noun “match”).

- These pre-modifiers may function as proper nouns.

For example:

***New York** restaurants*

(Here, “New York” is a pre-modifier of the noun “restaurants”)

b) Post-modifiers

In a sentence, post-modifiers appear after the headword. It restricts or qualifies the word or noun phrase that follows. It is a one-way dependency or function.

For example:

*the living room **upstairs***

(Here “upstairs” is a post modifier to the headword “living room”)

Likewise, in this sentence: The chief minister will meet with the girls who won the match. In this

instance, won comes after the headword “girls” as a post-modifier. This is a “reduced relative clause,” which says that the chief minister will meet with the girls who won the match.

A noun phrase (NP) typically includes a noun (the headword) and any modifiers (such as adjectives, determiners, or other nouns) that give more information about the noun.

Noun phrases can be as simple as a single noun or pronoun or as complex as a noun with multiple modifiers. They can act as the subject, object, or complement of a sentence. The modifiers in a noun phrase give additional detail or clarify the noun, and they can come before or after the noun.

b. Noun Phrase (NP) Types and Their Formulas

A noun phrase (NP) is a phrase with a noun as its head, which can be expanded with determiners, adjectives, complements, prepositional phrases, and relative clauses. Noun Phrases serve as subjects, objects, or complements in sentences. Below are the types of noun phrases, each with its formula.

1) Simple Noun Phrase

A simple noun phrase consists of a noun alone or a noun with a determiner.

Formula:

$$\text{NP} \rightarrow (\text{Det}) + \text{N}$$

Examples:

- *dogs* (NP $\rightarrow$ N)
- *the book* (NP $\rightarrow$ Det + N)

2) Noun Phrase with Adjectives

A noun phrase expanded with one or more adjectives describing the noun.

Formula:

$$\text{NP} \rightarrow (\text{Det}) + (\text{AdjP}) + \text{N}$$

Examples:

- *the red car* (NP $\rightarrow$ Det + Adj + N)
- *a very fast runner* (NP $\rightarrow$ Det + AdjP + N)

3) Noun Phrase with Prepositional Phrases

A noun phrase expanded by a prepositional phrase that provides additional information about the noun.

Formula:

$$\text{NP} \rightarrow (\text{Det}) + \text{N} + (\text{PP})$$

Examples:

- *the rabbit on the sofa* (NP $\rightarrow$ Det + N + PP)
- *a book with a red paper* (NP $\rightarrow$ Det + N + PP)

4) Noun Phrase with a Relative Clause

A noun phrase that includes a relative clause, providing extra detail about the noun.

Formula:

$$\text{NP} \rightarrow (\text{Det}) + \text{N} + (\text{Relative Clause})$$

Examples:

- *the old man who is using a walking stick* (NP $\rightarrow$ Det + N + Relative Clause)
- *a lion that roars loudly* (NP $\rightarrow$ Det + N + Relative Clause)

5) Noun Phrase with Complements

A noun phrase with complements, which provide additional necessary information about the noun, often found in complex or abstract nouns.

Formula:

$$\text{NP} \rightarrow (\text{Det}) + \text{N} + \text{Complement}$$

Examples:

- *the fear of spiders* (NP → Det + N + Complement)
- *the thought to go* (NP → Det + N + Complement)

6) Noun Phrase with Adjective Phrases and Complements

A noun phrase with both adjective phrases (modifying the noun) and complements (providing additional information about the noun).

Formula:

$$\text{NP} \rightarrow (\text{Det}) + (\text{AdjP}) + \text{N} + \text{Complement}$$

Examples:

- *the beautiful color of the sunrise* (NP → Det + AdjP + N + Complement)
- *a touching story about a faith* (NP → Det + AdjP + N + Complement)

7) Noun Phrase with Adjective Phrases and Prepositional Phrases

A noun phrase with both an adjective phrase modifying the noun and a prepositional phrase providing extra detail.

Formula:

$$\text{NP} \rightarrow (\text{Det}) + (\text{AdjP}) + \text{N} + (\text{PP})$$

Examples:

- *the old hut by the river* (NP → Det + AdjP + N + PP)
- *a delicious pie with strawberry frosting* (NP → Det + AdjP + N + PP)

8) Complex Noun Phrase

A noun phrase that combines multiple modifiers, including adjectives, prepositional phrases, relative clauses, and complements.

Formula:

$$\text{NP} \rightarrow (\text{Det}) + (\text{AdjP}) + \text{N} + (\text{PP}) + (\text{Relative Clause}) + (\text{Complement})$$

Examples:

- *the big wardrobe in the room that she bought last month*
- $(\text{NP} \rightarrow \text{Det} + \text{AdjP} + \text{N} + \text{PP} + \text{Relative Clause})$
- *a diligent girl with a lot of admirers who are asking for lovely dates*

$$(\text{NP} \rightarrow \text{Det} + \text{AdjP} + \text{N} + \text{PP} + \text{Relative Clause})$$

Summary of Formulas

1. Simple NP:
 $\text{NP} \rightarrow (\text{Det}) + \text{N}$
2. NP with Adjectives:
 $\text{NP} \rightarrow (\text{Det}) + (\text{AdjP}) + \text{N}$
3. NP with Prepositional Phrases:
 $\text{NP} \rightarrow (\text{Det}) + \text{N} + (\text{PP})$
4. NP with AdjP and PP:
 $\text{NP} \rightarrow (\text{Det}) + (\text{AdjP}) + \text{N} + (\text{PP})$
5. NP with Complements:
 $\text{NP} \rightarrow (\text{Det}) + \text{N} + \text{Complement}$
6. NP with AdjP and Complements:
 $\text{NP} \rightarrow (\text{Det}) + (\text{AdjP}) + \text{N} + \text{Complement}$
7. NP with Relative Clause:
 $\text{NP} \rightarrow (\text{Det}) + \text{N} + (\text{Relative Clause})$
8. Complex NP:
 $\text{NP} \rightarrow (\text{Det}) + (\text{AdjP}) + \text{N} + (\text{PP}) + (\text{Relative Clause}) + (\text{Complement})$

These formulas represent the structure of various noun phrases, helping us understand how noun phrases can be built with different modifiers, complements, and extensions. Each of these examples showcases how a noun phrase can vary in complexity depending on the amount of detail added.

Let's construct a tree diagram for this noun phrase, "The big brown dog on the sofa":

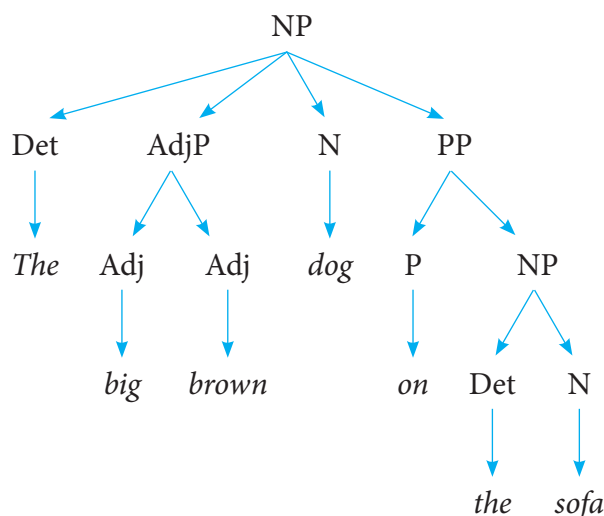
Step 1: Break down the NP

- Determiner: "The"
- Adjective Phrase: "big brown"
- Noun: "dog"
- Prepositional Phrase: "on the sofa"

Step 2: Syntactic Rule for the NP

- $NP \rightarrow Det\ AdjP\ N\ PP$
- $AdjP \rightarrow Adj\ Adj$
- $PP \rightarrow P\ NP$
- $NP \rightarrow Det\ N$

Tree Diagram (Labeled Brackets)



Note:

- The Noun Phrase (NP) is the root of the tree.
- The Determiner (Det) is “the”.
- The Adjective Phrase (AdjP) consists of two adjectives: “big” and “brown”.
- The Noun (N) is “dog”.
- The Prepositional Phrase (PP) modifies the noun “dog” and consists of a Preposition (P) “on” and another Noun Phrase (NP) “the sofa”, which has a determiner “the” and a noun “sofa”.

This hierarchical structure allows us to see the relationships between the components of the noun phrase.

2. *Verb Phrases*

A Verb Phrase (VP) is centered on a verb and includes any objects, complements, or modifiers. One or more verbs combined with any objects, modifiers, complements, particles, and infinitive markers like nouns, verbs, adverbs, p-words, and prepositions make verb phrases that alter noun phrases.

For examples:

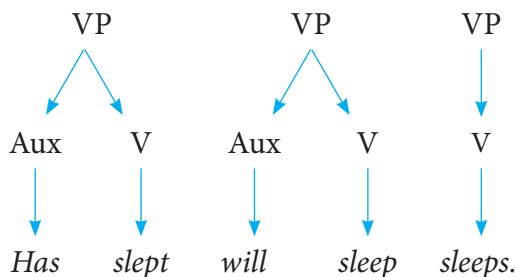
- The boy *has slept*.
- The boy *will sleep*.
- The boy *sleeps*.

(Here the italicized phrase verb phrase modifies the head word ‘boy’ in the sentence).

These are the rules for VP:

- Aux – modal, have, be
- VP – (Aux) V

With these rules, we can draw the following trees:



The types of verb phrase (VP), including:

- a. Simple Verb Phrase

VP → Verb

Example: *runs*

- b. Verb Phrase with Object

VP → Verb + NP

Example: *ate the cake*

(The verb is followed by a noun phrase (NP) acting as the object)

- c. Verb Phrase with Prepositional Phrase

VP → Verb + PP

Example: *slept on the couch*

(The verb is followed by a prepositional phrase (PP) that provides more detail)

- d. Verb Phrase with Adverbial Modifier

VP → Verb + AdvP

Example: *quickly ran*

(The verb is modified by an adverbial phrase (AdvP))

3. *Adjective Phrases*

Adjective Phrase is described as any phrase that includes an adjective along with any modifiers, including prepositions and adverbs. It belongs to a group of words that work together to describe a noun or pronoun in a sentence

For example:

I make *very tasteless* biryani.

(The head word “biryani” in this sentence is modified by the phrase “very tasteless.”).

An adjective phrase typically contains an adjective as its head (main word) and may also include modifiers or complements that further elaborate on the adjective’s meaning. Adjective phrases provide more information about the qualities, characteristics, or attributes of the noun they modify. They often appear before or after the noun and can help specify size, colour, condition, emotion, or other descriptive features. The adjective is usually the central component, and the modifiers or complements can be adverbs, prepositional phrases, or other words that intensify or clarify the adjective.

a. **Types of Adjective Phrases (AP)**

There are four types of adjective phrases (AP)

1) Simple Adjective Phrase

It consists of just the adjective with or without simple modifiers like adverbs.

Example: *He is tall.*

(Here, “tall” is the head adjective)

2) Prepositional Adjective Phrase/Prepositional Phrase within Adjective Phrase

It includes a prepositional phrase that describes a noun or pronoun.

Adjective + Prepositional Phrase (PrepP)

Example: *The sky was **full of hope**.*

(Here, “of hope” is a prepositional phrase acting as a complement)

3) Comparative Adjective Phrase

It uses comparative forms of adjectives with modifiers. A comparative adjective phrase compares two things, usually by using the comparative form of an adjective (e.g., taller, more interesting) and sometimes followed by a prepositional phrase that indicates what is being compared.

More/Less + Adjective + than + Noun/Pronoun
or
Adjective + -er + than + Noun/Pronoun

Example: *The tree is **taller** than the house.*

(Here, “taller” is the comparative adjective because it compares the height of the tree to that of the house. The prepositional phrase “than the house” provides the object of comparison).

4) Superlative Adjective Phrase

A Superlative Adjective Phrase is used to express the highest degree of a quality among three or more items. The formula for constructing a superlative adjective phrase typically involves a superlative adjective, which is often preceded by a determiner or modifier and can be followed by complements.

(Determiner) + Superlative Adjective + (Complement)

Example: *She is **the most intelligent** person **in the class**.*

(Here, “the most intelligent” is the superlative adjective because it expresses the highest degree of intelligence in a group (the class). The prepositional phrase “in the class” defines the group among which the comparison is made).

5) Adjective Phrase with Modifier

In an Adjective Phrase with a Modifier, the adjective is modified by an adverb or adverbial phrase that adds detail or intensifies the adjective.

AdjP → Modifier + Adjective

Example: *He is **very smart**.*

(The adverb “very” modifies “smart.”)

6) Adjective Phrase with Complement

In an Adjective Phrase with a Complement, the adjective is followed by a phrase that completes its meaning, often providing additional necessary information. Complements are typically prepositional phrases or clauses.

AdjP → Adjective + Complement

Example: *She is **afraid of the dark**.*

(Here, “of the dark” is the complement to the adjective “afraid.”)

7) Adjective Phrase with Modifier and Complement

An Adjective Phrase with a Modifier and a Complement includes both an adverb (modifier) that adjusts the degree of the adjective and a complement that provides additional information related to the adjective.

AdjP → Modifier + Adjective + Complement

Example: *They are **extremely proud of his success**.*

(Here, “extremely” modifies “proud,” and “of his success” is the complement)

8) Participle Phrase

It includes a participle (a verb form used as an adjective) and any modifiers or complements.

a) Present

A present participle phrase uses the present participle (verb + “-ing”) to describe an ongoing action related to a noun.

Present Participle (Verb-ing) + (Object/Complement)

Example: **Running** through the park, she felt the wind in her hair.

(Here, “running through the park” is the present participle phrase that describes the subject “she”. It provides additional information about what she was doing).

b) Past

A past participle phrase uses the past participle (often ending in “-ed,” or an irregular form) to describe a completed action or state related to a noun.

Past Participle (Verb-ed) + (Object/Complement)

Example: **Exhausted** from the long day, he fell asleep immediately.

(Here, “exhausted from the long day” is the past participle phrase describing the subject “he”. It provides more detail about his state before he fell asleep).

b. Key Rules of Adjective Phrases

1) Head of the Phrase (Adjective)

The adjective is the core or head of the phrase, which can stand alone or be modified by other elements such as adverbs, prepositional phrases, or complements.

Example: “happy” □ “very happy”

(Here, “happy” is the head adjective, and “very” modifies it)

2) Modifiers of the Adjective

Adjective phrases can be modified by adverbs or intensifiers (such as “very,” “quiet,” “extremely”), which change the degree of the adjective.

Example: “extremely tired”

(Here, “extremely” is the modifier of the adjective “tired.”)

3) Complements of the Adjective

Adjective phrases can take complements, which typically complete the meaning of the adjective. This often happens with adjectives that require additional information.

Example: “Afraid of spiders”

(Here, “of spiders” is the complement of the adjective “afraid.”)

4) Prepositional Phrases within Adjective Phrases

A prepositional phrase can function as a complement or modifier within an adjective phrase, providing additional context.

Example: “Full of energy”

(Here, the prepositional phrase “of energy” completes the meaning of “full.”)

5) Order of Elements

Typically, the adverbial modifier comes before the adjective, while the complement follows the adjective.

Example: “very proud of her achievement”

(Here, “very” modifies “proud,” and “of her achievement” is the complement)

c. Syntactic Analysis of Adjective Phrases

1) Simple Adjective Phrase

Example: “very happy”

■ Syntactic Structure:

The adjective phrase consists of an adverb “very” (modifier) and an adjective “happy” (head).

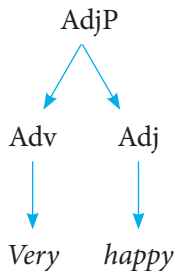
■ Breakdown:

Head: “happy” (Adjective)

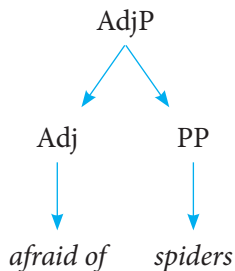
Modifier: “very” (Adverb)

To analyze adjective phrases using a tree diagram, we can break down the sentence and show the hierarchical relationships between the phrase components.

a) Tree Diagram for Simple Adjective Phrase: “very happy”



b) Tree Diagram for Adjective Phrase with a Complement: “afraid of spiders”



The tree diagram represents the structure of the adjective phrase (AdjP) by showing how the adjective interacts with

its modifier or complement. The head of the phrase is the adjective, while the modifier (adverb) or complement (prepositional phrase) branches from the adjective.

In the first example (“very happy”), the modifier “very” precedes the adjective “happy.” In the second example (“afraid of spiders”), the complement “of spiders” follows the adjective “afraid,” forming a prepositional phrase.

4. *Adverbial Phrase*

An Adverbial Phrase (AdvP) is a collection of words that operates as an adverb in a phrase. An adverb is used to modify a verb, adjective, or another adverb by supplying additional information regarding time, place, manner, reason, or degree. Adverbial phrases function just like adverbs but can be composed of multiple words, such as prepositional or infinitive phrases.

a. **Position of Adverbial Phrases**

1) Initial position

The adverbial phrase can appear at the beginning of a sentence.

Example: ***In the morning**, we go jogging.*

2) Middle position

The adverbial phrase can be inserted between the subject and the verb or after the auxiliary verb.

Example: *We **often** go jogging.*

3) Final position

The adverbial phrase can appear at the end of the sentence.

Example: *We go jogging **in the morning**.*

b. **Functions of Adverbial Phrases**

Adverbial phrases provide more information about:

1) Time: When something happens.

Example: *He will call **in the evening**.*

- 2) Place: Where something happens.
Example: *She lives **in New York**.*
- 3) Manner: How something happens.
Example: *They worked **with great effort**.*
- 4) Reason: Why something happens.
Example: *She left early **to avoid traffic**.*
- 5) Condition: Under what condition something happens.
Example: *You will succeed **with hard work**.*

c. Multiple Adverbial Phrases

Multiple adverbial phrases can appear in the same sentence, often following this order: Manner → Place → Time.

Example: *She danced gracefully **in the hall last night**.*

d. Optionality of Adverbial Phrases

Adverbial phrases are optional elements and can often be removed without affecting the grammatical correctness of a sentence, though the detail and richness of the context will be lost.

Example: ***She left** in a hurry.* → “she left”

e. Modification by Adverbial Phrases

Adverbial phrases can modify:

- 1) Verbs: Palupi *sang beautifully*.
- 2) Adjectives: He is *quite tall*.
- 3) Other adverbs: He speaks *very slowly*.

f. Types of Adverbial Phrases

- 1) Simple Adverb Phrase

AdvP → Adverb

Example: “quickly”

- 2) Adverb Phrase with Modifier

AdvP → Modifier + Adverb

Example: “very quickly”

(The modifier (e.g., “very”) modifies the intensity of the adverb (e.g., “quickly”).

g. Syntactic Analysis of Adverbial Phrases

Syntactic analysis involves breaking down a sentence into its constituent parts to understand how these parts relate to each other within the structure. For an adverbial phrase, the analysis involves identifying its place in the syntax tree.

Now, consider the sentence:

She danced gracefully in the hall last night.

Step 1: Sentence Breakdown

Subject	: “she”
Verb	: “danced”
Adverbial Phrase	: “gracefully in the hall last night”
Adverb (manner)	: “gracefully”
Prepositional Phrase (place)	: “in the hall”
Noun Phrase (time)	: “last night”

Step 2: Syntactic Structure

In a syntactic tree, the phrase will be analyzed as part of a larger Verb Phrase (VP), which consists of the Verb (V) and the Adverbial Phrases (AdvPs).

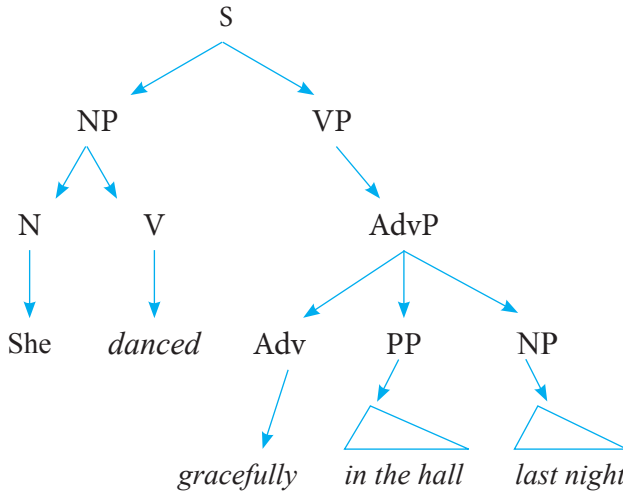
h. The Tree Diagram of Adverbial Phrase

This is the breakdown for the AdvP tree diagram:

- The Sentence (S) starts with a Noun Phrase (NP) for the subject, “She.”
- The Verb Phrase (VP) is the predicate that includes the verb “danced.”
- Attached to the Verb Phrase are the adverbial phrases: “gracefully” (an Adverb Phrase (AdvP) modifying the verb “danced”), “in the hall” (a Prepositional Phrase (PP)

modifying the manner of the dance), and “last night” (a Noun Phrase (NP) functioning as an adverbial phrase for time).

Below is a simplified representation of a tree diagram (though actual diagrams are usually drawn visually with branching lines):



Note:

- S (Sentence): This is the highest node that represents the entire sentence.
- NP (Noun Phrase): “she” is the subject of the sentence.
- VP (Verb Phrase): “danced gracefully in the hall last night” is the entire predicate.
- V (Verb): “danced” is the main verb.
- AdvP (Adverbial Phrase): “gracefully” modifies the verb “danced” and tells how she danced.
- PP (Prepositional Phrase): “in the hall” tells where she danced.
- NP (Noun Phrase functioning as Adverbial Phrase): “last night” provides information about when the action took place.

Adverbial phrases enhance sentences by adding details related to time, place, manner, or other circumstances. They are optional but provide valuable context. Syntactically, they are often part of the Verb

Phrase and can be represented clearly in a syntactic tree to show their relationship with other elements of the sentence.

5. *Prepositional Phrase*

A prepositional phrase (PP) is a syntactic construction consisting of a preposition followed by a noun, pronoun, or noun phrase, which functions as the object of the preposition. Prepositional words frequently function as adjectives or adverbs, altering nouns or verbs to offer more information regarding time, location, direction, or manner. This grammatical construct fulfills the function of a noun phrase, which consists of a preposition and its prepositional complement.

a. **Structure of Prepositional Phrase**

Preposition + Object of Preposition

Optionally, a modifier (such as an article, adjective, or determiner) may appear before the object.

b. **Rules Governing Prepositional Phrases**

1) The Preposition Must Have an Object

A prepositional phrase is a phrase that starts with a preposition and concludes with the object of the preposition.

Example:

*She walked **into the room**.*

(Here, “into” is the preposition; “the room” is the object of the preposition)

2) Modifiers Can Appear in the Prepositional Phrase

Modifiers such as articles and adjectives can appear between the preposition and the object.

Example:

*He sat **on the comfortable chair**.*

(Here, “on” is the preposition; “the comfortable chair” is the object, with “the” and “comfortable” as modifiers)

3) The Object Can Be a Noun, Pronoun, or Noun Phrase

The object of the preposition can be a noun, a pronoun, or even a noun phrase.

Example:

- Noun: *She stood **by the window**.*
- Pronoun: *She walked **toward him**.*
- Noun Phrase: *She stood **in front of the large mirror**.*

4) Prepositional Phrases Can Function as Adjectives or Adverbs

Prepositional phrases function as adjectival phrases when they describe a noun and adverbial phrases when they modify a verb, adjective, or another adverb.

■ Adjective

Example:

*The book **on the table** is mine.*

(Here, the prepositional phrase “on the table” modifies “book”)

■ Adverb

Example:

*He ran **with great speed**.*

(Here, the prepositional phrase “with great speed” modifies the verb “ran”)

5) A Prepositional Phrase Cannot Contain the Subject or the Main Verb

The subject and main verb of a sentence do not belong within the prepositional phrase. The phrase provides extra detail but does not play a direct grammatical role in the core subject-verb structure.

Example:

- Incorrect: *After the game John went to the store.*
(Here, “John went” incorrectly appears as part of a prepositional phrase)

- Correct: *After the game, John went to the store.*
(Now, the prepositional phrase is “After the game,” which functions as an adverb modifying “went.”)

c. Types of Prepositional Phrase

1) Simple Prepositional Phrase

PP → Preposition + NP

Example:

“on the table”

(The preposition (e.g., on) introduces the noun phrase (e.g., the table)).

2) Prepositional Phrase with Modifier

PP → Preposition + NP + Modifier

Example:

“under the bed quickly”

(The prepositional phrase is modified by an adverbial element, e.g., quickly).

d. Syntactic Analysis and Tree Diagram

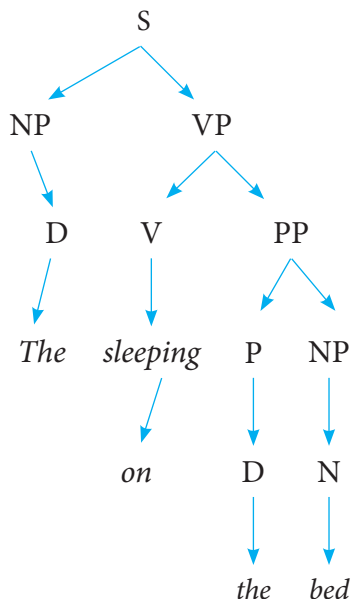
Example:

The cat is sleeping on the bed.

1) Syntactic Analysis

- “the cat”: This is the subject of the sentence, consisting of a determiner (“The”) and a noun (“cat”).
- “is sleeping”: This is the verb phrase (VP), with “is” as the auxiliary verb and “sleeping” as the main verb.
- “on the bed”: This is the prepositional phrase (PP), functioning as an adverbial modifier of the verb “sleeping.” It consists of:
 - “on”: The preposition.
 - “the bed”: The object of the preposition, with “the” as the determiner and “bed” as the noun.

2) Tree Diagram for the Sentence



3) Explanation of the Tree Diagram

The tree diagram visually represents the hierarchical structure of the sentence and shows how each component, including the prepositional phrase, fits into the overall syntax.

- **S (Sentence):** The entire sentence, which branches into the NP (Noun Phrase) and VP (Verb Phrase).
- **NP (Noun Phrase):** This consists of a determiner (D) and a noun (N) — “The cat.”
- **VP (Verb Phrase):** This consists of the verb “sleeping” and the prepositional phrase functioning as an adverbial modifier.
- **PP (Prepositional Phrase):** This branches into the preposition (P) “on” and the NP “the bed,” which consists of the determiner “the” and the noun “bed.”

E. Clause Structure

English has produced several sentence constructions to keep things interesting and give us more options when writing and speaking. A group of words with a subject and a verb is called a clause. Certain clauses may express a whole phrase on their own, but others need more assistance.

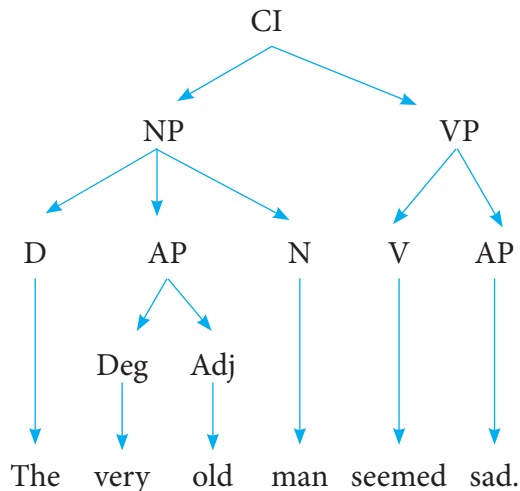
Furthermore, the clause is a syntactic phrase consisting of a subject (NP) and a predicate (VP) at the minimum. The NP + VP combination forms the biggest syntactic phrase. The noun phrase (NP) functions as the subject, while the verb phrase (VP) functions as the predicate.

The phrase structure rule for clauses (CI) is:

CI---NP VP

Examples:

The very old man seemed sad.



1. *Clause Categories*

a. **Independent Clauses**

An independent clause is a complete sentence that includes subjects and verbs with optional objects. It can function independently as a complete sentence.

Examples:

- *We will take a leave at nine.*
- *I write a short poem.*

b. **Dependent Clauses**

A clause that is unable to function as a complete sentence on its own is referred to as a dependent or subordinate clause. It has to be joined to an independent clause to make a sentence that is both full and logical. Dependent clauses give independent clauses the extra information they require to function.

Example:

*The market was crowded **because there were celebrities there.***

There are two clauses in this sentence: (1) “The market was crowded”, and (2) “there were celebrities there”. It means that each sentence has a verb (“was” and “were”) and a subject (the market & there). However, only the first clause stands alone as a complete phrase.

The subordinate clause “because there were celebrities there” adds fresh and significant information to the first sentence, somewhat changing its meaning. Subordinate clauses are mostly used to support an independent clause by adding important facts. Subordinate clauses are dependent on their subjects and verbs; they are not independent. They are made up of particular terms called subordinating conjunctions that connect them to independent clauses.

Subordinate pronouns such as “that,” “which,” “whatever,” “whenever,” “whoever,” and so on, as well as subordinating

conjunctions like “because,” “since,” “although,” “unless,” and “while,” are typically used. The group of words is a subordinate clause if you come across a subordinating conjunction. Understanding these terms by heart can help you distinguish between various kinds of clauses.

2. *Types of Clauses*

There are four distinct kinds of sentence structures that you might make depending on how you put clauses together (Fernández & Cairns, 2010):

a. **Simple (1 independent clause)**

Simple sentences have a rudimentary structure at their core. There is only one independent clause in them; no other clauses are there. Subjects, verbs, and maybe objects are all included in this form.

Examples:

- *He finished his homework by ten.*
- *The students read the announcement for several times.*

b. **Compound (two or more independent clauses)**

A compound sentence is a sentence that consists of two or more separate clauses. There are two techniques for combining independent sentences: either using a semicolon or using a comma with a coordinating conjunction (for, and, nor, but, or, yet, and so - also referred to as FANBOYS) between the clauses.

Examples:

- *He finished his homework by ten, **and** he played a guitar at eleven.*
- *The students read the announcement for several times, **but** they still did not get it.*

c. **Complex (1 independent clause + 1 or more subordinate clauses)**

One major independent clause and multiple subordinate clauses are used in a complex sentence. Subordinating conjunctions

are used in complex sentences to unite the clauses, whereas coordinating conjunctions are used in compound sentences. Dependent clauses supplement the independent clause with more details about the subject (who, which), the sequence/time (since, while), or the causal link (because, if).

The independent clause should follow after a comma if the subordinating clause comes first. There is no need for a comma at all if the independent clause comes first.

Example:

- *Since he had finished his homework, he played a guitar.*

(Note that this statement requires a comma since it begins with a dependent clause)

- *The students still did not understand the announcement although they read it several times.*

(Note that since the sentence begins with an independent clause, there is no comma here)

d. Compound-Complex (2 or more independent clauses + 1 or more subordinate clauses)

As the name suggests, compound-complex sentences are created by fusing complex sentences with compound sentences. They demand a minimum of one subordinating clause and two independent clauses. It's crucial to follow the precise grammatical guidelines for each kind of phrase when combining them and to make sure that coordinating and subordinating conjunctions are utilized appropriately.

Examples:

- *Despite categorizing his sources according to themes, he chose to put them in chronological order, closely adhering to the MEAL structure for the arrangement.*
- *After spending several hours studying APA guidelines, they concluded that writing in APA made sense because the style was objective, straightforward, and brief.*

F. Syntax Trees

The foundation for generative transformational grammar is provided by the tree structures or tree diagrams. It can be one method to examine a sentence systematically. The tree diagram shows the hierarchical links between the pieces of a sentence, giving a thorough representation of the sentence (Chomsky, 2002). Syntax trees are closely related to the initial phases of transformational grammar, which Noam Chomsky introduced in 1957.

Syntax trees relate to the phrase structure rules that explain the syntax of a given language. The abstract syntactic structure of text written in a formal language, usually source code, is represented by a tree diagram. Every node in the tree represents a construct that appears in the text. Sometimes, it is just referred to as a syntax tree. The syntax is “abstract” in the sense that it only represents the structural or content-related information found in the actual syntax, rather than all of the details.

Syntax trees include both lexical categories (parts of speech) and phrasal categories that humans both make and understand, is provided by phrase-structure rules (Borsley & Börjars, 2011).

Phrase structure grammars have a very straightforward idea. We start by determining which syntactic categories are found in a given language, as well as the different internal structures connected to each category. Then, to represent it, we formulate a rule for every structure. An English sentence typically consists of a noun phrase followed by a verb phrase. Typically, phrase structure guidelines take the following form:

$$A \rightarrow B C$$

This formula indicates that the two subconstituents, B and C, are separated from the constituent A.

1. *The Rules of Syntactic Analysis*

The rules for generative English grammar are as follows:

- Sentence [S] $\rightarrow$ Noun Phrase (Auxiliary) Verb Phrase

- Verb Phrase [VP] → (Adverb) Verb (Prepositional Phrase) (Noun Phrase)
- Noun Phrase [NP] → (Determiner/Noun Phrase) (Adjective) Noun (Prepositional Phrase)
- Prepositional Phrase [PP] → Preposition Noun Phrase
- X Phrase → X Phrase Conjunction X Phrase (X being a placeholder for V, N or P)
- X → X Conjunction X

A verb phrase (VP) comes after a noun phrase (NP) in a sentence (S). A noun (N) is the first word of a noun phrase, which may or may not include an optional determiner (Det). An optional prepositional phrase (PP) can come after an optional adjective phrase (AP) before a noun. The circular brackets indicate optional components.

You can create a large number of proper English sentences (or sentences in any specified language) by starting with the sentence symbol S, applying the phrase structure rules one after the other, and then using the replacement rules to replace the abstract symbols with actual words.

Any sentence generated in this manner should be grammatically correct if the rules are correct to deliver a particular meaningful message. The concept of a constituent in linguistic analysis refers to any word or group of words that is dominated by a single node. In other words, every individual word is considered a constituent.

e.g. *Sinta had a good house.*

Syntactic Analysis of the Sentence:

- a. **Subject (Noun Phrase, NP): “Sinta”**
 - Head: “Sinta” (Proper Noun, N)
- b. **Verb Phrase (VP): “had a good house”**
 - Verb (V): “had”
 - Noun Phrase (NP): “a good house”
 - Determiner (Det): “a”

- Adjective (Adj): “good”
- Noun (N): “house”

The sentence consists of a subject (“Sinta”) and a verb phrase (“had a good house”). The verb phrase is composed of the verb “had” and the direct object, which is a noun phrase “a good house.”

2. *How to Make a Syntactic Tree*

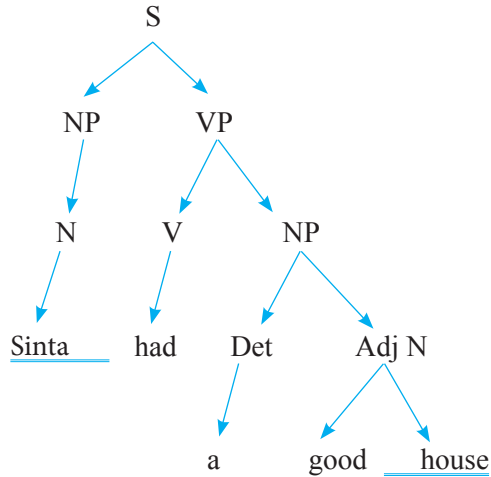
Follow these steps to draw the syntactic tree for “Sinta had a good house”.

Given the following sentence, “Sinta had a good house,” node S indicates the sentence from left to right. After the S, a right arrow with the greater than symbol ($>$) is inserted to show that the items that came after are parts of the S.

In this case, S stands for “Sinta had a good house”, NP stands for the subject “Sinta”, and VP stands for the predicate “had a good house”. Then, the next steps are:

- The representation of this would be $S > NP VP$.
- Make room between every node.
- Next, we further dissect each component.
- NP is made up of just one noun (N).
- The following line would show this as $NP > N$.
- “Sinta” is the subject’s noun.
- The following line would show this as $N > \text{“Sinta”}$
- The following is a VP that consists of two noun phrases (NP) and a verb (V).
- The following is an NP that consists of a determiner (D) and a noun (N).
- The following line would show this as $D > \text{“a”}$
- The following line would show this as $ADJ > \text{“good”}$
- Finally, “house” is the noun, and it is indicated as follows in the last line: $N > \text{“house”}$

This is the visualization of the syntactic tree of the sentence:



This is the explanation of the tree diagram:

- a. S (Sentence): The root of the tree, representing the entire sentence.
- b. NP (Noun Phrase): “Sinta” is the subject of the sentence.
 - N (Noun): “Sinta” is a proper noun.
- c. VP (Verb Phrase): The entire predicate “had a good house.”
 - V (Verb): “had” is the main verb of the sentence.
 - NP (Noun Phrase): “a good house” is the direct object of the verb “had.”
 - Det (Determiner): “a” determines the noun “house.”
 - Adj (Adjective): “good” modifies the noun “house.”
 - N (Noun): “house” is the head noun of the direct object.

The syntactic analysis of “Sinta had a good house” reveals that the sentence consists of a subject (NP) and a verb phrase (VP) containing a direct object. The tree diagram shows the hierarchical structure of the sentence, with each word and phrase branching from the root, which is the entire sentence (S). The immediate constituent analysis encompasses the study of phrase structure rules and the tree structures that they are related to.

Transformation rules are used in transformational grammar to improve phrase structure rule systems. These transformation rules enable operations like negation and passivisation by acting on an existing syntactic structure to produce a new one. Although transformations are not technically necessary for sentence production (because suitably enlarged phrase structure rules might simply generate identical sentences), they provide a more efficient method and allow important relationships between sentences to be reflected within the grammatical framework.

G. Syntax Ambiguity

Syntax ambiguity, sometimes referred to as syntactic or structural ambiguity, occurs when a sentence or phrase's structure allows for many interpretations. This kind of ambiguity occurs when a word arrangement gives rise to several distinct meanings based on different grammatical interpretations.

The most common reason for syntax ambiguity is the possibility of distinct syntactic structures for the same set of words, which can result in varying interpretations of what the sentence means. When modifiers, like adjectives or prepositional phrases, can be connected to more than one sentence element, ambiguity frequently results. Without more context or explanation, this could make it difficult to understand the intended meaning.

Here are a few instances of unclear syntax.

- Examples 1

The woman saw the child with glasses.

Interpretation 1: The woman used glasses to see the child.

Interpretation 2: The woman saw the child who had glasses.

- Examples 2

I pet a kitty in my pajamas.

Interpretation 1: I was wearing pajamas when I pet a kitty.

Interpretation 2: The kitty was in my pajamas when I pet it (though this interpretation is more humorous and less likely).

- Examples 3

They are cooking apples.

Interpretation 1: They are in the process of cooking apples (apples that are being cooked).

Interpretation 2: They are apples that are suitable for cooking (a type of apple).

In addition, there are three types of syntax ambiguity:

1. ***Attachment Ambiguity***

This occurs when it is unclear to which constituent or structural unit a specific word or phrase belongs.

For instance:

Merlin saw the man with a camera.

(Is the man holding a camera, or is Merlin using one?)

2. ***Coordination Ambiguity***

It occurs when it is not evident how the sentence's components are structured.

For instance:

Old men and women were at the party.

(Are the ladies older than the guys, or just the men?)

3. ***Scope ambiguity***

It occurs when it is not immediately obvious how far the influence of a specific word or phrase extends over other elements in the sentence.

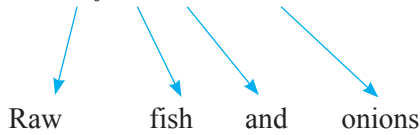
For instance:

Every student must take a test.

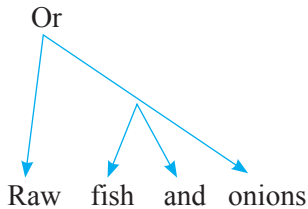
(Is there a different test for each student, or only one specific identical test?)

These are the examples of syntax analysis in the tree diagram analysis:

- *I don't like raw fish and onions*

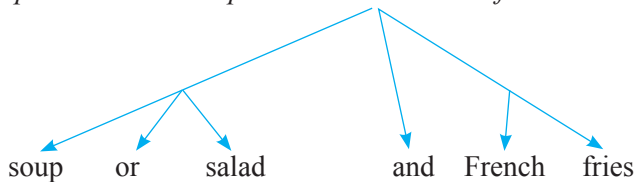


(The adjective “raw” only explains the condition of the fish, not the onions).



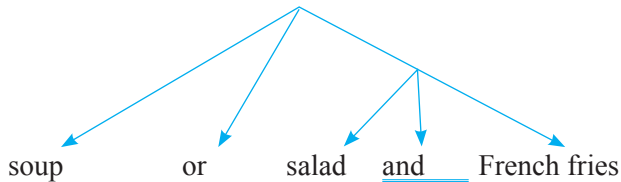
(The adjective “raw” is applied to the condition of both the fish and the onions).

- *The price includes soup or salad and French fries*



(For this price, we can get French fries. In addition, you can also get soup or salad)

Or



(For this price, we can get soup (without salad and French fries). Alternatively, we can get salad and French fries (without soup)).

EXERCISES

A. Work in Pairs

Exercise 1: Identifying the Sentence Structure.

Now that you have gone through several examples apply your knowledge to identify the sentence structure of the following sentences. Discuss with your partner, then split the sentences according to the sentence structure.

1. My sister is doing homework carefully.
2. It is getting very interesting here.
3. The cat is cute.
4. Every year, the company upgrades its quality.
5. Laura bought me a pair of socks.
6. Nobody gets the prize.
7. That room was clean.
8. I will go home as soon as I complete it.
9. In July, I will be going to New Zealand.
10. My mother's laptop is not working.

Exercise 2: Transitive versus Intransitive

Discuss with your partner to identify the verbs in the following sentences and determine if they are transitive or intransitive.

1. Dave make some cookies.
2. Rayhan laughed so hard.
3. The woman gave the book to me.
4. She studied in Jakarta.
5. Could you pass me the bottle?
6. Tika went home in the afternoon.
7. Catherine found the shirt in the living room.
8. Noor always greets her friends first.
9. The bicycle stopped in front of the market.
10. Kirana likes her new toys.

B. Group Presentation: Identifying Syntax Ambiguities

1. Make a group of 3-4 people
2. Find seven complete sentences in the authentic text on the website (Please provide the source references of the sentences you used for the actual case samples).
3. Identify any ambiguities and discuss the different grammatical structures among the same sentences.
4. Draw tree diagrams to see the different meanings for each sentence.
5. Present your work in front of the class

C. Essay (Individual Works)

Exercise 1: The Concept Sentences

Answer these questions below in complete sentences.

1. What is sentence structure?
2. What are the parts of a sentence?
3. Describe 5 components of a sentence.
4. Give 3 examples of compound-complex sentence structure and analyze their parts of speech.

Exercise 2: Analyzing Sentences

Provide a syntactic analysis and syntax tree diagrams of these sentences.

1. My cat has been acting cute.
2. It is getting too hot here.
3. Do you need this notebook?
4. What I need is you.
5. Martha bought me a pair of wool gloves.
6. James came late yesterday.
7. The movie was not quite great.
8. I will do the homework quickly after having dinner.
9. It seems that you are as smart as her.
10. Thank you for lending me the car.

ANSWER KEYS

A. Work in Pairs

Exercise 1: Identifying the Sentence Structure

1. My friend/is doing/weird/lately.
Subject/Verb/Complement/Adjunct (SVCA)
2. It/is getting/very/interesting/here.
Subject/Verb/Adjunct/Complement/Adjunct (SVACA)
3. The cat/is/cute.
Subject/Verb/Complement (SVC)
4. Every year,/the company/upgrades/its quality.
Adjunct/Subject/Verb/Object (ASVO)
5. Laura/bought/me/a pair of socks.
Subject/Verb/Indirect Object/Direct Object (SVIODO)
6. Nobody/got/the prize.
Subject/Verb/Object (SVO)
7. The room/was/clean.
Subject/Verb /Complement (SVC)
8. I/will go/home/as soon as I complete it.
Subject/Verb/Adjunct/Adjunct (SVAA)
9. In July, /she/will be travelling/to New Zealand.
Adjunct/Subject/Verb/Adjunct (ASVA)
10. My mother's laptop/is not working.
Subject/Verb (SV)

Exercise 2: Transitive versus Intransitive

1. Transitive Verb
2. Intransitive Verb
3. Transitive Verb
4. Intransitive Verb
5. Transitive Verb
6. Intransitive Verb
7. Transitive Verb
8. Transitive Verb
9. Intransitive Verb
10. Transitive Verb

B. Group Presentation: Identifying Syntax Ambiguities

These are the examples of seven sentences that may contain ambiguities. Each ambiguity arises because the sentence can be interpreted differently due to different grammatical structures.

1. Sentence: “The chicken is ready to eat.”

Ambiguity:

- Interpretation 1: The chicken (as an animal) is ready to eat something.
- Interpretation 2: The chicken (as food) is ready for someone to eat.

Analysis:

- Interpretation 1: The subject (“chicken”) is the agent that will eat.
- Interpretation 2: The subject (“chicken”) is the food to be eaten.

2. Sentence: “I saw her duck.”

Ambiguity:

- Interpretation 1: I saw the bird (a duck) that belongs to her.
- Interpretation 2: I saw her quickly lower her head to avoid something (verb: “duck”).

Analysis:

- Interpretation 1: “Duck” is a noun, the bird.
- Interpretation 2: “Duck” is a verb, the action.

3. Sentence: “She watched the man with binoculars.”

Ambiguity:

- Interpretation 1: She used binoculars to watch the man.
- Interpretation 2: The man she watched had binoculars.

Analysis:

- Interpretation 1: “With binoculars” modifies “she,” indicating that she used binoculars.
- Interpretation 2: “With binoculars” modifies “the man,” indicating that the man had binoculars.

4. Sentence: “John hit the man with the bat.”

Ambiguity:

- Interpretation 1: John used the bat to hit the man.
- Interpretation 2: John hit the man who had the bat.

Analysis:

- Interpretation 1: “With the bat” modifies the action of “hit,” indicating the instrument.
- Interpretation 2: “With the bat” modifies the noun “man,” indicating possession.

5. Sentence: “Visiting relatives can be annoying.”

Ambiguity:

- Interpretation 1: The act of visiting relatives is annoying.
- Interpretation 2: Relatives who visit can be annoying.

Analysis:

- Interpretation 1: “Visiting” is a gerund (verbal noun) modifying “relatives.”
- Interpretation 2: “Visiting relatives” is a noun phrase referring to the relatives who visit.

6. Sentence: “The old man and the woman will arrive soon.”

Ambiguity:

- Interpretation 1: The old man and the woman (who may be young or old) will arrive soon.
- Interpretation 2: The old man and the old woman will arrive soon.

Analysis:

- Interpretation 1: “Old” only modifies “man.”
- Interpretation 2: “Old” modifies both “man” and “woman.”

7. Sentence: “The teacher said the student was smart.”

Ambiguity:

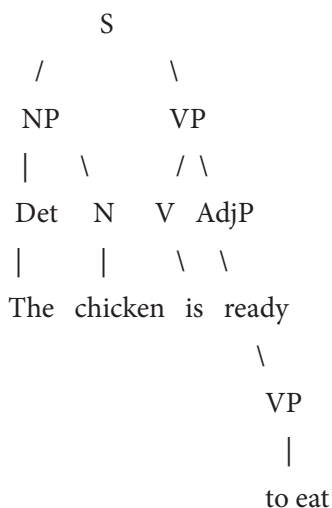
- Interpretation 1: The teacher claimed that the student was smart.
- Interpretation 2: The teacher told the student that they were smart.

Analysis:

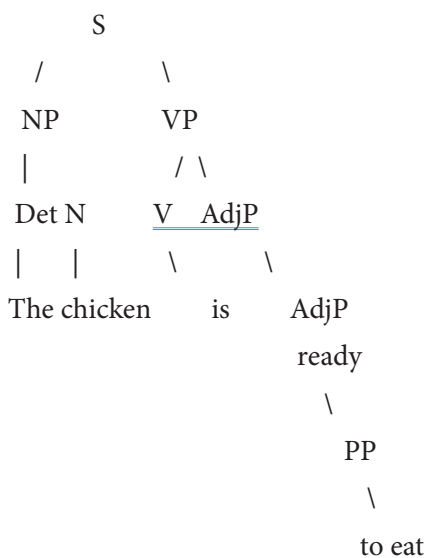
- Interpretation 1: “The student was smart” is a statement by the teacher about the student.
- Interpretation 2: “The student” is the recipient of the teacher’s speech, implying the teacher directly addressed the student.

Let’s draw tree diagrams for Sentence 1 (“The chicken is ready to eat”) to illustrate the different interpretations. For brevity, I will create tree diagrams only for this sentence, and similar diagrams can be constructed for the other sentences.

- Tree Diagram for Interpretation 1 (“The chicken is ready to eat something.”):



- Tree Diagram for Interpretation 2 (“The chicken is ready for someone to eat.”):



Note:

- Interpretation 1 shows “to eat” as a verb phrase that describes what the chicken is about to do.
- Interpretation 2 shows “to eat” as a prepositional phrase describing the readiness of the chicken to be eaten.

Similar syntactic trees can be drawn for the remaining sentences to visualize their structural differences based on the interpretations.

C. Essay

Exercise 1: The Concept of Sentences

1. Sentence structure is a linguistic element that dictates the precise placement and arrangement of each component within a phrase to ensure coherence and comprehension. Sentence structure, as defined by the Collins Dictionary, refers to the grammatical organization of words within sentences.
2. A sentence has two parts: a subject and a predicate.

For example:

In the sentence, *I watched a movie*, ‘I’ is the subject and ‘watched a movie’ is the predicate.

3. The components of a sentence are the basic elements that combine to create a meaningful and grammatically correct sentence. Here are the primary components:

- a. Subject

Definition: The subject is the part of the sentence that performs the action or is described in the sentence. It is typically a noun, pronoun, or noun phrase.

Example: “The cat sleeps.”

Explanation: “The cat” is the subject performing the action of sleeping.

b. Predicate

Definition: The predicate tells something about the subject. It includes the verb and any accompanying information (objects, complements, or adverbial phrases).

Example: “The cat sleeps quietly on the sofa.”

Explanation: “Sleeps quietly on the sofa” is the predicate, describing what the subject is doing.

c. Verb

Definition: The verb expresses the action or state of being of the subject. It is the core of the predicate.

Example: “She runs every morning.”

Explanation: “Runs” is the verb showing the action performed by the subject.

d. Object

Definition: The object is the entity that undergoes the action of the verb. There exist two categories of objects: direct and indirect.

Direct Object: Receives the action of the verb directly.

Example: “She kicked the ball.”

Indirect Object: Receives the benefit of the action and usually comes before the direct object.

Example: “She gave him a gift.”

e. Complement

Definition: Complements are words or phrases that complete the meaning of the subject or the verb. Subject complements (which follow linking verbs) or object complements (which follow direct objects).

Subject Complement: Renames or describes the subject.

Example: “She is happy.”

Object Complement: Renames or describes the object.

Example: “They elected her president.”

Note:

Each of these components contributes to the structure and meaning of a sentence, ensuring the students convey a clear and complete thought.

4. Some examples of sentence structure.

- SVO – *The teachers completed their works.*
- SVC – *My father is a lawyer.*
- ASVO – *Last year, we opened a shop.*
- ASVA – *Normally, I did not go to the movie.*
- SVOAA – *The men were watching a match on the field all day.*

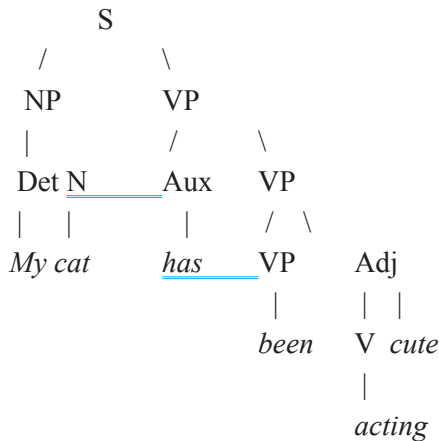
Exercise 2: Analyzing the Sentences

1. Sentence: “My cat has been acting cute.”

Syntactic Analysis:

- Subject (NP): “My cat”
- Determiner (Det): “My”
- Noun (N): “cat”
- Verb Phrase (VP): “has been acting cute”
- Auxiliary Verbs (Aux): “has been”
- Main Verb (V): “acting”
- Adjective (Adj): “cute”

Tree Diagram:

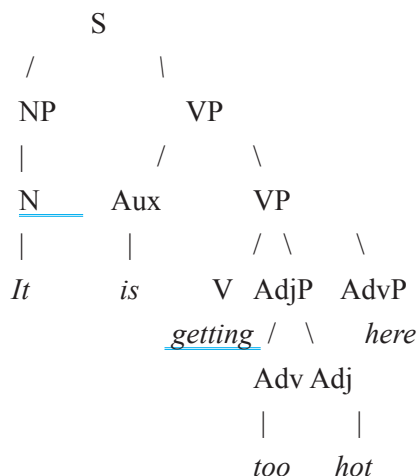


2. Sentence: "It is getting too hot here."

Syntactic Analysis:

- Subject (NP): "It"
- Verb Phrase (VP): "is getting too hot here"
- Auxiliary Verb (Aux): "is"
- Main Verb (V): "getting"
- Adjective Phrase (AdjP): "too hot"
- Adverbial Phrase (AdvP): "here"

Tree Diagram:

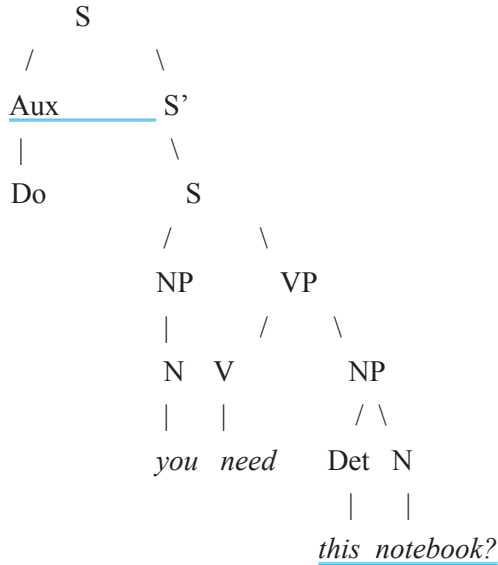


3. Sentence: "Do you need this notebook?"

Syntactic Analysis:

- Auxiliary Verb (Aux): "Do"
- Subject (NP): "you"
- Verb Phrase (VP): "need this notebook"
- Main Verb (V): "need"
- Noun Phrase (NP): "this notebook"
- Determiner (Det): "this"
- Noun (N): "notebook"

Tree Diagram:



4. Sentence: “What I need is you.”

Syntactic Analysis:

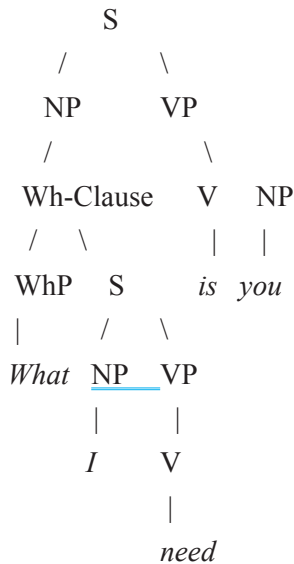
- a) Main Clause (S): “What I need is you”
 - Subject (NP): “What I need” (Wh-Clause functioning as a noun phrase)
 - Verb (V): “is”
 - Subject Complement (NP): “you”
- b) Wh-Clause: “What I need”
 - Object (WhP): “What”
 - Clause (S): “I need”
 - Subject (NP): “I”
 - Verb (VP): “need”

Explanation:

- “What I need”: A wh-clause functioning as a noun phrase (NP).

- “is”: The linking verb (copula) connecting the subject and the subject complement.
- “you”: The subject complement (NP) refers to the object of the sentence.
- The subject of the sentence is the wh-clause “What I need”. The wh-word “What” acts as the object of the embedded clause “I need”.
- The verb “is” is a linking verb, connecting the subject (“What I need”) to the subject complement “you”.
- The wh-clause (“What I need”) functions as a noun phrase, acting as the subject of the copular verb “is”.

Tree Diagram:



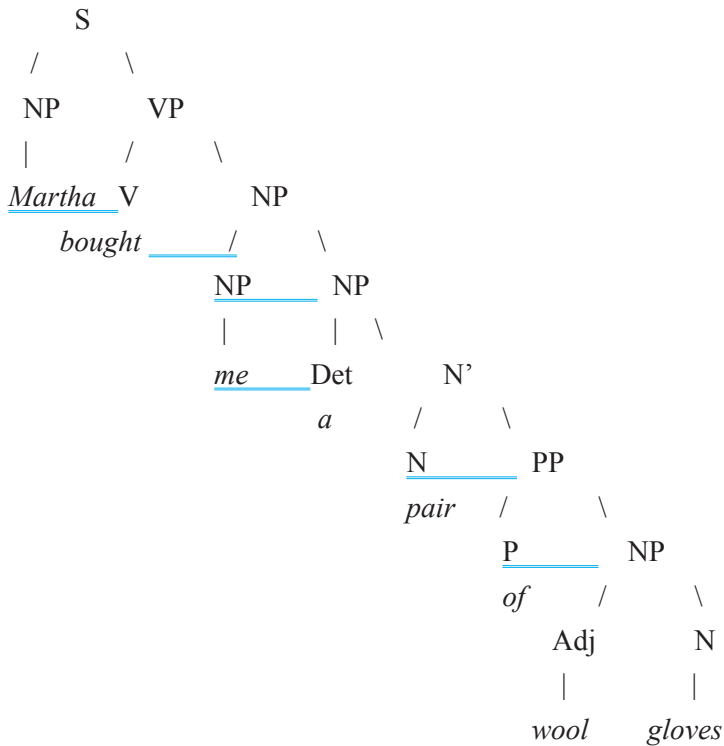
This sentence expresses that “What I need” (a wh-clause) is equivalent to “you” (a noun phrase), hence using a copular construction.

5. Sentence: “Martha bought me a pair of wool gloves.”

Syntactic Analysis:

- Subject (NP): “Martha”
- Verb Phrase (VP): “bought me a pair of wool gloves”
- Verb (V): “bought”
- Indirect Object (NP): “me”
- Direct Object (NP): “a pair of wool gloves”
- Determiner (Det): “a”
- Noun Phrase (N’): “pair of wool gloves”
- Prepositional Phrase (PP): “of wool gloves”
- Noun (N): “gloves”
- Adjective (Adj): “wool”

Tree Diagram:

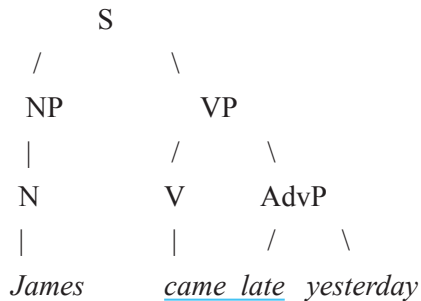


6. Sentence: “James came late yesterday.”

Syntactic Analysis:

- Subject (NP): “James”
- Verb Phrase (VP): “came late yesterday”
- Verb (V): “came”
- Adverbial Phrases (AdvP): “late” and “yesterday”

Tree Diagram:

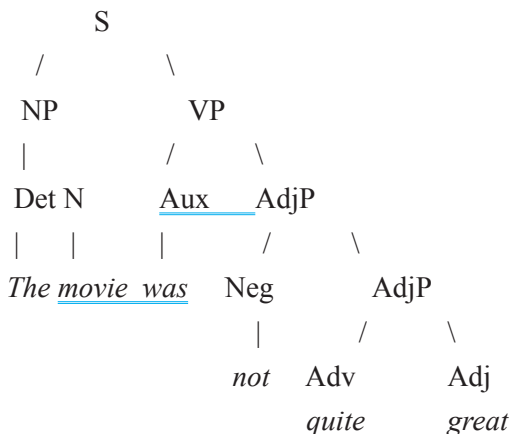


7. Sentence: “The movie was not quite great.”

Syntactic Analysis:

- Subject (NP): “The movie”
- Determiner (Det): “The”
- Noun (N): “movie”
- Verb Phrase (VP): “was not quite great”
- Auxiliary Verb (Aux): “was”
- Negation (Neg): “not”
- Adjective Phrase (AdjP): “quite great”
- Adverb (Adv): “quite”
- Adjective (Adj): “great”

Tree Diagram:

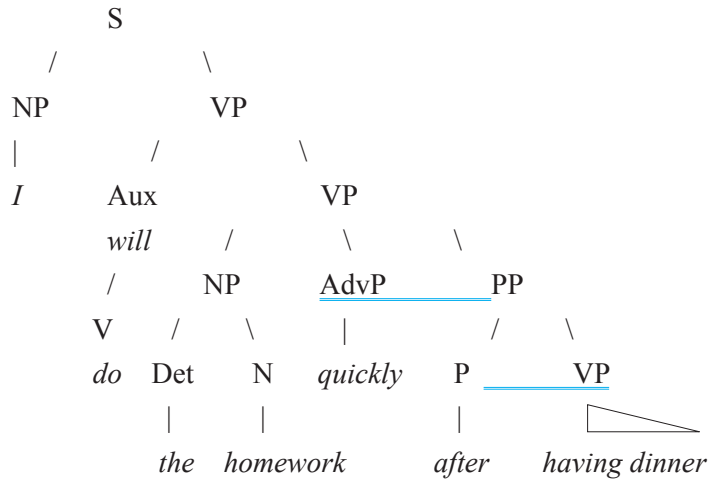


8. Sentence: “I will do the homework quickly after having dinner.”

Syntactic Analysis:

- Subject (NP): “I”
- Verb Phrase (VP): “will do the homework quickly after having dinner”
- Auxiliary Verb (Aux): “will”
- Verb (V): “do”
- Noun Phrase (NP): “the homework”
- Determiner (Det): “the”
- Noun (N): “homework”
- Adverbial Phrase (AdvP): “quickly”
- Prepositional Phrase (PP): “after having dinner”
- Gerund Phrase (V-ing): “having dinner”

Tree Diagram:



9. Sentence: “It seems that you are as smart as her.”

Syntactic Analysis:

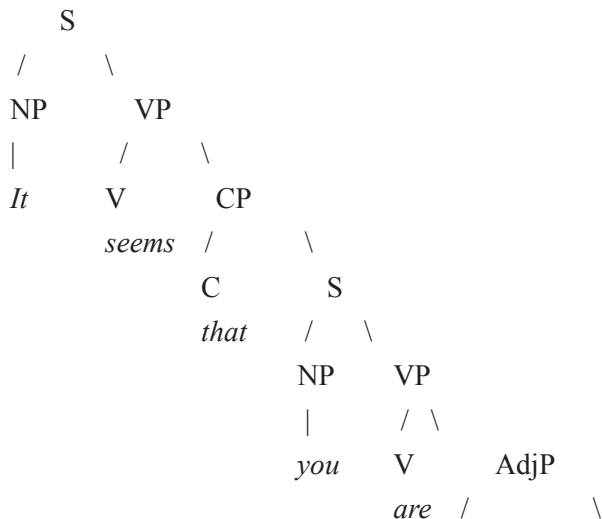
- Main Clause: “It seems”
- Subject (NP): “It”
- Verb Phrase (VP): “seems”
- Verb (V): “seems”
- Subordinate Clause (Complement Clause): “that you are as smart as her”
- Complementizer (C): “that”
- Clause (S): “you are as smart as her”
- Subject (NP): “you”
- Verb Phrase (VP): “are as smart as her”
- Verb (V): “are”
- AdjP (Adjective Phrase): The entire phrase “as smart as hers” functions as an adjective phrase.
- DegP (Degree Phrase): “as ... as” acts as a degree marker, indicating the comparative structure.
- Adj (Adjective): “smart” is the adjective being compared.

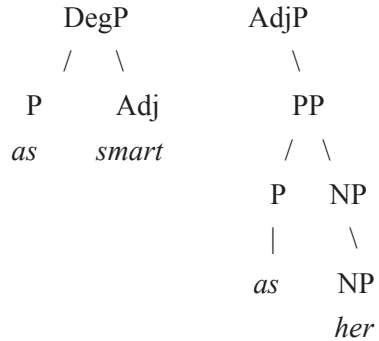
- PP (Prepositional Phrase): The preposition “as” introduces the comparative standard (“hers”).
- NP (Noun Phrase): “hers” is a possessive pronoun that stands in for a noun phrase (“her intelligence” or something similar).

Further Explanation:

- Main Clause (“It seems”)
- “It” functions as a dummy subject in this sentence.
- “seems” is the main verb.
- Subordinate Clause (“that you are as smart as her”):
- The complementizer “that” introduces the subordinate clause.
- “you” is the subject of the subordinate clause.
- “are” is the copular verb linking the subject to the adjective phrase.
- “as smart as her” is an adjective phrase that provides the comparison, with “smart” as the adjective and “as her” as the comparative phrase.

Tree Diagram:





10. Sentence: “Thank you for lending me the car.”

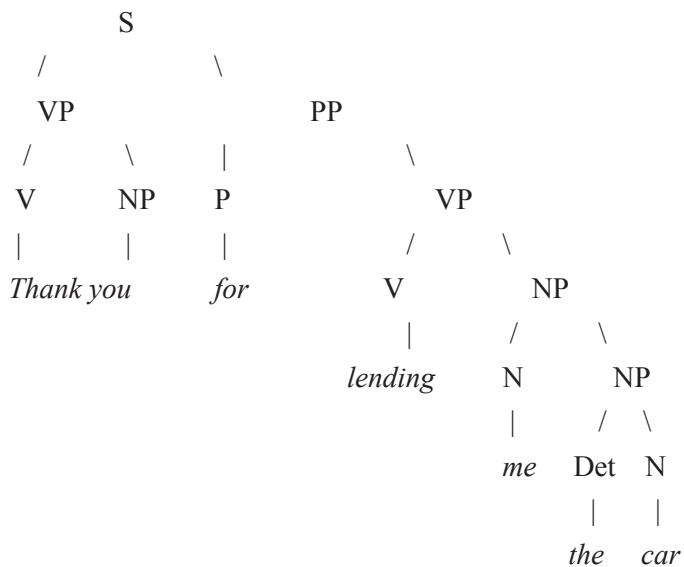
Syntactic Analysis:

- Main Clause: “Thank you”
- Verb Phrase (VP): “Thank you”
- Verb (V): “Thank”
- Object (NP): “you”
- Subordinate Clause: “for lending me the car”
- Prepositional Phrase (PP): “for lending me the car”
- Preposition (P): “for”
- Verb Phrase (VP): “lending me the car”
- Verb (V): “lending”
- Indirect Object (NP): “me”
- Direct Object (NP): “the car”

Further Explanation:

- “for” is the preposition introducing the reason for the thanking.
- “lending” is the verb within the prepositional phrase.
- “me” is the indirect object of the verb “lending”.
- “the car” is the direct object of the verb “lending”.
- The subordinate clause provides the reason for the action in the main clause, introduced by the preposition “for.”

Tree Diagram:



Bab VI

Semantics

Objectives:

1. Students are able to explain the basic concept of semantics.
2. Students are able to identify and differentiate between various types of meaning, including lexical, sentential, and pragmatic meanings.
3. Students are able to analyze and describe semantic relations between words, such as synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, hypernymy, and polysemy.
4. Students are able to practice identifying, interpreting, and creating metaphors to deepen their understanding of this figurative language.

Materials:

1. What semantics is
2. Semantic ambiguity
3. Semantic Lexical relation (Synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, hypernymy, polysemy, and metaphor)

SEMANTICS

A. What is semantics?

Semantics is the part or branch of linguistics. Semantics is a technical term that denotes the examination of meaning (Palmer, 1976), or in other words, semantics is the study of meaning communicated through language (Saeed, 2016). The phrase “meaning” is quite ambiguous. The term “meaning” is employed in everyday English to describe a variety of concepts, including the concept or intention that underpins a piece of language, the object to which it refers, and the translation of words between languages (Riemer, 2010).

In real life, there are two key areas of study that look into what words mean: semantics and pragmatics. Semantics examines the literal meaning of words and their structural combinations, establishing the core meaning—or starting point—from which the full message is built (Kearns, 2017). Conversely, pragmatics studies how this baseline meaning is expanded, enriched, or modified by context to understand the speaker’s actual intent (Kearns, 2017).

To understand the meaning based on semantics and pragmatics perspective, let’s examine a sentence below;

“Can you open the window?”

Semantics perspective

- Semantics focuses on the literal meaning of the words and the sentence structure.
- Literal meaning: The sentence is a question that asks whether the listener has the ability to perform the action of opening the window, or the speaker is directly asking the listener if they have the ability and willingness to physically open the window.
- Key elements:
“Can” refers to the capability or possibility of the listener to perform the action.

“Open” refers to the action of making the window go from a closed state to an open one.

“The window” identifies the specific object the action is to be applied to.

- Semantic Roles:
 - Agent : The listener (implied)
 - Action : To open
 - Patient : The window
- Proposition: The listener has the ability to open the window.

Pragmatics perspective

While the literal meaning suggests a simple inquiry about ability, the pragmatic interpretation often goes beyond this. The speaker’s intent and the context in which the sentence is uttered play crucial roles.

- Implicature:
 - Request: The speaker is likely requesting the listener to open the window, rather than simply asking about their ability. This is a common pragmatic phenomenon known as “requesting with ‘can.’”
 - Politeness: Using “can” instead of a more direct command (“Open the window!”) can be seen as a politeness strategy, as it softens the request.
 - Relationship between speaker and listener: If there’s a familiarity or hierarchical relationship (e.g., a teacher asking a student, or one friend asking another), the sentence is more clearly understood as a request.
- Tone and context: The context can significantly influence the interpretation:

The way the sentence is delivered (tone of voice, body language) and the situation can further indicate that this is a request rather than a literal question about ability.

For examples:

- Hot weather: The speaker might be requesting the window to be opened to let in cooler air.
- Smelly food: The speaker might want to eliminate an unpleasant odour.
- Conversation topic: If the conversation is about windows or the weather, the request might be more straightforward.
- Presupposition: The sentence presupposes that there is a window and that the listener is capable of opening it.

In conclusion, while the literal meaning of “Can you open the window?” is straightforward, the pragmatic interpretation often involves an implied request or a polite suggestion. The exact meaning can vary depending on the context and the speaker’s intent.

Discussion (Semantics and Pragmatics Perspective)

Now, discuss with your partner the meaning of the sentences below based on the semantics and pragmatics perspective;

1. Can you pass the salt?
2. I forgot to bring my wallet.
3. The weather is nice today.
4. Can I have your number?
5. Your lunch looks delicious.

B. Semantics Ambiguity

From the discussion above, we understand that the meaning of a certain word, phrase, or sentence may be varied. The diversity in meaning can be called as the meaning ambiguity. Based on Hudson (2000), ambiguity occurs when a form has multiple interpretations. There are two types of ambiguous language: lexical ambiguity and structural ambiguity, which can change the meaning of words, phrases, or sentences. Multiple interpretations are strongly influenced by context. The level of ambiguity in a word’s meaning is determined

by the range of circumstances in which it can be used. From this perspective, lexicographers give a limited number of distinct meanings to terms in order to separate the continuous and context-dependent variations (Hoffman, P. et al, 2013). In conclusion, semantic ambiguity occurs when a word, phrase, or sentence can have multiple meanings due to the inherent ambiguity of the language itself. This ambiguity can arise from various factors, such as lexical, syntactical or structural, and referential. Therefore, there are some types of semantic ambiguity. Those are:

1. *Lexical Ambiguity*

This type of ambiguity happens when a single word has multiple meanings.

- Polysemy: A single word having multiple related meanings. For example, “bank” can refer to a financial institution or the edge of a river. Sentence “I went to the bank” can be ambiguous; did the person go the financial institution or the side of a river?
- Homonymy: Words that sound or are spelled the same but have unrelated meanings. For example, “bear” can mean a large, furry animal or to endure something.
- Homography: Words that are spelled the same but have different meanings and pronunciations. For example, “lead” can refer to a heavy metal or the act of guiding or directing.

2. *Structural (or Syntactic) Ambiguity*

This type of ambiguity arises when the structure of a sentence allows for multiple interpretations, even if the words themselves are not ambiguous. For example, a sentence “Visiting relatives can be annoying.” could mean that the act of visiting relatives is annoying, or that having relatives visit is annoying. Another example, the sentence “I saw the man with the telescope” can mean either that the speaker used a telescope to see the man or that the man they saw was carrying a telescope.

3. *Scope Ambiguity*

Scope ambiguity occurs when it is unclear how certain words or phrases apply to other parts of the sentence. For example, “Every student loves some teacher” could mean that every student loves at least one teacher, or it could mean that there is one specific teacher that every student loves.

4. *Referential Ambiguity*

Anaphoric ambiguity occurs when a pronoun or noun refers to multiple possible antecedents. For example, in the sentence “The dog saw the cat and chased it”, the pronoun “it” could refer to either the dog or the cat.

Semantic ambiguity can lead to misunderstandings and confusion in communication. To avoid ambiguity, it is often necessary to provide additional context or to rephrase the sentence in a clearer way. However, semantic ambiguity is important, because of some aspects, such as:

- Communication challenges: In everyday conversation or writing, semantic ambiguity can lead to misunderstandings if the context does not clarify the meaning.
- Literary and rhetorical use: Writers and speakers sometimes use semantic ambiguity intentionally to add layers of meaning, humour, or irony to their work.
- Language processing: For fields like linguistics, artificial intelligence, and natural language processing (NLP), dealing with semantic ambiguity is a significant challenge because understanding the correct meaning often requires contextual knowledge.

In order to resolve the ambiguity, there are several things we need to consider. They are:

- Context: Often, the surrounding text or situation helps clarify which meaning is intended.
- Rephrasing: Rewriting a sentence to eliminate ambiguity can also resolve the issue.

- Additional information: Providing more details or using specific terms can reduce or eliminate ambiguity.

Discussion 1

Discuss with your partner to explore how different interpretations can arise from the same sentence, highlighting the importance of context and careful wording in communication.

1. “The professor said the student’s presentation was shocking.”
2. Ambiguity: Was the presentation surprising in a good or bad way? Or was it shocking in terms of content?
3. “I saw the man with the telescope.”
4. Ambiguity: Does the man have the telescope, or did the speaker use the telescope to see the man?
5. “The bat was flying out of the cave.”
6. Ambiguity: Does the bat in the sentence refer to a baseball bat or a flying mammal?
7. “She told him that she would give the lecture.”
8. Ambiguity: Did she tell him she would be the one giving the lecture, or did she tell him that she would inform someone else about the lecture?
9. “The light was too bright.”
10. Ambiguity: Is the light referring to a physical light source, or is it being used metaphorically to mean something is too obvious or intense?

Discussion 2

Discuss with your partner to find 5 more examples of semantic ambiguity, and elaborate each of them.

C. Semantic Lexical Relations

After we discussed the semantics ambiguity in sentences, now, let’s discuss the lexical relation in micro level, such as in word or phrase level. These relations influence how people understand the meaning

of the word. Those are synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, hypernymy, and polysemy.

1. *Synonymy*

A synonym is a word or phrase that has the same or nearly the same meaning as another word or phrase in the same language. As stated by Palmer (1976), a synonym is a term used to denote “sameness in meaning”. Synonyms can be used interchangeably in many contexts, although there may be subtle differences in connotation, intensity, or formality that make one synonym more appropriate than another in certain situations.

a. Key Points about Synonyms

1) Similarity in Meaning

- Synonyms share similar meanings, but they are not always identical in every context. The nuance of meaning might change depending on how the word is used.
- Example: The words “happy” and “joyful” are synonyms because they both convey a sense of positive emotion. However, “joyful” might imply a stronger, more intense feeling than “happy.”

2) Context Matters

- Even though two words are synonyms, they might not be completely interchangeable in every context due to differences in connotation, formality, or usage.
- Example: “buy” and “purchase” are synonyms, but “purchase” is more formal than “buy.” You might say, “I need to buy groceries,” but “I need to purchase groceries” could sound more formal or business-like.

3) Connotation

- Synonyms can have different connotations or implied meanings, even if they are technically similar.

- Example: “childlike” and “childish” both relate to children, but “childlike” has a positive connotation (innocence, simplicity), whereas “childish” has a negative connotation (immaturity, petulance).

4) Register and Formality

- Some synonyms differ in terms of register (the level of formality or informality).
- Example: “ask” and “inquire” are synonyms, but “inquire” is more formal than “ask.”

5) Partial Synonyms

- Not all synonyms are perfect equivalents. Some may overlap in meaning in certain contexts but differ in others.
- Example: “big” and “large” are often used interchangeably, but “large” is less likely to be used in some idiomatic expressions like “a big deal.”

6) Examples of Synonyms

- Begin and start
- End and conclude
- Talk and speak
- Quick and fast
- Beautiful and attractive

b. Why Are Synonyms Important?

- 1) Variety in writing and speech: using synonyms allows writers and speakers to avoid repetition and keep their language varied and interesting.
- 2) Precision in communication: synonyms help in selecting the most appropriate word for a specific context, allowing for more precise and nuanced communication.
- 3) Expanding vocabulary: learning synonyms is a great way to expand one’s vocabulary, providing more options for expression and understanding.

c. Exercises

Find the meaning and synonym of the following words;

- 1) Power
- 2) Work
- 3) Beautiful
- 4) Bring
- 5) Innocent
- 6) Smart
- 7) Expensive
- 8) Close
- 9) Study
- 10) Read

Replace the underlined word with the synonym, ensure the sentence retains its meaning.

- 1) The students study hard for the final exam.
- 2) The stargazer discovered a new star during their observation last week.
- 3) The company requires all the new interns to attend the event.
- 4) He completed his homework before the deadline.
- 5) She bought a new sport car last month.
- 6) The teacher explained the concept clearly.
- 7) I decided to go to Labuhan Bajo for my vacation.
- 8) The baby slept peacefully through the night.
- 9) He started his new job on Friday.
- 10) He informed his supervisor about the issue he found.

Discussion

Discuss how different synonyms for a word might carry different connotations and how that affects the sentence.

1. Original: She is very thin.
Synonym: She is very slender. (positive connotation, implied grace and elegance)

Synonym: She is very skinny. (negative connotation, implied unhealthy)

2. Original: The house is cheap.
Synonym: The house is affordable.
Synonym: The house is shabby.
3. Original: He is very confident in his abilities.
Synonym: He is very self-assured in his abilities.
Synonym: He is very arrogant about his abilities.
4. Original: She is stubborn about her opinion.
Synonym: She is determined about her opinion.
Synonym: She is obstinate about her opinion.
5. Original: The new manager is very strict.
Synonym: The new manager is very disciplined.
Synonym: The new manager is very harsh.
6. Original: He is a very curious child
Synonym: He is a very inquisitive child.
Synonym: He is a very nosy child.

In summary, synonyms are words with similar meanings, but their exact usage can vary depending on context, connotation, and formality. However, there are no genuine synonyms, implying that no two words have precisely the same meaning (Palmer, 1976). Understanding synonyms is key to effective communication and enriched language use.

2. *Antonymy*

Smith (1879) created the term “antonymy” to refer to the opposite of “synonymy”. Since 1867, numerous endeavours have been made to provide a precise definition for “antonymy”. However, the issue lies in the fact that the definition of antonymy tends to rely more on

providing examples rather than offering a concise description (Gao C. & Zheng Q., 2014). According to Lyons (1977), an “antonym” refers to words that have opposite meanings, whereas “antonymy” refers to the state of being opposed between words. Jones et.al. (2012) suggests that antonymy is the term used to describe the relationship between lexical words in a given context that are recognised as having opposite meanings. Antonymy refers to the relationship between words that have opposite meanings. It is a type of semantic relationship that plays a crucial role in understanding language, as it helps to clarify and contrast ideas.

a. Types of Antonyms

Antonyms can be classified into several categories based on the nature of their opposition:

- 1) Gradable antonyms: These antonyms represent opposite ends of a spectrum, with various degrees of difference in between. For example:

- Hot vs. Cold
- Big vs. Small
- Young vs. Old

Gradable antonyms allow for comparative and superlative forms (e.g., hotter, colder, etc.) and can often be modified by words like “very” or “slightly.”

- 2) Complementary antonyms: In this type, the two words are mutually exclusive, meaning that if one exists, the other cannot. There is no middle ground between them. Examples include:

- Alive vs. Dead
- True vs. False
- Pass vs. Fail

With complementary antonyms, something is either one or the other, without any intermediate states.

- 3) Relational antonyms: These antonyms express relationships from opposite perspectives. Each word in the pair is dependent on the existence of the other. Examples include:

- Teacher vs. Student
- Buy vs. Sell
- Parent vs. Child

Relational antonyms often describe roles, functions, or actions that are inherently connected.

b. Importance of Antonymy in Language

- 1) Contrast: Antonyms provide a clear way to express contrasts in meaning, helping to define concepts more precisely.
- 2) Contextual understanding: Understanding antonyms can enhance comprehension, as recognizing what something is *not* can clarify what it *is*.
- 3) Expressiveness: Using antonyms enriches language, allowing speakers and writers to articulate thoughts more vividly by highlighting differences.

c. Examples in Usage

Consider the sentence: “The room was *warm*, not *cold*.” Here, the antonyms “warm” and “cold” are used to establish a clear contrast, making the meaning more specific and emphasizing the speaker’s point. Antonymy is a fundamental aspect of semantics, playing a vital role in communication, language learning, and cognitive processes related to language comprehension and production.

d. Exercise

Find the antonym of the following words, and identify the type of its antonym;

- 1) Happy
Antonym: Sad
Type: gradable antonym

Explanation: “happy” and “sad” are opposites on a spectrum of emotions, with varying degrees of happiness and sadness possible.

2) Success

Antonym:

Type:

Explanation:

3) Strong

Antonym:

Type:

Explanation:

4) Male

Antonym:

Type:

Explanation:

5) Present

Antonym:

Type:

Explanation:

6) Lend

Antonym:

Type:

Explanation:

7) Slow

Antonym:

Type:

Explanation:

- 8) Bright
Antonym:
Type:
Explanation:
- 9) Employer
Antonym:
Type:
Explanation:
- 10) Allow
Antonym:
Type:
Explanation:
- 11) Husband
Antonym:
Type:
Explanation:

3. *Hyponymy and Hypernymy*

Hyponymy is a semantic relationship between words where the meaning of one word (the hyponym) is included within the meaning of another word (the hypernym or superordinate). As stated by Cruse (1986), hyponymy is the lexical relationship where one category is contained within another. In simpler terms, a hyponym is a more specific word within a category, and the hypernym is the general term for that category. For example, “rose” is a hyponym of “flower,” because a rose is a specific type of flower, and “cat” is a hyponym of “feline” and “animal”, because cat is a specific type of feline and animal. In this case, flower, feline, and animal can be categorized as general term or hypernym.

a. Characteristics

- 1) Inclusion relationship: Hyponymy is characterized by an “is a type of” relationship. If you can say “X is a type of Y,” then X is a hyponym of Y. For instance, “sparrow” is a type of “bird,” so “sparrow” is a hyponym of “bird”, and “bird” is the hypernym of “sparrow”.
- 2) Hierarchy: Hyponymy establishes a hierarchical relationship in language, where the hypernym sits at a higher level of abstraction, and the hyponyms fall under it as specific instances. For example, “animal” is a hypernym that includes hyponyms like “dog,” “cat,” and “elephant.”
- 3) Transitivity: The relationship is transitive. If “A” is a hyponym of “B,” and “B” is a hyponym of “C,” then “A” is also a hyponym of “C.” For example, “terrier” is a hyponym of “dog,” and “dog” is a hyponym of “animal.” Therefore, “terrier” is a hyponym of “animal.”
- 4) Mutual exclusivity: Hyponyms under the same hypernym are mutually exclusive. For instance, “rose” and “tulip” are both hyponyms of “flower”, but they are distinct from each other; a rose is not a tulip, and vice versa.

b. Examples

- Fruit (Hypernym): apple, banana, orange, mango (Hyponyms)
- Vehicle (Hypernym): car, bus, motorcycle, bicycle (Hyponyms)
- Clothing (Hypernym): shirt, pants, dress, jacket (Hyponyms)
- Music (Hypernym): jazz, rock, classical, hip-hop (Hyponyms)

c. Exercise

Find at least five hyponyms of each hypernym below

- 1) Home appliance:
- 2) Reptile:
- 3) Film genre:
- 4) Tropical fruit;
- 5) Tableware:

d. Discussion Activity

(Exploring Synonym, Hyponymy, Hypernymy, and Semantic Properties)

Instructions:

- 1) Form Groups: *Divide into small discussion groups of 3-4 students.*
- 2) Topic Exploration: *Within your group, select one of the following sets of words to analyze, each group should select the different set.*
 - Set 1: “kill,” “murder,” “assassinate,” “slaughter,” “butcher”
 - Set 2: “group,” “pack,” “school,” “team,” “squad”
 - Set 3: “speak,” “tell,” “say,” “utter”
 - Set 4: “home,” “house,” “residence,” “dwelling,” “abode”
 - Set 5: “happy,” “joyful,” “content,” “ecstatic,” “pleased”
 - Set 6: “job,” “occupation,” “career,” “vocation,” “profession”
 - Set 7: “walk,” “stroll,” “stride,” “march,” “saunter”
 - Set 8: “look,” “glance,” “stare,” “gaze,” “peek”
- 3) Discussion Points:
 - Hyponymy and Hypernymy: *Identify the hypernym (general term) and the hyponyms (specific instances) in your chosen set of words. Discuss how the meanings of the hyponyms are related to the hypernym.*
 - Connotation: *Explore the connotations (emotional or cultural associations) of each word in your set. How do these connotations affect the choice of word in different contexts?*
 - Semantic properties: *Discuss the semantic properties (features that distinguish meaning) of each word. What subtle differences in meaning do these properties reveal about each hyponym?*

4) Group Analysis:

- Compare how different words within the set carry specific connotations or are used in particular contexts, despite being related through hyponymy.
- Consider why certain words might be more appropriate in formal or informal settings, or in conveying specific emotions or actions.

5) Present Your Findings:

- After your discussion, prepare a brief presentation summarizing your group's analysis. Be ready to explain the relationship between the words, their connotations, and their semantic properties.

6) Class Discussion:

- Share your group's findings with the class. Engage with other groups by asking questions and discussing the similarities and differences between the word sets.

4. *Polysemy*

Polysemy refers to the phenomenon where a single word has multiple related meanings. Unlike homonyms, which have completely different meanings despite being spelled or pronounced the same, polysemous words share a common root or base meaning that branches out into different but related senses.

It is important to distinguish polysemy from homonymy and vagueness. Homonymy occurs when two or more words share the same form but have different meanings, such as “bank” meaning both “a slope or elevation” and “a financial institution.” Unlike homonymy, where the meanings are spread across different words, polysemy involves multiple meanings within the same word. The difference between vagueness and polysemy hinges on whether a specific aspect of meaning is inherently part of the word's semantic structure or if it

arises from the context in which the word is used, making it a matter of pragmatics (Geeraerts, 2017).

Polysemy is a key feature of language that enriches communication by allowing a single word to convey multiple related meanings. Understanding polysemy is essential for interpreting language correctly, as it highlights the importance of context in determining a word's intended sense.

a. Characteristics

1) Related meanings

The different meanings of a polysemous word are connected by a core idea or concept. For example, the word “bank” can refer to the side of a river or a financial institution, both of which involve the concept of storing or holding something.

2) Contextual flexibility

Polysemous words rely heavily on context to convey the correct meaning. The surrounding words and the situation determine which meaning of the word is intended.

3) Common in language

Polysemy is common in natural languages because it promotes linguistic efficiency. Instead of inventing a new word for each concept, a single word can develop to represent multiple related ideas.

4) Potential for ambiguity

Polysemous words can sometimes lead to ambiguity, especially in written texts where context might not be as clear. This can result in confusion if the intended meaning is not easily inferred from the context.

b. Examples in Sentences

1) “Head”:

- **Physical meaning:** *She had a headache, so she rested her head on the pillow.*

- Leadership role: *John is the head of the marketing department.*
- Top or leading part: *They reached the head of the mountain trail.*

2) “Book”:

- Physical object: *She borrowed a book from the library.*
- Reservation: *I need to book a table at the restaurant for tonight.*
- Record or register: *The police booked him for speeding.*

3) “Light”:

- Illumination: *The room was filled with light from the window.*
- Not heavy: *This bag is light enough to carry with one hand.*
- Understanding: *Her explanation brought light to the complex topic.*

4) “Charge”:

- To ask for payment: *The hotel will charge you for any extra services.*
- To attack: *The soldiers were ordered to charge the enemy.*
- To power up: *Please charge your phone before leaving.*

c. Discussion Activity (Exploring Polysemy in Language)

Instruction:

Divide the class into small groups of 3-4 people, find an example of polysemous word, then discuss these points.

Discussion Points:

- Identify the meanings: *For each word in your list, identify at least three different meanings. Use example sentences to illustrate each meaning.*
- Contextual analysis: *Discuss how context determines which meaning of the word is intended. Consider how*

the surrounding words or the situation clarify the word's meaning.

- Connection between meanings: *Explore the relationship between the different meanings of the word. How are they conceptually linked? Why might these meanings have developed from a single word?*

5. Metaphor

A metaphor is a figure of speech that directly compares two unlike things by stating that one is the other, thereby highlighting a shared characteristic or quality. Unlike similes, which use “like” or “as” for comparison, metaphors assert that one thing *is* another, creating a more direct and often more powerful association. As stated by Knowles and Moon (2006), a metaphor is a form of figurative language that expresses or represents a meaning different from the literal interpretation of the words used. Essentially, it involves using certain words to describe something other than their original or literal meaning in order to highlight a similarity or establish a connection between two concepts. A conceptual metaphor functions as an analogy, mapping connections between two seemingly unrelated concepts that share an underlying, meaningful similarity (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980).

Metaphors are a powerful linguistic tool that enhances communication by linking seemingly unrelated concepts to reveal deeper meanings. They are used across various forms of expression, from everyday conversation to literature, providing a way to convey complex ideas and emotions more vividly and effectively. Understanding metaphor is essential for appreciating the richness and creativity of language.

a. Characteristics

- 1) Implicit comparison: Metaphors do not use comparative words like “like” or “as.” Instead, they imply the comparison by directly equating two things (e.g., “Time is a thief”).

- 2) **Figurative language:** Metaphors rely on figurative rather than literal language. The comparison made by a metaphor is not meant to be taken literally, but rather to convey a deeper or symbolic meaning.
- 3) **Conceptual connection:** Metaphors link two concepts that are usually unrelated, revealing an underlying similarity. For example, calling someone a “shining star” suggests they are outstanding or admirable, not that they are literally a star.
- 4) **Emotional and imaginative impact:** Metaphors can evoke strong imagery and emotions, making abstract concepts more relatable and understandable. They are often used in literature, speeches, and everyday language to add depth and resonance to the message.

b. Types of Metaphors

- 1) **Standard Metaphor:** A simple and direct comparison between two things.
 - *Example:* “The world is a stage.”
- 2) **Implied Metaphor:** The comparison is not explicitly stated but is implied through context.
 - *Example:* “He barked orders at the team,” implies that the person is being compared to a dog.
- 3) **Extended Metaphor:** A metaphor that is developed over several lines or throughout an entire work, exploring the comparison in more detail.
 - *Example:* In Shakespeare’s “*As You Like It*,” the extended metaphor “All the world’s a stage” is developed throughout a monologue, comparing life to a play.
- 4) **Mixed Metaphor:** A combination of two or more metaphors that are often illogical or incongruous when combined.
 - *Example:* “We’ll burn that bridge when we come to it,” mixes “crossing a bridge” and “burning bridges,” creating a humorous or confusing effect.

- 5) Dead Metaphor: A metaphor that has been used so frequently that it has lost its figurative meaning and is now taken literally.

■ *Example:* “Foot of the bed,” originally metaphorical, is now a common expression with little thought given to its metaphorical origin.

c. Examples in Sentences

- 1) Standard Metaphor: “Time is a thief that steals our moments.”
- 2) Implied Metaphor: “She sailed through her exams,” implying that her experience was smooth and successful like a ship sailing through calm waters.
- 3) Extended Metaphor: “Life is a journey with its twists and turns, ups and downs, and unforeseen detours, each step taking us closer to our final destination.”
- 4) Mixed Metaphor: “He’s skating on thin ice while trying to climb the corporate ladder.”
- 5) Dead Metaphor: “The head of the committee opened the meeting,” where “head” originally metaphorically referred to the leader, but is now standard usage.

d. Exercise (Understanding and Identifying Metaphor)

- 1) Identifying metaphor

Identify the metaphor in each sentence and explain what it means.

- a) The classroom is a zoo.
Metaphor:
Meaning:
- b) Her voice is music to my ears.
Metaphor:
Meaning:
- c) The world is a stage, and we are merely players.
Metaphor:
Meaning:

Buku ini tidak diperjualbelikan

- d) His heart is a cold iron.
 Metaphor:
 Meaning:
- e) Time is a thief that steal our youth.
 Metaphor:
 Meaning:

2) Interpreting extended metaphor

Read the following passage, which contains an extended metaphor. After reading, describe how the metaphor works and what it conveys about the subject.

“Life is a journey. We all have our paths to follow, with winding roads and steep hills to climb. Sometimes, we get lost, take a wrong turn, or encounter unexpected detours. But every step forward brings us closer to our destination.”

Questions:

- a) What is the extended metaphor in this passage?
 b) How does the metaphor of life as a journey help the reader understand the challenges and experiences of life?
 c) Provide an example of how the journey metaphor might apply to a specific situation (e.g., graduating from school, starting a new job, etc.).
- 3) Creating your own metaphor
- Create your own metaphors based on the following prompts. Write a sentence using a metaphor for each prompt and explain what the metaphor means.*
- a) Prompt: Describe a difficult challenge.
 Your Metaphor:
 Explanation:
- b) Prompt: Describe a close friend.
 Your Metaphor:
 Explanation:

- c) Prompt: Describe a happy memory.
Your Metaphor:
Explanation:
- d) Prompt: Describe a stressful situation.
Your Metaphor:
Explanation:
- e) Prompt: Describe a peaceful place.
Your Metaphor:
Explanation:

4) Analysing Famous Metaphors

Below are famous metaphors from literature, speeches, and songs. Analyze each metaphor by explaining what it suggests about the subject.

- a) *“Hope is the thing with feathers that perches in the soul.”* – Emily Dickinson
Analysis:
- b) *“All the world’s a stage, and all the men and women merely players.”* – William Shakespeare
Analysis:
- c) *“The mind is a garden, which may be cultivated.”* -- Joseph Addison
Analysis:
- d) *“You are the light of my life.”* – Song Lyric
Analysis:
- e) *“America is a melting pot.”* – Popular Saying
Analysis:

ANSWER KEYS

A. Discussion (Semantics and Pragmatics Perspective)

Now, discuss with your partner the meaning of the sentences below based on the semantics and pragmatics perspective;

1. Can you pass the salt?
 - Semantics:
 - Literal meaning: The sentence asks if the listener has the ability to pass the salt.
 - Key elements: “can” (ability), “pass” (transfer), “the salt” (object).
 - Pragmatics:
 - Contextual meaning: The sentence is typically understood as a polite request for the listener to pass the salt, not a literal inquiry about their ability.
 - Key factors: Tone, context (likely at a dining table), and social norms.
2. I forgot to bring my wallet.
 - Semantics:
 - Literal meaning: The speaker is stating that they failed to remember to bring their wallet with them.
 - Key elements: “forgot” (failure to remember), “bring” (carry with oneself), “wallet” (object).
 - Pragmatics:
 - Contextual meaning: Depending on the context, the speaker might be indirectly implying they need help (e.g., someone else to pay) or apologizing for the inconvenience.
 - Key factors: Situation (e.g., at a store or restaurant) and possible implied request for assistance.

3. The weather is nice today.
- Semantics:
 - Literal meaning: The speaker is making an observation that the weather conditions today are pleasant.
 - Key elements: “weather” (atmospheric conditions), “nice” (pleasant), “today” (specific day).
 - Pragmatics:
 - Contextual meaning: This could be a simple statement about the weather, or it could be a conversation starter or an attempt to shift the topic of conversation.
 - Key factors: Context of the conversation, whether it’s an icebreaker, or simply making small talk.
4. Can I have your number?
- Semantics:
 - Literal meaning: The speaker is asking if it is possible for them to obtain the listener’s phone number.
 - Key elements: “can” (ability/permission), “have” (obtain), “your number” (phone number).
 - Pragmatics:
 - Contextual meaning: The sentence is often a polite request to exchange contact information, typically implying interest in further communication.
 - Key factors: The context of the conversation (e.g., social or professional setting), tone, and intent behind the request.
5. Your lunch looks delicious.
- Semantics:
 - Literal meaning: The speaker is making an observation that the listener’s lunch appears appetizing.
 - Key elements: “lunch” (meal), “looks” (appearance), “delicious” (tasty).

- Pragmatics:
 - Contextual meaning: This could be a compliment, an expression of interest in the food, or even an indirect way of hinting that the speaker would like to try it.
 - Key factors: The relationship between the speaker and listener, the situation (e.g., sharing a meal or discussing food).

C.c. 1. Find the meaning and synonym of the following words.

1. Power
 - Meaning: The ability or capacity to do something or act in a particular way; control, authority, or influence over others.
 - Synonyms: Strength, authority, influence, control, energy.
2. Work
 - Meaning: Activity involving mental or physical effort done to achieve a purpose or result; employment or occupation.
 - Synonyms: Labor, effort, job, task, employment.
3. Beautiful
 - Meaning: Pleasing the senses or mind aesthetically; having qualities that delight or appeal.
 - Synonyms: Attractive, lovely, gorgeous, stunning, exquisite.
4. Bring
 - Meaning: To take or carry something or someone to a place or person.
 - Synonyms: Carry, fetch, deliver, transport, convey.
5. Innocent
 - Meaning: Not guilty of a crime or offense; free from moral wrong or sin; pure.
 - Synonyms: Blameless, guiltless, pure, naive, harmless.
6. Smart
 - Meaning: Having or showing a quick-witted intelligence; clean, neat, and well-dressed.

- Synonyms: Intelligent, clever, bright, sharp, astute.
- 7. Expensive
 - Meaning: Costing a lot of money; having a high price.
 - Synonyms: Costly, pricey, high-priced, lavish, extravagant.
- 8. Close
 - Meaning: To shut something or bring it to an end; near in space or time.
 - Synonyms: Shut, seal, end, finish, nearby.
- 9. Study
 - Meaning: The devotion of time and attention to acquiring knowledge on an academic subject; a detailed examination and analysis of a subject or situation.
 - Synonyms: Learn, research, examine, analyze, investigate.
- 10. Read
 - Meaning: To look at and comprehend the meaning of written or printed matter; to interpret or understand a piece of text or data.
 - Synonyms: Peruse, scan, interpret, decipher, comprehend.

C.c.2. Replace the underlined word with the synonym, ensure the sentence retains its meaning.

1. The students learn hard for the final exam.
2. The stargazer found a new star during their observation last week.
3. The company demands all the new interns to attend the event.
4. He finished his homework before the deadline.
5. She purchased a new sports car last month.
6. The teacher clarified the concept clearly.
7. I chose to go to Labuhan Bajo for my vacation.
8. The baby rested peacefully through the night.
9. He began his new job on Friday.
10. He notified his supervisor about the issue he found.

C.d. Discussion

Discuss how different synonyms for a word might carry different connotations and how that affects the sentence.

1. Original: She is very thin.
Synonym: She is very slender. (*Positive connotation: implies grace or elegance.*)
Synonym: She is very skinny. (*Negative connotation: might imply being too thin or unhealthy.*)
2. Original: The house is cheap.
Synonym: The house is affordable. (*Positive connotation: implies good value for money.*)
Synonym: The house is shabby. (*Negative connotation: implies poor quality.*)
3. Original: He is very confident in his abilities.
Synonym: He is very self-assured in his abilities. (*Positive connotation: suggests healthy confidence.*)
Synonym: He is very arrogant about his abilities. (*Negative connotation: implies overconfidence or pride.*)
4. Original: She is stubborn about her opinion.
Synonym: She is determined about her opinion. (*Positive connotation: suggests perseverance.*)
Synonym: She is obstinate about her opinion. (*Negative connotation: implies unreasonable stubbornness.*)
5. Original: The new manager is very strict.
Synonym: The new manager is very disciplined. (*Positive connotation: implies strong self-control and order.*)
Synonym: The new manager is very harsh. (*Negative connotation: implies a lack of compassion or fairness.*)
6. Original: He's a very curious child.
Synonym: He's a very inquisitive child. (*Positive connotation: suggests a healthy desire to learn.*)

Synonym: He's a very nosy child. (*Negative connotation: implies intrusiveness.*)

2.a.d. Exercise

Find the antonym of the following words, and identify the type of its antonym.

1. Success

- Antonym: Failure
- Type: Complementary antonym
- Explanation: The relationship between “success” and “failure” is binary; if one does not succeed, they fail. The existence of one implies the absence of the other.

2. Strong

- Antonym: Weak
- Type: Gradable antonym
- Explanation: “Strong” and “weak” are gradable antonyms because they represent opposite ends of a spectrum. The strength can vary in degrees, so someone can be stronger or weaker than another.

3. Male

- Antonym: Female
- Type: Complementary antonym
- Explanation: “Male” and “female” are complementary antonyms because they represent mutually exclusive categories. A person or animal is either male or female, with no overlap between the two.

4. Present

- Antonym: Absent
- Type: Complementary antonym
- Explanation: The terms “present” and “absent” are complementary because they define the presence or absence

of something or someone. One excludes the possibility of the other.

5. Lend

- Antonym: Borrow
- Type: Relational antonym
- Explanation: “Lend” and “borrow” are relational antonyms because they describe the same action from opposite perspectives. One person lends, and the other borrows, forming a reciprocal relationship.

6. Slow

- Antonym: Fast
- Type: Gradable antonym
- Explanation: “Slow” and “fast” are gradable antonyms because they represent opposite ends of a continuum. Speed can vary, allowing for degrees of slowness or fastness.

7. Bright

- Antonym: Dim
- Type: Gradable antonym
- Explanation: “Bright” and “dim” are gradable antonyms because they represent varying degrees of light intensity. The brightness can increase or decrease, creating a spectrum.

8. Employer

- Antonym: Employee
- Type: Relational antonym
- Explanation: “Employer” and “employee” are relational antonyms because they represent opposite roles in a work relationship. One hires, and the other is hired, forming a reciprocal relationship.

9. Allow

- Antonym: Forbid
- Type: Complementary antonym

- Explanation: “Allow” and “forbid” are complementary antonyms because they represent opposite actions concerning permission. If something is allowed, it is not forbidden, and vice versa.

10. Husband

- Antonym: Wife
- Type: Relational antonym
- Explanation: “Husband” and “wife” are relational antonyms because they represent opposite roles within a marital relationship. Each term defines the relationship from a different gendered perspective.

C.3.c. Find at least five hyponyms of each hypernym below.

1. Home appliance; refrigerator, washing machine, microwave, air conditioner, dishwasher
2. Reptile; snake, lizard, crocodile, turtle, gecko
3. Film genre; horror, comedy, romance, action, thriller, science fiction
4. Tropical fruit; durian, papaya, pineapple, mango, coconut, mangosteen.
5. Tableware; spoon, fork, plate, bowl, knife

C.3.d. Discussion Activity

Exploring Synonym, Hyponymy, Hypernymy, and Semantic Properties

Discussion cues:

Set 1: “kill,” “murder,” “assassinate,” “slaughter,” “butcher”

- Focus: examine the specific circumstances under which each word is used and the emotional or social connotations of each term. For example, “assassinate” typically refers to killing a prominent figure, often for political reasons, while “butcher” implies a brutal or inhumane act.

Set 2: “group,” “pack,” “school,” “team,” “squad”

- Focus: Discuss the implied roles, hierarchies, or functions within the groups described by these words. For instance, a “squad” might imply a specialized, coordinated unit, often in a military or sports context. Consider how these terms are used differently in human and animal contexts, and in formal versus informal settings. Analyze how the choice of word can influence the perception of the group’s structure or purpose.

Set 3: “speak,” “say,” “tell,” “state,” “utter”

- Focus: Discuss how each word relates to the act of verbal communication. Analyze the nuances in formality, directness, and context where each word might be more appropriate.

Set 4: “house,” “home,” “residence,” “dwelling,” “abode”

- Focus: Explore the connotations of each term, especially how they differ in emotional tone, formality, and cultural significance.

Set 5: “walk,” “stroll,” “march,” “saunter,” “stride”

- Focus: Analyse how each word describes a type of movement on foot. Discuss the differences in speed, purpose, and attitude conveyed by each term.

Set 6: “job,” “occupation,” “career,” “vocation,” “profession”

- Focus: Examine how each word relates to work or employment. Consider how the terms vary in terms of personal commitment, societal recognition, and the nature of the work described.

Set 7: “look,” “glance,” “stare,” “gaze,” “peek”

- Focus: Discuss how these words relate to the act of seeing or observing. Focus on the intensity, duration, and intention behind each action as conveyed by the different terms.

Set 8: “happy,” “joyful,” “content,” “ecstatic,” “pleased”

- Focus: Explore the emotional intensity and context associated with each word. Analyze how these words are used to express varying degrees of positive emotion.

C.5.d. Exercise; Understanding and Identifying Metaphor

1. Identifying metaphor.

Identify the metaphor in each sentence and explain what it means.

- a. The classroom is a zoo.
 - Metaphor: “The classroom is a zoo.”
 - Meaning: This metaphor suggests that the classroom is chaotic and noisy, with students behaving wildly, similar to animals in a zoo.
- b. Her voice is music to my ears.
 - Metaphor: “Her voice is music to my ears.”
 - Meaning: This metaphor implies that her voice is very pleasant and soothing to listen to, much like how music can be enjoyable and calming.
- c. The world is a stage, and we are merely players.
 - Metaphor: “The world is a stage, and we are merely players.”
 - Meaning: This metaphor suggests that life is like a theatrical performance where everyone has roles to play. It highlights the idea that people are acting out their lives, often following scripts or societal expectations.
- d. His heart is a cold iron.
 - Metaphor: “His heart is a cold iron.”
 - Meaning: This metaphor indicates that the person is emotionally unresponsive or unfeeling, much like cold iron, which is hard and unyielding.
- e. Time is a thief that steals our youth.
 - Metaphor: “Time is a thief that steals our youth.”
 - Meaning: This metaphor personifies time as a thief, suggesting that as time passes, it gradually takes away our youth and vitality, much like a thief steals valuable possessions.

2. Interpreting extended metaphor

Read the following passage, which contains an extended metaphor. After reading, describe how the metaphor works and what it conveys about the subject.

“Life is a journey. We all have our paths to follow, with winding roads and steep hills to climb. Sometimes, we get lost, take a wrong turn, or encounter unexpected detours. But every step forward brings us closer to our destination.”

Questions:

- 1) What is the extended metaphor in this passage?

Answer: The extended metaphor in this passage is “life is a journey.” The passage compares life to a journey, suggesting that life involves a process of moving forward, facing challenges, and reaching goals or destinations.

- 2) How does the metaphor of life as a journey help the reader understand the challenges and experiences of life?

Answer: The metaphor of life as a journey helps the reader visualize and understand the ups and downs of life by comparing them to the physical experience of traveling. Just as a journey involves navigating through different terrains, encountering obstacles, and sometimes getting lost, life involves facing difficulties, making decisions, and continuing to move forward despite setbacks. The metaphor emphasizes that these challenges are a natural part of the process, and with persistence, we can reach our goals or destinations.

- 3) Provide an example of how the journey metaphor might apply to a specific situation (e.g., graduating from school, starting a new job, etc.).

Answer: The journey metaphor could apply to the experience of graduating from school. In this context, the journey represents the entire educational process, with each grade level or course being a part of the path. The “winding roads” could symbolize difficult

subjects or personal challenges faced along the way, and “steep hills” might represent the rigorous exams or projects. Graduating is akin to reaching a significant milestone or destination on this journey, and the “detours” might represent any setbacks or changes in direction, such as switching majors or taking a gap year.

4. Analysing Famous Metaphors

Instructions: below are famous metaphors from literature, speeches, and songs. Analyze each metaphor by explaining what it suggests about the subject.

- 1) *“Hope is the thing with feathers that perches in the soul.”* – Emily Dickinson

Analysis:

This metaphor suggests that hope is like a bird that resides within the human soul. The “feathers” imply that hope is light, delicate, and uplifting, capable of carrying us through difficult times. It also conveys the idea that hope is something that lives inside us, providing comfort and motivation without being tied to material things or external circumstances.

- 2) *“All the world’s a stage, and all the men and women merely players.”* – William Shakespeare

Analysis:

This metaphor likens the world to a stage and people to actors in a play. It suggests that life is like a performance, where individuals play different roles throughout their lives. The metaphor conveys the idea that people have specific roles or parts to play depending on the circumstances, and that our lives consist of various “acts” or phases. It also implies that much of what we do is influenced by societal expectations, much like actors following a script.

- 3) *“The mind is a garden, which may be cultivated.”* – Joseph Addison

Analysis:

This metaphor compares the mind to a garden, suggesting that our thoughts and knowledge need care and attention to grow, much like plants in a garden. Cultivating the mind involves learning, practicing critical thinking, and nurturing creativity. Just as a garden requires weeding, watering, and sunlight, the mind requires education, experience, and reflection to flourish and produce fruitful results.

- 4) “*You are the light of my life.*” – Song Lyric

Analysis:

This metaphor suggests that the person being addressed brings joy, guidance, and purpose to the speaker’s life, similar to how light illuminates a space and makes it bright and warm. It conveys deep affection and the idea that the person is essential to the speaker’s happiness, much like how light is essential for vision and life.

- 5) “*America is a melting pot.*” – Popular Saying

Analysis:

This metaphor describes America as a “melting pot,” suggesting that it is a place where people from different cultures, backgrounds, and ethnicities come together and blend into a cohesive society. It conveys the idea that diversity is a fundamental characteristic of America, where various cultural identities mix, sometimes forming new, unified cultural expressions. However, the metaphor can also imply the loss of distinct cultural identities in the process of assimilation.

ASSESSMENT RUBRICS

A. Essay (Individual Work)

The following is an assessment rubric for assessing the written and oral test results based on students' cognitive abilities in understanding the concepts of knowledge contained in descriptive linguistics.

The rubric includes score indicators ranging from 85 to 100 and below 60.

Category	85 - 100	80 - 84	75 - 79	70 - 74	65 - 69	60 - 64	55 - 59
Understanding the Concepts of Language	Explains the characteristics of language with 85% accuracy	Explains the characteristics of language with 80-84% accuracy	Explains the characteristics of language with 75-79% accuracy	Explains the characteristics of language with 70-74% accuracy	Explains the characteristics of language with 65-69% accuracy	Explains the characteristics of language with 60-64% accuracy	Explains the characteristics of language with 55-59% accuracy
Understanding the Concepts of Phonetics	Explains the basic concepts of phonetics and phonology with 85% accuracy	Explains the basic concepts of phonetics with 80-84% accuracy	Explains the basic concepts of phonetics with 75-79% accuracy	Explains the basic concepts of phonetics with 70-74% accuracy	Explains the basic concepts of phonetics with 65-69% accuracy	Explains the basic concepts of phonetics with 60-64% accuracy	Explains the basic concepts of phonetics with 55-59% accuracy
Understanding the Concepts of Phonology	Explains the basic concepts of phonology with 85% accuracy	Explains the basic concepts of phonology with 80-84% accuracy	Explains the basic concepts of phonology with 75-79% accuracy	Explains the basic concepts of phonology with 70-74% accuracy	Explains the basic concepts of phonology with 65-69% accuracy	Explains the basic concepts of phonology with 60-64% accuracy	Explains the basic concepts of phonology with 55-59% accuracy

Category	85 - 100	80 - 84	75 - 79	70 - 74	65 - 69	60 - 64	55 - 59
Understanding the Concepts of Morphology	Explains the basic concepts of morphology with 85% accuracy	Explains the basic concepts of morphology with 80-84% accuracy	Explains the basic concepts of morphology with 75-79% accuracy	Explains the basic concepts of morphology with 70-74% accuracy	Explains the basic concepts of morphology with 65-69% accuracy	Explains the basic concepts of morphology with 60-64% accuracy	Explains the basic concepts of morphology with 55-59% accuracy
Understanding the Concepts of Syntax	Explains the basic concepts of syntax with 85% accuracy	Explains the basic concepts of syntax with 80-84% accuracy	Explains the basic concepts of syntax with 75-79% accuracy	Explains the basic concepts of syntax with 70-74% accuracy	Explains the basic concepts of syntax with 65-69% accuracy	Explains the basic concepts of syntax with 60-64% accuracy	Explains the basic concepts of syntax with 55-59% accuracy
Understanding the Concepts of Semantics	Explains the basic concepts of semantics with 85% accuracy	Explains the basic concepts of semantics with 80-84% accuracy	Explains the basic concepts of semantics with 75-79% accuracy	Explains the basic concepts of semantics with 70-74% accuracy	Explains the basic concepts of semantics with 65-69% accuracy	Explains the basic concepts of semantics with 60-64% accuracy	Explains the basic concepts of semantics with 55-59% accuracy

B. Essay (Work in Pairs and Group Work)

Here is an assessment rubric for Essay exercise, which evaluates students' performance based on their accuracy, understanding, and reasoning behind the choices made. This rubric evaluates student performance based on their answers' accuracy, understanding of the material, ability to apply knowledge, critical thinking, and overall effort.

The rubric has score indicators ranging from 81-100 to below 60.

Category	81-100 (Excellent)	71-80 (Good)	61-70 (Fair)	<60 (Needs Improvement)
Accuracy of Answers	90-100% of answers are correct. Shows full understanding of the material.	80-89% of answers are correct. Demonstrates strong grasp of material.	70-79% of answers are correct. Demonstrates partial understanding.	Less than 70% of answers are correct. Limited understanding of the material.
Understanding of Concepts	Demonstrates a deep understanding of underlying concepts in almost all questions.	Demonstrates a good understanding of concepts in most questions, with minor misconceptions.	Shows basic understanding of concepts but lacks depth and has several misconceptions.	Lacks understanding of key concepts and displays significant gaps in knowledge.
Critical Thinking	Shows excellent reasoning, carefully evaluates options, and avoids common traps or distractors.	Shows good reasoning and generally evaluates options well, though occasionally falls for distractors.	Shows some reasoning but is often swayed by distractors or makes careless errors.	Shows little to no reasoning and frequently selects distractor options without careful thought.
Completion Time	Completes the task within the allotted time with minimal mistakes.	Completes the task within time, though may have minor time management issues.	Completes most of the task but may rush toward the end, leading to mistakes.	Struggles to complete the task within the allotted time, resulting in rushed or incomplete answers.
Effort and Engagement	Shows high effort, engagement, and a positive attitude toward the task. Actively reviews questions and answers.	Shows good effort and engagement, though occasionally shows some lapses in focus or review.	Shows average effort with a tendency to rush through some parts of the task without careful review.	Shows minimal effort or engagement, often rushing through the task without reviewing or checking answers.

C. Group Presentation

This is an assessment rubric for Presentation exercise. The rubric provides a detailed evaluation framework that can be adapted to assess student presentations. It allows for objective scoring based on performance in various aspects of communication and content delivery.

The rubric includes score indicators ranging from 81 to 100 and below 60.

Category	81-100 (Excellent)	71-80 (Good)	61-70 (Fair)	<60 (Needs Improvement)
Text Content	Strongly relevant, fully addresses the topic and deep insights with supporting examples.	Generally relevant, adequately addresses the topic, and some examples are given.	Moderately relevant, partially addresses the topic, and only has a few examples.	Lacks relevance, limited connection to the topic, few or no examples.
Grammar and Spelling	Almost no grammatical or spelling errors, smooth and accurate language use.	Some minor grammatical or spelling errors that do not impede understanding.	Frequent grammatical or spelling errors that occasionally affect clarity.	Numerous grammatical or spelling errors that significantly impede understanding.
Pronunciation	Clear and accurate pronunciation, natural intonation, easily understood.	Generally clear pronunciation with minor mistakes, mostly understood.	Some pronunciation issues, occasionally difficult to understand.	Pronunciation significantly impedes comprehension, difficult to understand.
Performance (Posture, Body Language, Eye Contact, Confidence)	Excellent posture, engaging body language, strong eye contact, highly confident.	Good posture, appropriate body language, consistent eye contact, and confidence.	Fair posture, limited body language, occasional eye contact, shows some confidence.	Poor posture, minimal body language, avoids eye contact, lacks confidence.

Category	81-100 (Excellent)	71-80 (Good)	61-70 (Fair)	<60 (Needs Improvement)
Material Design	Visually appealing, organized, enhances understanding, and supports the content perfectly.	Well-organized, clear design, supports content with some enhancements.	Simple design may lack organization and minimally support content.	Disorganized, cluttered, or unclear design and does not support content.

D. Game (Class Participation)

This is an assessment rubric in table format for evaluating students' participation in class games. This rubric helps provide structured feedback for students based on their involvement in class games, highlighting both strengths and areas for growth. The rubric includes different levels of participation with corresponding criteria and a scoring system.

Criteria	Excellent (4 points)	Good (3 points)	Fair (2 points)	Needs Improvement (1 point)
Active Participation	Fully engaged and participated consistently throughout the entire game. Volunteers frequently and contributes effectively to the team.	Actively participates most of the time. Occasionally volunteers and contributes to the team.	Participates but only sporadically. Needs prompting to engage more fully.	Rarely participates. Needs frequent prompting and encouragement to join the activity.
Team Collaboration	Demonstrates excellent teamwork, listens to others, shares ideas, and supports peers throughout the game.	Collaborates well with the team. Contributes ideas and is generally supportive.	Occasionally collaborates with the team. Provides minimal support to peers.	Struggles to collaborate. Rarely interacts with peers or contributes to the team effort.

Criteria	Excellent (4 points)	Good (3 points)	Fair (2 points)	Needs Improvement (1 point)
Leadership/ Initiative	Takes initiative and shows leadership in organizing or helping with the game. Encourages others to participate.	Occasionally takes initiative and motivates others to join. Shows some leadership in group activities.	Rarely takes initiative but follows instructions. Occasionally encourages others.	Does not take initiative. Reluctant to lead or motivate others in the game.
Effort and Enthusiasm	Shows high levels of effort and enthusiasm. Demonstrates excitement and encourages others during the game.	Shows good effort and enthusiasm. Enjoys the activity and encourages others.	Effort is inconsistent. Occasionally shows enthusiasm but lacks consistency.	Shows minimal effort and little to no enthusiasm during the game.
Adherence to Rules	Follows the game rules at all times and helps others understand them.	Follows the rules most of the time with few reminders needed.	Sometimes follows the rules but needs occasional reminders or clarification.	Often disregards or misunderstands the rules, requiring frequent correction.

Total Score:

Add up the points across all criteria for a final score out of a total of 24 points.

Interpretation of Total Scores:

- 21-24 points: Outstanding participation.
- 17-20 points: Good participation.
- 13-16 points: Satisfactory participation with room for improvement.
- 9-12 points: Needs improvement in participation and engagement.
- Below 9 points: Unsatisfactory participation; significant improvement needed.

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She believes that “learning by doing” is old but gold, and learning English should emphasize students’ activities to improve their skills. She has interest in writing research in language and literature. In the future she determines to pursue her study in cultural studies, because understand culture well would lead to understand people better.

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The **"Descriptive Linguistics: Teacher's Book"** is designed to equip educators with the essential tools needed to teach the core elements of English linguistics dynamically and interactively. Tailored for students with minimal prior knowledge, this book bridges theoretical concepts and practical applications through hands-on activities, case studies, and comprehensive exercises.

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Website: penerbit.brin.go.id

DOI: 10.55981/brin.2152



ISBN 978-602-6303-99-8



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