

TATU SITI ROHBIAH

INTRODUCTION TO

MICRO LINGUISTICS



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TATU SITI ROHBIAH

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INTRODUCTION TO MICROLINGUISTICS

TATU SITI ROHBIAH

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INTRODUCTION TO MICROLINGUISTICS

Tatu Siti Rohbiah

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Media Madani

Jl. Syekh Nawawi KP3B Palima Curug Serang-Banten email:
media.madani@yahoo.com & media.madani2@gmail.com
Telp. (0254) 7932066; Hp (087771333388)

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Tatu Siti Rohbiah

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1. Microlinguistics

1. Title

PREFACE

All praises belong to Allah SWT, by grace of Him, the writer has finished compiling this book, entitled “Introduction to Micro-linguistics”. The subtheme in this book is an introduction to linguistics, phonology, phonology changes, morphology, syntax, semantics, semantics changes and pragmatics.

The purpose of this book is an additional reference for Linguistics subject. Hopefully this book is able to make students understand dealing with Linguistics as one of major compulsory subjects. This book is dedicated to the students of the English Education Department, Faculty of Education and Teachers’ Training, State Islamic University Sultan Maulana Hasanuddin Banten.

The writer welcomes any constructive criticism and suggestions for better writing of this book.

Serang, November 2020

The writer

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CHAPTER I

AN INTRODUCTION TO LINGUISTICS

Linguistics is an important science of language to learn. The origin of the word “*linguistics*” was derived from the Latin “*lingua*” which means “*language*”.¹ Linguistics means that it is closely related to language and cannot be separated.

Beside that, Linguistics is a science that discusses all matters related to language which aims to distinguish the use of language words as commonly used words and as technical terms that have a special meaning in linguistics for readers.

Linguistics is often called general linguistics. This means that linguistics does not only study a language, but also studies the ins and outs of language in general;

¹ Abdul Chaer, *Linguistik Umum, Cet. Ke-2* (Jakarta: Rineka Cipta, 2003), 2.

examines the universal characteristics of all languages in the world.²

The aims and objectives of studying linguistics are very diverse, there are two of them, namely: linguistics is studied for itself, and linguistics is studied as a basic science for other sciences such as language teaching, literature, and others.³

People who are experts in linguistics (linguistics experts) are called linguists.⁴

A. The History of Linguistics

1. Basic Understanding

According to Ferdinand de Saussure, the history of linguistics is divided into 3 levels:

a. Grammatical Level

Language rules: right/ wrong by Greece continued by French.

² Chaer, *Linguistik Umum*, 3.

³ Kentjono, *Dasar Dasar Linguistik*, 1.

⁴ Chaer, *Linguistik Umum*, 3.

b. Philological Level

Language as a tool to research texts by
Alexandrian

c. Comparative Philological Level

Language is compared and contrasted from one to
another.⁵

2. The Beginning Period

This period concerned on logic factors and language
was considered as a tool to conduct research of some texts.

This period was divided into:

a. Indian Time

- The oldest written document found in India
was Asoka Charter
- Learning language for Indians were for
religious ritual ceremonies
- The alphabets being used were Brahmin
which was exist since 5th century. This
alphabets consisted of 46 letters taken by

⁵ Ferdinand de Saussure, *Course in General Linguistics* (New
York: Columbia University Press, 2011), 47-49.

Panini as the basic source to make Panini's Grammar.

b. Greek Time

- In this era, the basic understanding of language was philosophy
- Plato famous with the relation of "Sign and its Referent"
- Socrates (460-399 AD) ⇨ "Sign must be the same with its Referent"
- Aristotle (384-322 AD) ⇨ "The relation of them was conventional"
- They thought of Part of Speech: onoma & rhema (Plato), + syndesmoi (Aristotle) + arthon (Stoa).
- Well, Alexandrian divided them into:
- onoma (noun), rhema (verb), metosche (participle), arthon (article), antonymia (pronoun), prothesis (preposition), epirrhema (adverb), syndesmoi (conjunction)

c. Roman Time

- Mastering Roman language was a pride at this time
- The Alexandrian's Part of Speech was added into numeralic
- The linguists: Varro (116-27 AD) ⇒ etymology, morphology & syntax
- Priscia ⇒ phonology, morphology, syntax & part of speech:
- nomen, verbum, participium, pronomen, adverbium, praepositio, interjectio and conjunctio

d. Middle Time

- Learning language was determined by Latin Education System. Then mastering Latin was a pride because this language was used in church, diplomatic matters, and scientific terms.
- The famous learning system was scholastic system ⇒ artes liberales

- The developments: Modistae people and Speculative language system
- Modistae ⇒ semantics & etymology
- Speculative ⇒ referent-reference & root-affixation

e. Renaissance Time

- The word had connection with *renaitre* meant reborn
- This time was the return of learning ancient languages: Greek & Rome in art, philosophy, literature begun from 16th – 17th Centuries.
- Humanism was very influent factor in education system in purposes of pedagogy and scientific
- There were two important factors in this time:
 1. the demand of being homo trilinguist (Greek – Latin – Hebrew)
 2. some languages out of Europeans were in huge attention

In this time, linguists thought about the family tree of the same root languages. The famous scholar for this discussion was Josephus and Sealiger (1540 – 1609). Sealiger said that there were 11 main languages and 4 of them were the biggest: Greek, German, Roman and Slavia.

3. The Development Period

In this period, language was considered as an object to research and proposed to be an independent science.

This period was divided into:

a. 18th Century

- Languages were collected to be compared and contrasted by P.S. Pallas helped by The Queen of Russia, Catharina II.
- Other scholars who were indulged in this movement were: G.W. Leibnitz (1646-1716) ⇒ European & Asian languages, Lambert ten Kate (1674-1731) ⇒ linguistics is science not apriory

b. 19th Century

- Historical Comparative Linguistics was the main discussion

- Linguistics was considered mainly as an independent science
- Some famous linguists in this era:
 - a. E.B. Condillac ⇒ 1746 *Essai Sur L'Originale Des Connoissances Humaines*
 - b. Johann Gotfried Herder (1744 – 1804)
 - c. Friedrich von Schlegel (1772-1829) & A.W. Schlegel (1767-1845)
 - d. Wilhelm von Humboldt (1767-1835)
 - e. R.K. Rask (1787-1832)
 - f. Franz Bopp (1790-1867)
 - g. Jacob Grimm (1785-1863)
 - h. Schleicher (1821-1868)

4. The Modernity Period

Language was considered as language, not as a tool, an object or compared and contrasted. Language was seen as it was.

Language was discussed based on its experts

- a. Ferdinand de Saussure (1857 – 1913)
 - Diachronic & Synchronic Linguistic Concept

- La langue, la parole & le langage Concept
 - Form & Substance Concept
 - Signifiant & Signifie Concept
 - Syntagmatic & Paradigmatic Concept
- b. L. Bloomfield
- Structure of language
 - IC (Immediate Constituents) Approach
 - Behavioristic Concept
 - Antimentalist Concept
- c. Kenneth L. Pike
- Tagmeme Concept
 - Grammatical System
- d. Noam Chomsky
- Competence & Performance Concept
 - Surface & Deep Structure Concept
 - Transformational Generative Grammar Concept
- e. Charles Fillmore
- Syntactical Case Concept
 - Case & Role Concept
 - The Centrality of Syntax
 - The Important of Covert Categories

B. Linguistics Objective; Language

Language is an objective of linguistics that we have to learn. Language is a system of sound symbols used by the community in collaborating, interacting and identifying themselves.⁶

Around the 18th century, philosopher have discussed language and the structure of language. Sophism views language as a deliberate agreement between communities, while Stoijin argues that language is a natural ability. The philosophers Plato and Aristoteles interpreted that language was a combined interaction of the two opinions of sophism and stoijin.⁷

In addition, language is a unified system that combines systematic levels of meaning and sound. Language consists of several subsystems, namely:

⁶ Harimurti Kridalaksana, *Linguistic Dictionary* (Jakarta: Gramedia, 1982), 24.

⁷ F.J. Monks, A.M.P. Knoers, and S.R. Haditono, *Psikologi Perkembangan* (Yogyakarta: Gadjah Mada University Press, 1989), 23.

phonology, grammar and lexicon. In the three subsystems, the levels of meaning and sound meet to form a structure.⁸

Language is a fundamental and vital thing for human as social beings for communication. It also useful for creative expression, scientific inquiry, and many other purposes beside it.⁹ Language functions to communicate, but language is not only about speech. Language covers far more broadly than only speech; also about symbols/ sign, motion and other.¹⁰

Some explanations about language from linguists can be concluded that language is a system that is in the form of symbols and can be in the form of sounds with certain meanings. Language is productive, unique, conventional, arbitrary, varied and dynamic.¹¹

Holzman recognized three angles that recognize human language and flagging frameworks in creatures. To

⁸ Elvi Citraresmana, *Pragmatik* (Bandung: Universitas Padjadjaran, 2016), 1.

⁹ Elly Van Gelderen, *A History of the English Language* (Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company, 2006), 1.

¹⁰ Victoria Fromkin, Robert Rodman, and Nina Hyams, *An Introduction to Language* (Boston: Cengage Learning Inc, 2017), 1.

¹¹ Chaer, *Linguistik Umum*, 33.

begin with, human language is gainful, where there are human manifestations in giving new data and importance. Second, human language is free of the setting/circumstance. Direct discussions, phone discussions, and one's composing can impart implications that are not identified with the circumstance or condition in which the occasion happened. Third, people use language to convey while creatures use sign to illuminate something.¹²

Language as a communication tool has social functions related to semantics, and expressive functions. Language as a communication tool is inseparable from the social context.

In daily activities, humans certainly need something, convey something and say something as communication and interaction material. In fulfilling this purpose, explain that we need something, and language is present to achieve the success of some of these purposes. Language is used by every human being, from newborns in the world

¹² K.D. Bromley, *Language Arts; Exploring Connections (2nd ed)*, (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1992), 13.

to even before death. When babies are born, they use body language in the form of their crying to communicate, and humans when they are about to die also give signs / language as well.

There are four different forms of language namely listening, speaking, reading and writing. Language skills are different from speaking skills. Language is a relatively complex and semantic grammatical system, while the ability to speak is an expression in the form of words.¹³

One of the functions of language is as a communication tool. A person learns certain language causes to communicate everything that is intended.¹⁴

3. Brief History of English

English is constantly evolving and getting richer. There are many new words, both pure language and absorption. However, we should take a look back at the brief history of the English language.

¹³ Bromley, *Language Arts*, 23.

¹⁴ Buasim, *Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris, Cet. 15* (Jakarta: Penerbit Unibersitas Terbuka, 2011), i.

English is derived from the West Germanic branch of the Indo-European language family. English history is traditionally divided into three periods: Ancient English (450-1100 AD), Central England (1100-circa 1500 AD) and Modern English (since 1500). During the three periods, there are certainly many languages that make English difficult.

Ancient English

Ancient English (450 - 1100 AD): During the 5th Century The maseography of three Germanic tribes (Saxons, Angles, and Jutes) came to the British Isles from various parts of northwestern Germany as well as Denmark.. Over the years, Saxons, Angles and Jutes mixed their different Germanic dialects. Then the group formed the Anglo-Saxons. The word "English" is in Ancient English "Englisc", and it comes from the name Angles. The Angles are named after Engle, their home land.

Before Saxons, the English language was Latin mixed with various Celtic languages. Then the Romans brought Latin to England, which was part of the Roman Empire for more than 400 years. Many of the words used today were

the creations and works of the merchants and soldiers of the empire.

Celtic's influence was little on Old English. But many places and river names come from Celtic. St. Augustine's introduction of Christianity to Saxon England in 597 brought more Latin words into English. Around 878 AD Vikings (Danes and Norsemen) invaded the country and influenced the language again.

There are several works written during the Period of Ancient English, the famous work is a heroic epic poem called "Beowulf". It is the oldest known English poem and is famous for its approximate length of 3,183 lines. The work is thought to have been created a thousand years ago, but it is not known who the author is.

Central English

Central England (1100-circa 1500 AD): After William the Conqueror invaded and conquered England in 1066 AD, William became king and he brought in French-speaking nobles to fill the new government. Eventually,

Ancient France took over as the language of court, administration, and culture.

Around 1200, the use of Ancient English returned, but with many French words added. It is called Middle English. Most of the words embedded in the English vocabulary are words of power.

Central English was also marked for the beginning of the Great Vocal Shift. It was a big change that affected a lot of things. The most famous example of Middle English is Chaucer's "The Canterbury Tales".

Modern English

Modern English (1500 to present): Modern English flourished after William Caxton founded his printing press at Westminster Abbey in 1476. Johann Gutenberg invented printing in Germany around 1450, but Caxton founded Britain's first press.

Modern English (1592-1616) or at the time of Shakespeare's writings, there were three major developments in the world at the beginning of the Modern

English period: the Renaissance, the Industrial Revolution, and British Colonialism.

- English Renaissance

Most words from Greek and Latin enter English. Periods in English cultural history (early 16th to early 17th centuries) are sometimes referred to as the "shakespeare age" or "Elizabethan era", taking the name of the most famous author and the most important monarchy in England, respectively. During the reign of Queen Elizabeth I there was a cultural boom in the form of art support, the popularization of printing, and a large number of sea journeys.

- Industrial Revolution

In the 18th century England began the Industrial Revolution and this also had an effect on language development. New technical words are added to the vocabulary as inventions in designing various products and machines. These words are named after the inventor or given their chosen name.

- British Colonialism

The British sent people to settle and live in conquered places and as settlers interacted with the natives. As we have known that England was an empire for 200 years (18th and 20th centuries) and English continued to change as the United Kingdom moved around the world.¹⁵

Five kinds of language functions according to Bromley, such as: language describes individual wants and needs, language can change and control behavior, language helps in the cognitive development process, language helps strengthen interactions with others, and language expresses the uniqueness of the individual.¹⁶

Yule details the properties of human language, namely:

1. Displacement

Humans can refer to the past and the future. This property of human language is called displacement.

¹⁵ Samekto, *Ikhtisar Sejarah Bangsa Inggris* (Jakarta: Grasindo, 1998), 1-279.

¹⁶ Bromley, *Language Arts*, 10.

Displacement allows language users to talk about things and events that do not exist in the immediate environment whose existence we cannot even be sure of / abstract / may not exist.

2. Arbitrariness

Abuse of language users has indeed become a characteristic that cannot be removed. This property is called arbitrariness. This language indeterminacy makes the figure of language a diverse and unique symbol.

3. Productivity

Humans are very good at expressing themselves, including through language. Humans are supported by their natural abilities (their own reasoning) and will be able to find new terms or new utterances or new situations they encounter. Especially in the current era which is completely new and even globalized, there is also the production of new languages in humans. This property of human language is called productivity.

4. Cultural Transmission

Cultural transmission greatly influences language skills. For example: Japanese babies live with their families

in Germany, so when they grow up they are physically like Japanese but fluent in German. It was a situation that was encountered and worked naturally.

5. Duality

Human language is organized on two levels or layers simultaneously. This property is called duality. In sound production, we have a physical level to produce individual sounds. "S, E, E" as individual sounds, neither of these discrete forms have any intrinsic meaning. In certain combinations such as "see", it has another level which results in a different meaning than the meaning of the combination. In one level there is a different sound, at another level there is a different meaning.¹⁷

Language is arbitrary means like changing or not fixed and it according to its users / speakers.

Changes in language in all aspects can occur due to time, place, even the speaker's idea factor and others.¹⁸ The

¹⁷ Yule, *The Study of Language*, 11-15.

¹⁸ Nick Cipolloone, Steven Hartman Keiser, and Shraavan Vasishth, *Llanguage Files; Materials for an Introduction to Language & Linguistics, Seventh edition* (Columbus: Ohio State University Press, 1998), 15.

use of language is really elastic and flexible with all the factors surrounding the developing language.

According to George Yule, the difference in meaning in a word occurs a lot in language. This case is a natural form (fair) in language, because of its arbitrary status.¹⁹

C. Subfield of Linguistics; Micro-linguistics and Macro-linguistics

Micro-linguistics is a field of linguistics that studies language in a narrow manner.²⁰ It means language in its position as an independent natural phenomenon. Micro-linguistics directs the study of a particular internal structure of language or the internal structure of language in general.

Meanwhile, macro-linguistics is a field of linguistics that studies language extensively.²¹ It means language in

¹⁹ Yule, *The Study of Language*, 12.

²⁰ G. Glosser, and T. Deser, "A Comparison of Changes in Macrolinguistic and Microlinguistic Aspects of Discourse Production in Normal Aging", *Journal of Gerontology*, Vol. XLVII, Numb. IV, (1992), 266-272.

²¹ Glosser, A Comparison of Changes, 266-272.

its position as something complex. Macro-linguistics directs its study to an external structure of a particular language or the external structure of language in generally.

In addition, that micro-linguistics is a field of linguistics that studies language from within; in other words, studying the structure of the language itself or studying the language directly. While macro-linguistics is a field of linguistics that studies language in relation to factors outside of language.²²

Several sub-disciplines of micro-linguistics, namely:

1. Phonology is the science that investigates the characteristics of the sounds of language, how they occur, and how they function in the linguistic system as a whole.

2. Morphology is the science that investigates the structure of words, their parts, and how words are formed.

3. Semantics is the science that investigates the meaning of language lexical, grammatical, and contextual.

4. Syntax is the science that investigates word units and other units above words, their relationship to one

²² Kridalaksana, *Linguistic Dictionary*, 154 & 148.

another, and how they are arranged so that they become units of speech.

5. Lexicology is the science that investigates the lexicon or vocabulary of a language from its various aspects.

Several sub-disciplines of macro-linguistics, namely:

1. Sociolinguistics are linguistic branches that examine the relationship between language and its speaker community. This science is a contextual study of the variety of people's language usage in a natural communication.

2. Psycholinguistics is a study of the use of language and the acquisition of language by Psycholinguistic humans is a combined approach through psychology and linguistics for the study or study of language knowledge, and others.

3. Antropolinguistics are linguistic branches that study the variety and use of language in relation to the development of time, differences in place of communication, kinship system, influence of ethnic habits,

beliefs, language ethics, customs, and other cultural patterns of a nation.

4. Stilistika comes from the word "style" which means linguistics is a branch of linguistics that focuses on language style analysis.

5. Philology is a science that learns the language in written historical sources. It is a combination of literary, historical, and linguistic criticism. This is more often interpreted as the study of literary texts and written notes, the determination of the authenticity and authenticity of its formation and the determination of its meaning. Philology is an interdisciplinary science between linguistics, history and culture.

6. Linguistic philosophy is a linguistic sub-disciplinary that studies the nature of language as a human activity, concept policy, linguistic theory, and others. The philosophy of language is a theory of language that philosophers successfully put forward, while they are on their way to understanding conceptual knowledge. Language philosophy is the effort of philosophers to

understand conceptual science through understanding language.

7. Dialectology is a sub-disciplinary of linguistics that studies dialects or that studies language variations, dialect boundaries and languages in a given region. Dialectology is an offshoot of linguistic studies arising in part because of the impact of comparative linguistics or chronic linguistic studies. This branch of science is an interdisciplinary science between linguistics and geography.²³

D. Benefit of Linguistics

Every science has benefits in everyday life (practical benefits), as well as linguistic science. Linguistics is certainly very useful, especially for people who actively participate in the world of linguistics, languages, and others.

²³ Chaer, *Linguistik Umum*, 15-17.

Linguistics has theoretical benefits for people who are active in the field of language in depth and practical benefits for others.²⁴

For linguists, a broad understanding of linguistics will certainly help them in completing their duties and obligations. For language teachers, understanding linguistics will facilitate them in teaching; sub-disciplines of phonology, morphology, syntax, and others. Not only language teachers, but general teachers also should be able to understand the linguistics even though it is only a little (in general) because teachers convey material explanations using language, if teachers have linguistic knowledge then they can more easily convey their subjects. In addition, linguistics is very useful for translators, dictionary compilers, textbook compilers, politicians and statesmen.²⁵

All kinds that have been created by God will certainly be useful, especially a science that is very expensive. One of the many sciences that definitely useful is linguistics.

²⁴ Kentjono, *Dasar Dasar Linguistik*, 16.

²⁵ Chaer, *Linguistik Umum*, 25-27.

CHAPTER II

PHONOLOGY

Phonology is a field in linguistics that investigates language sounds according to their function. Other definition of Phonology is a branch of linguistic studies. Real phonology is a sub-discipline of linguistics that talks about language sounds produced by human speech tools.¹

Phonology can define the sound of language as the smallest unit of speech between sounds that form syllables or syllables.²

Thus, phonology also talks about sequences of sounds language, how to analyze it and activities to learn language sounds ideally. It is not only limited to the recognition of the sounds, but also must be accompanied by practice analyzing the sounds of the language from all aspects. In general, there are two branches of study on

¹ Fromkin, *et al.*, *An Introduction to Language*, 184.

² David H. Deterding, and Gloria R. Poedjosoedarmo, *The Sound of English* (New York: Prentice Hall, 1998), 9.

phonology, namely phonetics and phonemics.³ Phonetics and phonemic are two a large branch that is included in the study of the study of speech sounds or phonology.

Phonology is a science that studies sound characteristics and sound function.⁴ Phonology is a science that studies the sound of language studied or described.⁵

A. Phonetics

Phonetics is the science that investigates the production, delivery, and reception of language sounds or the sound system of a language.⁶

General learning about the characteristics of speech sounds is called phonetics.⁷

Phonetics are linguistic science branches that examine the physical basis of language sounds. Phonetic is one of the phonological studies that examines how phonem sounds of a language are realized or pronounced.

³ Fromkin, *et al.*, *An Introduction to Language*, 186.

⁴ Kentjono, *Dasar Dasar Linguistik*, 13.

⁵ Citraresmana, *Pragmatik*, 2.

⁶ Kridalaksana, *Linguistic Dictionary*, 63.

⁷ Yule, *The Study of Language*, 26.

Phonetics also learn how to work human body organs, especially those related to the use of the language produced by sounds come from human-saving tools.⁸

While other views Stageberg mention that phonetics are part of the phonological branch that hierarchy of the sound unit that is the object of the study of phonology.⁹

One of them, is the view that phonetics are the study of the sound of the speech that the object is the sound of human language as a result of the general language, while phonology is a review of the sound of speeches that occur in certain languages. Thus, it is different from phonetics that learn all language sounds in general, then phonology observes certain languages, or the sound of language from a particular language, based on the function of the sound of the language can distinguish the meaning or lexical meaning in the language system. Then, the same basis also distinguished phonetic and phonemic understanding.

⁸ Fromkin, *et al.*, *An Introduction to Language*, 254.

⁹ Norman C. Stageberg, *An Introductory English Grammar*, Third Edition (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1977), 6.

Phonetic studies can be classified into two, namely segmental and supra-segmental.¹⁰

Phonetics are divided into three branches namely articulators phonetics, acoustic phonetics, and audoristic phonetics.

Articulators phonetics learn how the tools should be the place where sound is produced. This phonetic can be called phonetic language. *Acoustic phonetics* learn how sound waves are generated from language using special tools. This phonetic can use a spectograph. *Audoristic phonetics* investigate the sound of language as something received by the listener. This branch is usually an object of neurologist study.¹¹

Voiced and Voiceless Sounds

According to Yule, in articulatory phonetics, this begins with air being pushed out of the lungs through the trachea (or windpipe) into the larynx. In the larynx there are vocal cords.

¹⁰ Fromkin, *et al.*, *An Introduction to Language*, 259.

¹¹ Kentjono, *Dasar Dasar Linguistik*, 21.

Voicing and voicelessness are two settings of phonation.¹² Voiced is segments pronounced with the vocal cords vibrating plus of voice, while voiceless is indicated minus of voice.¹³

1. A sound that vibrates is called voiced. Example voiced: [d], [z] and [n]

2. A voice that doesn't vibrate is called voiceless. Voiceless example: [t] and [s]

The difference is very easy to feel. When pronouncing a letter, put your hand on the throat (Adam's apple), if there is a vibration it means it is voiced and if it is without vibration it means it is voiceless.¹⁴

Place of Articulation

Yule stated that the places of articulation are the larynx, vocal cords, tongue, pharynx, uvula, velum, palate, nasal cavity, and alveolar ridge.

Bilabials

¹² April McMahon, *An Introduction to English Phonology* (Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press, 2002), 26.

¹³ Stageberg, *An Introductory*, 86.

¹⁴ Yule, *The Study of Language*, 26.

There are several sounds produced using both lips; upper lip and lower lip. These sounds are called bilabials. Example letters: [b], [p] and [m]

Labiodentals

There are several sounds made using the upper teeth and lower lip. These sounds are called labiodentals. Example letters: [f] and [v]

Dentals

There is a sound produced using a tongue tip behind the upper front teeth. These sounds are called dentals. Example letters: [θ] and [ð]

Alveolars

There are several sounds produced using the front part of the tongue on the alveolar ridge, which is the rough, bony ridge immediately behind and above the upper teeth. These voices are called alveolars. Examples of letters: [t], [d], [s], [z] and [n]

Palatals

There are several sounds that are produced using the tongue and the palate. These sounds are called palatals. Examples of letters: [ʃ], [tʃ], [ʒ], [dʒ] and [j]

Velars

There are several sounds produced using the back of the tongue against the velum are called velars.

Example letters: [k], [g] and [ng]

Glottals

There is one sound produced without using the tongue and other parts of the mouth actively. This voice is commonly described as a voiceless glottal. The letter is [h]¹⁵ Based on more than one source, the sound is divided into two elements, namely segmental and supragmental.

1. Segmental

In Harimurti's linguistic dictionary, segmental means concerned with segments.¹⁶

Language is a sound or sound symbol of the sound that is in the form of sound. Segmental is the sound produced by breathing, the tools and vocal cords consisting of certain segments.¹⁷

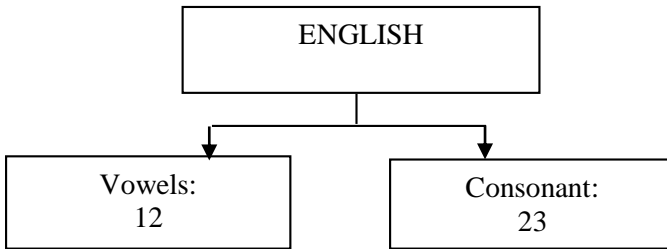
Segmental is classified into two, namely vowels and consonants.

¹⁵ Yule, *The Study of Language*, 27-30.

¹⁶ Kridalaksana, *Linguistic Dictionary*, 216.

¹⁷ Fromkin, *et al.*, *An Introduction to Language*, 213.

CONSONANT AND VOWELS



a. Vowels

Vowel segments are marked with the absence of heavy barriers to the air coming out. The Vowel segment has high loudness.¹⁸

Vowel sounds are generated with water coming out without obstacles at all.¹⁹

Vowel is a voice that does not involve obstacles, shifts, or touch tongue or lips, while consonants are segmental language sounds other than vowels that can be divided according to two dimensions, namely the articulation area (places of articulation) and how to articulate it (man Each language has different sound

¹⁸ Kentjono, *Dasar Dasar Linguistik*, 25.

¹⁹ Yule, *The Study of Language*, 33.

systems, both on vocal sounds, consonants, and diphthongs.

Vowels generated without closure or narrowing above glottis. Vowel is named by mentioning the backwardness of the tongue, up and down the tongue, and the shape of the lips. Some examples are:

- / i / is a high or up front vowel, not round;
- / u / is a high or upper back vowel, round; and
- / e / is the vowel in front of the center, not round.²⁰
- High-low vowels tongue in English can be divided into of; high vowels, like [I:], [i], [ʊ], and [u:], central vowels like [ə], [e], [ɜ:] and low vowels like [æ], [ʌ], [ɒ], [ɑ:]
- The vowels-moving tongue section in English can be distinguished into; vowel front, is vowels produced by the movement of the role down the rise of the front tongue, such as [I:], [i], [æ], and [e]; Central vowels, namely vowels produced by the movement of the role of the middle tongue such as [ə], [ɜ:], and [ʌ]; rear vowels, namely

²⁰ Kentjono, *Dasar Dasar Linguistik*, 29.

vocals produced by the role movement down the rise of the rear tongue like [ɒ], [ɑ:], [ɔ:], [ʊ], and [u:].

- Structure in English, among others: (a) closed vowels (close vowels), namely vowels formed with tongues raised as high as possible approaching the ceiling within the vocal limit like [i:] and [u:]; (b) semi-closed vocals, (Half-close Vowels), namely vowels formed with the tongue lifted in a third height under closed or two-thirds above the lowest vocals, such as [ɪ], [e], and [ɜ:], (c) semi-open vocals (half-open vowels), namely vowels formed with the tongue lifted in a third height above the lowest vocals or two-thirds under closed vocals, such as [ə], [ʌ], [æ] (d) Open vowels (open vowels), namely vowels formed with tongues in the lowest possible position, such as [ɑ:] and [ɒ]
- Lip shape of the English vowel time is pronounced, then vocal can be distinguished from: (a) round vocal (a) Round lip shape can be

open or closed. If open, the vocal is spoken with open-rounded open lip position (open-rounded) such as: [ɔ:], [ɒ] [ʊ], [U:]; (b) neutral vowels (neutral vowels), namely vowels spoken with lip shape in a neutral position, in the noted sense but also not broadcast wide [æ], [ə], [ʌ], [ɑ:], and (3) vowels no

- Digital rises is [AI], [EI], [ɔi], [aʊ], [oʊ], [ɔə], [ɜə], while those who belong to the tongue position are [iə] and [ʊə].

b. Consonants

Consonant segments are marked by perfect obstacles to the air that comes out. The consonant segment has a low loudness.²¹

Consonants are named by mentioning in sequence, namely articulated ways, active articulators and articulation areas, and glottis conditions.

Some examples are :

- / t / is a consonant of a noiseless lamino-alveolar;

²¹ Ke ntjono, *Dasar Dasar Linguistik*, 25.

- / d / is a consonant for a voice lamino-alveolar;
and
- / g / is a consonant Dorso-Velar Dorso-Velar.²²

TABLE 2
CONSONANTS

Articulator & Zone Way of Articulating	BILABIAL	LABIO-DENTAL	APIKO-DENTAL	LAMINO-ALVEOLAR	LAMINO-PALATAL	DORSO-VELAR	FARINGAL	GLOTAL
POP	p b			t d		k g		ʔ
SHIFT		f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ	x		
ALLOY					c j			
INCESSANT	m			n	ɲ	ŋ		
VIBRATION				r				
SIDE				l				
APPROXIMATION	w				y			

(source: Kentjono, Dasar Dasar Linguistik, 29)

²² Kentjono, *Dasar Dasar Linguistik*, 27.

Based on table. 2 according to Jones that there are 23 consonants in the English sound system, namely [b], [p], [m], [w], [f], [v], [θ], [ð], [t], [d], [tʃ], [dʒ], [n], [s], [z], [r], [ʃ], [ʒ], [j], [k], [g], [ŋ], and [h]. Consonants based on the area of articulation are divided into bilabial, labiodental, dental, alveolar, palatal, velar, and glotal consonants.

Meanwhile, based on the way of articulation, consonants in English are divided into resistance consonants, alloys, shocks, shifts, sides, and glides. These three criteria can be explained as follows:

The place of articulation is none other than the utterance instrument used in the formation of consonant sounds. Based on the place of articulation we know consonants:

- Bilabial, which is a consonant that occurs on both sides of the lips, the lower lip is closer to the upper lip such as: voiced consonants [b], [w], [m] and voiceless [p].
- Labio-dental, namely consonants that occur in the upper teeth and lower lip; the upper teeth are

pressed against the lower lip as: voiced consonant [v] and voiceless [f].

- Dental, which is a consonant that occurs on the tip of the tongue which is attached to the gums which is a rough area located behind the upper teeth like a voiced consonant sound [ð] and not voiced [e].
- Alveoral, which is a consonant that occurs on the tip of the tongue which is attached to the gum which is a rough area located behind the upper teeth such as voiced consonants [d], [dʒ], [l], [n], [r], [z] and not sound [t], [tʃ], [s].
- Palatal, is a sound formed by the tongue touching the hard palate such as: consonant sounds [bers], [j] and voiceless [ʃ].
- Velar, which is the sound produced by the back of the tongue touching the soft palate such as: voiced consonant sounds [g], [ŋ] and voiceless [k].
- Glottally, the pronunciation of consonant voiced by glottal or hamzah does not really require active use of the tongue and other parts of the mouth such as [h].

- The way of articulation is how disturbance or resistance is made to air currents. Based on the way the consonants are articulated, they can be divided into:
- Obstacle, namely the sound produced by blocking the flow of air out of the lungs, then released immediately, such as [b], [p], [t], [d], [k], [g]
- Shear, which is a sound that involves blocking the flow of air through a narrow gap such as [f], [v], [θ], [ð], [s], [z], [r], [ʃ], [ʒ], [h]
- The sound, which is the sound produced by blocking the tightness of the air passage from the lungs through the nasal cavity such as [m], [n], [ŋ]
- Alloy, which is produced by the tip of the tongue and rear spark plugs such as [tʃ], [dʒ]
- Side, namely the sound produced by sticking the tongue leaf to the gums and expelling air through the sides of the tongue. When the lateral sound is produced, the vocal cords vibrate like [l].

- Slide, which is the sound produced as transition sounds such as [w], [j].²³

c. Diphthongs

Diphthong segments are vowels that changes the quality of the sound and it always in one same syllable. The sound characteristic of the different segment is almost close to the vowel characteristics, because it used to be this segment called vowel duplicate; This term is not right.²⁴ Diphthongs are a combination of two vowels.²⁵

2. Supra-segmental

The series of spoken language sounds not only consist of segmental elements that occur from the movements of the speech apparatus, but also supra-segmental elements in the form of lengths, stresses, and tones.²⁶

²³ Daniel Jones, *The Pronunciation of English* (Cambridge: Cambridge University, 1986), 18.

²⁴ Kentjono, *Dasar Dasar Linguistik*, 30.

²⁵ Yule, *The Study of Language*, 34.

²⁶ Kentjono, *Dasar Dasar Linguistik*, 31.

Supra-segmental is an element that affects language sounds and sounds that cannot be segmented because the presence of this sound always accompanies the segmental sound which is separated both vowels and consonants, and supra-segmental elements in the form of long duration (long-short), intonation (pressure), and pitch (tone).²⁷

a. Long Duration (long-short)

Long and short sounds indicate the length of time to maintain the position of the speech instrument. In phonetic writing, the sign / : / and / :: / or the double symbol such as / tt / means length.²⁸

Long duration (long-short) a language sound indicates the length of time the speech instrument is maintained, the length of the sound is different. Phonetic writing in English signs such as [:] and [::] or a double symbol such as [tt], [kk], and [ss] can be used to mark length.²⁹

²⁷ Fromkin, *et al.*, *An Introduction to Language*, 240.

²⁸ Kentjono, *Dasar Dasar Linguistik*, 31.

²⁹ Fromkin, *et al.*, *An Introduction to Language*, 205.

b. Intonation (pressure)

Strong and weak pressure is characterized by moving the speech organs more vigorously and using tense muscles to produce sounds. In phonetic writing, the sign (´) for strong stress, (`) for secondary stress and (^) for tertiary stress.³⁰

Intonation (pressure) when segmental sounds are pronounced, it is never separated from the loudness or weakness of the sound, which is indicated by the movement of the speech instruments which are more powerful and use the tense muscles in produce sound. Phonetic writing in English is known as a sign such as ´ to indicate hard pressure ^ for secondary stress, and ´ for tertiary stress. For example, the word blackboard is emphasized on the black element, so its meaning is 'blackboard'; then the pressure is applied to the board element means 'black board'.³¹

In addition, Norman C. Stageberg stated that there are three kinds of the stress, namely namely: primary

³⁰ Kentjono, *Dasar Dasar Linguistik*, 31.

³¹ Fromkin, *et al.*, *An Introduction to Language*, 206.

stress, mid stress, and weak stress and it usually not indicated.³²

c. Pitch (tone)

The tone is characterized by the frequency of vibrations produced by the vocal cords. The higher the frequency, the higher the pitch of the voice. In phonetic writing, the usual tone is indicated by a number depending on the need. Tones consist of low, normal, high and very high notes. These notes can be replaced with numbers, for example 1, 2, 3, and 4.³³

B. Phonemics

Phonemic is a system of phonemes of a language; a procedure for determining the phonemes of a language; and it investigation of the phoneme system of a language.³⁴

1. Phonemes

Phoneme is the smallest sound unit capable of showing a contrasting meaning.³⁵

³² Norman. C. Stageberg, *An Introductory English Grammar*. Third Edition (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1977), 45.

³³ Kentjono, *Dasar Dasar Linguistik*, 31.

³⁴ Kridalaksana, *Linguistic Dictionary*, 62.

Phoneme is the smallest functional unit capable of distinguishing meaning. The phoneme is written between two slashes / ... /, ³⁶ the "distinguishing function" as a characteristic of phonemes.³⁷

2. Allophones

Allophones are variants of phonemes based on position, ³⁸ and also definitions allophones are sounds which are another alternative to mentioning certain phonemes.³⁹

Verhaar has stated that the appearance of allophones as a variation of a phoneme is caused by the environment of the phoneme.⁴⁰ The other definition, allophones are sounds resulting from the realization of a phoneme. It is a unit in sound that does not change meaning. Allophone is written between two square brackets [...].⁴¹

³⁵ Kridalaksana, *Linguistic Dictionary*, 62.

³⁶ Kentjono, *Dasar Dasar Linguistik*, 32.

³⁷ J.W.M. Verhaar, *General Linguistic Principles* (Yogyakarta: Gadjah Mada University Press, 2012), 68.

³⁸ Kridalaksana, *Linguistic Dictionary*, 11.

³⁹ John Clark, and Collin Yallop, *An Introduction to Phonetics and Phonology* (Oxford: Basil Blackwell Ltd., 2004), 93.

⁴⁰ Verhaar, *General*, 71.

⁴¹ Kentjono, *Dasar Dasar Linguistik*, 32.

3. Complementary Distribution

Complementary distribution is a situation where two variants in a certain environment are complementary.⁴²

Allophones of a phoneme have phonetic similarities, many have similarities in pronunciation. The distribution of allophones can be complementary and independent.

Complementary distribution is a distribution where the place is not interchangeable and is fixed in a certain environment. The free distribution is that the allophones can be used without any specific sound environment requirements.⁴³

⁴² Kridalaksana, *Linguistic Dictionary*, 52.

⁴³ Kentjono, *Dasar Dasar Linguistik*, 33.

CHAPTER III

PHONOLOGY CHANGES

All results of language development processes, whether addition, subtraction, or substitution in any field of language, consisting of sounds, shapes and meanings can be marked as language changes.

The symptoms of language the events that concern the formation of words or sentences with all sorts of formation processes. So, changes in some respects in language are natural.¹

There are basically two kinds of changes in language, namely changes that occur "within" the language itself, so-called internal changes, and changes "by influence" of other languages, called external changes. Because the smallest language element that can stand alone is a word, then what is meant by internal changes is the change contained in the original words of the language.

¹ Badudu, *Pelik-Pelik Bahasa*, 47.

Language changes can include all aspects of language; phonology (sound), morphology (form), syntax (sentences) and semantics (meanings).

A. Expert Opinion

According to Hadi, this change in sound in speech is likely to result in the written language as well as phonetic changes in sound.²

This theory is in line with Crowley which explains that changes occur in spoken language in the form of sound (sound change). Sound changes in word absorption can be classified in two ways, namely the assimilation process and the non-assimilation process.³

One example in the sound change process, namely the assimilation process is the process of changing the sound which causes it to be similar to or the same as other sounds nearby, such as in English the word inproductive is pronounced [imprədʌktɪf]. The sound [n] becomes [m].

² Syamsul Hadi, *Kata - kata Arab dalam Bahasa Indonesia* (Yogyakarta: Gadjah Mada University Press, 2015), 46.

³ Clarence Sloat, *Introduction to Phonology* (Prentice Hall: Englewood Cliff Fs, N.J, 1987), 112-121.

The process of non-assimilation is the process of changing the same two phonemes into nothing the same in one word. For example in English magazine [mægəzɪn] which is an uptake of Arabic makhazin [maxazɪn]. Sound [x] changed to [g].⁴

Murray has divided the sound change process into 5 categories:

1. assimilation is, for example possible, impossible;
2. dissimilated for example ku to gu;
3. epentesis, for example tenth [tenθ] becomes [tenthθ];
4. metathesis, for example spaghetti becomes pesghetti [pəsketi:]; and
5. omitting eg [pəreɪd] to [preɪd].⁵

Meanwhile, Crowley has divided the process of changing the sound of loan words into nine categories:

⁴ Tatu Siti Rohbiah, *Arabic Borrowings in English; An Analysis of Phonology, Morphology, and Semantics* (Bandung: Universitas Padjajaran, 2019), 56.

⁵ W. Robert Murray, "Historical Linguistics: the Study of Language Change." In O'grady, William. Dobrovolsky, Michael & Francis, Katamba. *Contemporary Linguistics an Introduction*, Canada: Pearson Education Ltd, (1996), 318.

1. lenition and fortification, for example in the Kara language, the word *punti* becomes *fut* which means banana; in division. This sound classification removes vowels or consonants, among others: aphoresis, for example in the Angkamuthi language, the word *maji* becomes *aji* meaning in English, food, apocopo, for example in Southeas Ambrym the word *utu* becomes *ut* the English meaning 'lice'; and syncope (syncope), for example, in Lenakel, the word *mass* becomes *mha* lowtide English meaning.
2. in addition of the sound consists of: excercence, for example, *empti* becomes *æmtig* "empty"; epenthesis, for example, English *black* becomes *Tok pisin bilak*; hypotheses, for example, *fire* becomes *lapi* (Motu language);
3. metathesis, for example *bird* [bɜ: d] to [bi.id];
4. fusion (fusion), which is two sound words that change into one word sound, for example in French the word *bɔn* becomes *bɔ* this word in English is 'good';

5. unpacking one or two word sounds into more sound words, for example in French *aksidâ* into *aksidor* meaning in English accident;
6. vowel breaking, for example 'bad' [bæd] English dialect becomes American dialect [bæəd];
7. reducing the consonant at the end for example a bomb to bɒm eliminates the sound [mb];
8. hapology, for example the *library* becomes *laibri*;
9. assimilation, for example 'chin' *kinn* becomes [tʃɪn];
10. dissimilates, for example [x] into [k] 'clean' *sxo: n* becomes *sko: n*; and
11. abnormal sound changes, for example [k] to [ç] palatalization of *kent* to *cent*.⁶

Badudu has stated that sound changes a symptom of language. The kinds of language symptoms are as follows:

1. an analogy, for example sportsmen, statesmen, socialists, employees and all male group, meanwhile to express the type of woman the

⁶ Terry Crowley, and Claire Bower, *An Introduction to Historical Linguistics*, Fourth Edition (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2010), 38 – 58.

suffix is used to make *women, athletes, stateswomen, sasiawati, female employee*. The suffix-wati is analogous to the name *Dang Meduwati* (Hang Tuah's mother in the Hikayat Hang Tuah). Many women's names in Indonesia imitate this, for example; Megawati, Fatmawati, Setiawati, Indrawati, Kurniawati and so on .;

2. adaptation for example shrubs from fardhu and research from research;
3. contamination eg "bowing the body" from the form "bowing the body" and "bending the head";
4. hypercorrection, for example, articles become *fasal* and animals become *animals*;
5. assimilation, for example *Alsalam* being *asalam*;
6. dissimilated for example: *Sajjana* (Sanskrit) became a scholar;
7. addition (eg *stri* (Sanskrit) prosthesis becomes wife; epenthesis for example *ax* becomes *ax*, and paragog for example *hulubala* becomes *hulubalang*;
8. reduction (apheresis for example, *farmer* becomes *farmer*; syncope for example, *utpati* becomes

tribute; and apocope, for example, sky becomes rainbow);

9. metathesis, for example, *rontal* becomes *lontar*;
10. diphthongization, for example *petai* into *petai*;
11. monophthongization, for example a lake into a *dano*;
12. symptoms of anaptixis, for example the wolf became a wolf;
13. haplology for example *samanantra* (equal + an + between)> temporary;
14. contractions, for example, gradually become slow; and
15. Pleonasma, for example, since childhood he was sick - in pain (since = from, since childhood = from childhood).⁷

In more detail and it related to the study of loan words. Hadi detailed the processes for the occurrence of these sound changes in 17 processes. This refers to the

⁷ J.S. Badudu, *Pelik-Pelik Bahasa Indonesia* (Bandung: Pustaka Prima, 1998), 47.

change in the sound of loanwords from Arabic into Indonesian, as follows:

1. lenition or sound attenuation, for example from the sound [q] to [k] as in the word *qurban* becomes a victim;
2. reduction of double consonants, for example [ll] to [l], such as *mushalla* to *musala*;
3. apheresis, namely the dating of sounds from the beginning as utterances such as ['] becomes lost [] such as ' *ādil* to be fair;
4. apacop, namely the cutting off of sound caused by the perishing of the sound at the end of a word, for example ['] becomes [] like the word *fanā'* becomes mortal;
5. syncope, namely the release of the syllable at the end or middle of a word, for example the sound [zh] becomes [dh] like the word *zhālim* becomes *dhalim*;
6. compression, namely the impregnation process of one or more syllables at the end or in the middle

- of a word, for example the sound [yy] experiences a pervasive *fithriyy* to become natural;
7. sound reinforcement, namely the change from relatively weak sounds to relatively stronger sounds, for example the sound [f] becomes [p] such as the word understanding to understand;
 8. sound relaxation, namely a sound that was originally singular develops into a sequence of sounds such as *adzān* to *adhan*;
 9. epenthesis, namely the insertion of sound into words, for example the insertion of the sound [i] in the word *fiqh* to become *fiqh*;
 10. pharagog, namely adding a sound at the end of a word for the beauty of the sound, for example an expert becomes an expert .;
 11. prothesis, namely the addition of a sound at the beginning of a word;
 12. matathesis, which is a change in the position of the sound in a word, for example sirwal to be a chord;

13. monophthongization, which is the change due to the joining of two different sounds into a single sound, for example, *haibah* becomes great;
14. assimilation, namely the process of changing the sound which results in a similar or the same sound as other nearby sounds, for example [n] becomes [m] like the word *minbar* becomes the pulpit;
15. dissimilation, which is the change that occurs when two sounds are alike becoming different, for example the sound [f] becomes [b] like the word *afshah* becomes valid;
16. vowel splitting, namely the splitting of one vowel into two vowels such as the word '*Eid al-fithri* to become *aidul fitri*; and
17. Shortening, namely the abbreviation of the sound like the word *astagfirullah* becomes gosh.⁸

The sound change process proposed by Yacoub regarding the context of Arabic loanwords in English,

⁸ Syamsul Hadi, *Kata - kata Arab dalam Bahasa Indonesia* (Yogyakarta: Gadjah Mada University Press, 2015), 46-47.

actually cannot be separated from the stages of the sound change process described by Sloat, Murray, Crowley, and Hadi.

However, the term approach and the object of study are different. The difference in the application of the sound process between the three is in the form of the analyzed language sound application.

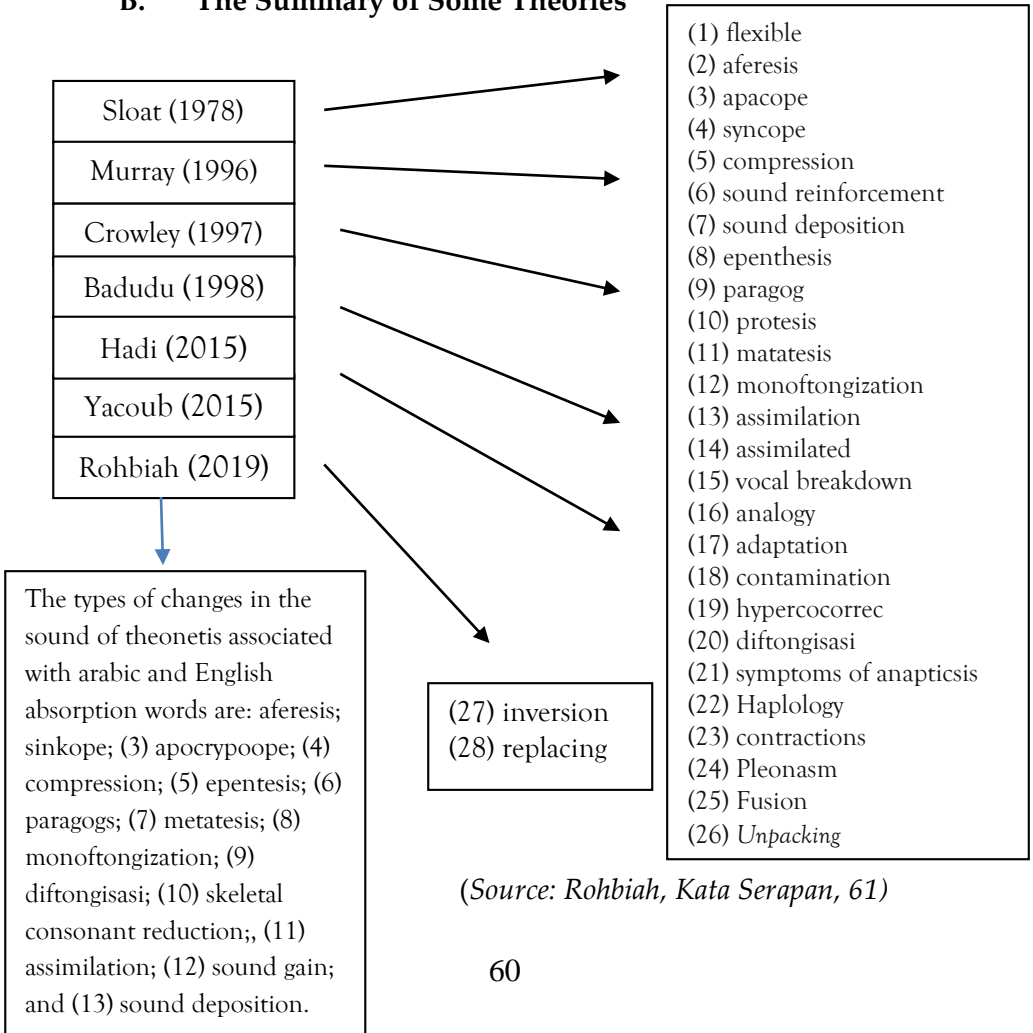
Thus, not all sound change processes proposed by Sloat (1978), Murray (1996), Crowley (1997), Badudu (1998) and Hadi (2015) can be found in the process of changing the sound of loan words from Arabic into English. The theory described by Yacoub (2015) can also be complemented by the theory of sound change from Sloat (1978), Murray (1996), Crowley (1997), and Hadi (2015).

From several views regarding the types of sound change, it can be concluded that the types of sound change associated with Arabic and English loanwords are:

1. apheresis; the process of omission or deleting one or more phoneme at the beginning of the word;
2. syncope;
- 3.

aphocope; 4. compression; 5. epenthesis; 6. paragraph; 7. metathesis; 8. monophthongization; 9. diphthongization; 10. reduction of skeletal consonants, 11. assimilation; 12. reinforcement sound; and 13. sound loosening.

B. The Summary of Some Theories



CHAPTER IV

MORPHOLOGY

Morphology is the science of the forms of words and formation.¹ In other words, morphology is part of the branch of the linguistic study that studies the arrangement of words and formation of words.²

Morphology is a science that includes words, parts, and processes. Morphology as part of the study is learning about the intricacies of words and everything about the word consisting of the formation or change, which includes words and part-words or morphemes.

According to Ramlan, the morphology discusses the ins and outs of the word and changes in grammatical words and meanings, and units in morphology are morphemes and words.³

¹ Yule, *The Study of Language*, 12.

² William O'grady, *Contemporary Linguistics an Introduction* (Canada: Pearson Education Ltd., 1996), 132.

³ Ramlan, *Morfologi: Suatu Tinauan Deskriptif* (Yogyakarta: CV. Karyono, 2001), 16.

According to Crystal, morphology is a branch of language that discusses in detail the structure of words, the form of words, especially on the application of morphine.⁴

These theories explain how words are objects of studies in morphology and the words as things that are not separate from the object of language studies.

O'Grady has stated that morphology as a transformational generative grammar component that discussed the internal structure of the word, especially the complex word.⁵ This view associates morphological studies with a word structure study. This view is that morphological studies are closely related to the internal structure of the word, which includes the process of forming and the process of changing words.

Some of these theories were reinforced by Bauer's opinion which stated that morphology was a science that discussed the internal structure of the word form.⁶

⁴ David Crystal, *A First Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics* (London: Andre Deutsch), 232-233.

⁵ O'grady, *Contemporary Lingusitics*, 89-90.

⁶ Laurie Bauer, *English Word-Formation* (London: Cambridge University Press, 1983), 33.

The theory means that morphological studies include formed words and internal structures of words. The view was not too far from the previous view which linked morphological studies as a structural internal study of the word.

The word formation process includes the ins and outs of how words are changed and change. In this case, the process includes things before and after the word was formed. In morphology, the analysis divides the word form into the formative component (which is mostly the intangible morph of words or affixes), and strives to explain each formative appearance.

Of some views of experts regarding morphology it can be concluded that morphology is a review of words, word structures, word formation processes, and the process of changing words. The smallest unit of morphological studies is morpheme. Before forming into one word, morpheme is needed as an integral part needed in the process of forming the word, until the process of changing one word occurs.

A. Morpheme

Morphological studies are closely related to studies on morphemes. McCarthy stated that morpheme was the smallest unit of the word that could not be divided anymore, but he had the meaning of both grammatically and lexically.⁷ According to Farkhan, morphemes cannot be divided into smaller forms of language.⁸

Morpheme is a short segment of language which is a word or part of a word that has a meaning. It cannot be divided into smaller meaningful segments without changing its meaning, and it has relatively the same stable meaning in different verbal environments.⁹

There are four terms used in morphological studies, such as: basic morpheme, base shape, stem, and root.

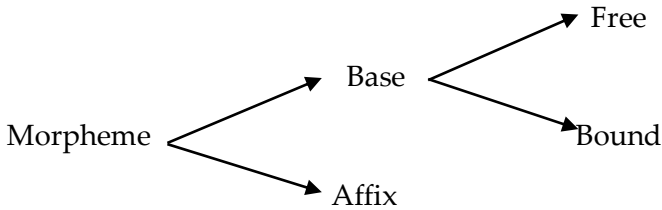
The base of morpheme can be formed into a basic shape or base in the process of word formation; can be

⁷ Andrew Carstairs McCarthy, *English Morphology: Words and Their Structure* (Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press, 2002), 143.

⁸ Muhammad Farkhan, *An Introduction to Linguistics* (Jakarta: Research Institute UIN Jakarta & UIN Jakarta Press, 2006), 51 - 59.

⁹ Chaer, *Linguistik Umum*, 151-152.

added, repeated, and more along with other morpheme. The base form is a basic morpheme that can be a single morpheme and a combination of morpheme. This base forms the basis of a morphological process.



The stem is used to refer to the basic form in the inflection process or the addition of inflective affixation. *The root* is used to call shapes that cannot be further analyzed; remaining root after all affix are removed.¹⁰

Below is an example of the formation of the word from its basic form:

NO.	BASE	
1.	DANCER	DANCERS <u>ₑ</u>
2.	TEACHER	TEACHERS <u>ₑ</u>
3.	LEADER	LEADERS <u>ₑ</u>
4.	MAKER	MAKERS <u>ₑ</u>

¹⁰ Chaer, *Linguistik Umum*, 159-160.

5.	LEARNER	LEARN <u>ERS</u>
6.	BOOK	BOOK <u>S</u>
7.	PEN	PEN <u>S</u>
8.	PENCIL	PENCIL <u>S</u>
9.	ERASER	ERASER <u>S</u>
10.	RULER	RULER <u>S</u>

There are several morphemes described, namely:

1. Free Morpheme & Bound Morpheme

Morpheme is divided into two, namely free morpheme and bound morpheme. *Free morpheme* can stand alone without the addition of other morphemes, for example: "one", and "by". *Bound morpheme* is often known as affix because this morpheme is not the word but is part of the word, for example [-S] in the word studies. Morpheme is also called the term morpheme root, namely morpheme which is a basic form in the formation of the word. The dependent morpheme is morpheme that must first join another morpheme to be used in the first.

Hiring between free morphemes and bound morphemes is called part of the formation of the word.¹¹

2. Whole Morpheme & Divided Morpheme

Whole Morpheme is a morpheme which consists of a whole unit which cannot be further divided into smaller units. All free basic morphemes are included in intact morphemes.

Several examples of complete morphemes such as: {table}, {book}, and {pen}.

While, divided morpheme is a morpheme which consists of two parts.

Example is the word "leader" which has one complete morpheme, namely {lead} and one divided morpheme, namely {-er}.

3. Segmental Morpheme & Supra-segmental Morpheme

Segmental and supra-segmental morphemes are distinguished based on the type of phoneme forming them.

Segmental morpheme is a morpheme formed by segmental phonemes, namely morphemes in the form of sound and can be segmented.

¹¹ McCarthy, *English Morphology*, 146.

Examples of segmental morphemes: {see}, and all morphemes that are sound.

Meanwhile, supra-segmental morphemes are morphemes formed by supra-segmental elements.

Examples of supra-segmental morphemes: Morphemes in pitched languages such as *Ngbaka* in North Congo on the African continent. As a rule, a down note (∖) is for the present, a flat note (-) is for the past, an up and down note (V) is for the future and an up and a down note (/) is for the imperative.

4. Lexical Meaning Morpheme & Lexical Meaningless Morpheme

Lexical meaning morpheme is a morpheme which inherently has meaning without the need for another morpheme. Example: {go}, {walk}, {run}

Meanwhile, lexical meaningless morphemes are morphemes that have no meaning and only have meaning when juxtaposed with other morphemes. Example: {-ly}, {-ing-}, {-s}¹²

¹² Chaer, *Linguistik Umum*, 151-158.

B. Morph & Allomorph

Morph is the name for all the as yet unknown forms. Meanwhile, names with known morpheme status are called allomorphs. Allomorphs can be interpreted as different forms of realization from the same morpheme.¹³

C. Word

The word according to Kridalaksana is a morpheme or combination of morphemes which is considered by the linguist as the smallest unit that can be pronounced as free form.¹⁴

Based on meaning and orthography, linguists define a word as a series of letters between two spaces and have one meaning.¹⁵

According to Stageberg, the word is an original unit of linguistics that is very rarely questioned.¹⁶

The word is the smallest independent unit, or in other words, each independent unit is a word.¹⁷

¹³ Chaer, *Linguistik Umum*, 150.

¹⁴ Kridalaksana, *Linguistic Dictionary*, 110.

¹⁵ Chaer, *Linguistik Umum*, 162.

¹⁶ Stageberg, *An Introductory*, 120.

So, the word is the smallest unit / collection of letters which has meaning and position and is independent.

Word classification is the classification or type of words. In English it is called part of speech. From Aristotle's time until now, word classification has been a topic that is always discussed and not overlooked.

Word classification is very important because of its great benefits, both theoretically and practically. If you already know about word classifications / classes, language users will find it easy to use the word correctly.¹⁸

According to Stageberg, word classification consists of three core classes such as simple words, compound words, and complex words.

Simple Words

Simple words consist of one free morpheme.

Example: shy, short, flat

¹⁷ Kushartanti, Untung Yuwono, and Multamia RMT Lauder, *Pesona Bahasa; First Steps to Understanding Linguistics* (Jakarta: Gramedia Pustaka Utama, 2005), 151.

¹⁸ Chaer, *Linguistik Umum*, 166.

Complex Words

Complex words are words that consist of a combination of two bound morphemes or a combination of a free and bound morpheme.

Example: in | clude (two bound morphemes)

 Lead | er (a free and bound morpheme)

Compound Words

Compound words are a combination of several words that form a new word with different meanings.¹⁹

Example: Ice | Cream

D. Word Formation

The process in the formation of the word is also a study in morphology, even it is the most important part of morphological sub-studies. In the process of forming the word mechanism, the structural rules and procedures, rules and procedures are formed.

The formation of the morphological processes involves basic components or basic forms, forming tools such as affixation, duplication, and composition. The object

¹⁹ Stageberg, *An Introductory*, 122.

of study in morphology is morphological units, morphological processes, and tools in the morphological process.

Yule mentions that the formation of the word includes:

- a. the affixation process (affixed)
- b. conversion process (transfer)
- c. the composition process (merging), and
- d. the process of the inventor or trademark (coinage).²⁰

According to Nur, the morphological process can be said to be the process of forming the word by connecting one more morphemes with other morphemes is a basic form. Morphological processes is as other designation of morphemically processes which are the process of forming plunged molly derivatives and inflective.²¹

According to Nur, there are seven types of other morphological processes: (1) affixation (2) reduplication (3)

²⁰ Yule, *The Study of Language*, 52.

²¹ Tajudin Nur, "Sumbangan Bahasa Arab Terhadap Bahasa Indonesia dalam Perspektif Pengembangan Bahasa dan Budaya", *Humaniora* Vol. 26, Numb. 2, (Juni, 2014), 235—243.

composition (4) internal modification (internal change) (5)

Blank modification.

1. Affixation

Before discussing affixation, we must know first about the affixation. According to Fromkin and Rodman, the affixation is a bound morpheme attached to the base or root morpheme.²²

Affixation is one of three morphological processes. In this process there are several elements such as: basic / basic form, affix, and grammatical meaning produced.

The basis in the affixation process can be root; the smallest shape that can no longer be presented, such as: {book}, {door}, {paper}. This process can be inflective and can also be derivative.²³

The following are some types of affixations, consisting of:

a. Prefix

The process of forming a word by adding an add-in front of the base shape or the process of forming words is

²² Fromkin, *et al.*, *An Introduction to Language*, 519.

²³ Chaer, *Linguistik Umum*, 177-182.

done by kankan or adding or pasting the affix in front of the base shape. Example:

NUMB.	PREFIX	BASE	WORD
1.	<i>Un</i>	Install	Uninstall
		Follow	Unollow
		Like	Unlike
2.	<i>Dis</i>	Agree	Disagree
		Advantage	Disadvantage
		Like	Dislike
3.	<i>Super</i>	Star	Superstar
		Girl	Supergirl
		Boy	Superboy

b. Suffix

The process of forming a word by adding an add at the end of the base shape or the process of forming words is done by kankan or adding or pasting the affix at the end of the base shape.²⁴ Example:

²⁴ Chaer, *Linguistik Umum*, 177-182.

NUMB.	BASE	SUFFIX	WORD
1.	Slow	<i>-ly</i>	Slowly
	Quick		Quickly
	Soft		Softly
2.	Meaning	<i>-less</i>	Meaningless
	Hope		Hopeless
	Home		Homeless
3.	Friend	<i>-ship</i>	Friendship
	Member		Membership
	Citizen		Citizenship

c. Derivational

Derivation is a process of word formation through the addition of affix which can be prefix or suffix. The resulting new word will have a different meaning than the base word; different meanings even different classes; Teach (Verb), Teacher (Noun). Example:

NUMB.	BASE	AFFIX	WORD
1.	Teach	<i>-er</i>	Teacher
	Learn		Learner

	Lead		Leader
--	------	--	--------

d. Inflectional

Inflectional is the opposite of derivational, It is a process of word formation through the addition of affix, which can be prefix or suffix. The resulting new word will not have a different meaning than the base word.²⁵

Example:

NUMB.	BASE	AFFIX	WORD
1.	Slow	-ly	Slowly
	Quick		Quickly
	Soft		Softly

2. Reduplication

Reduplication and the other word formations (next discussion) based on the statement by Stageberg.

Red is a morpheme process that repeats the basic word as a whole, some words and changes the sound (double morphemes). The word resulting from

²⁵ Chaer, *Linguistik Umum*, 175.

reduplication is often found in various languages.

Example:

NUMB.	WORD
1.	Nitwit
2.	Film-flam
3.	Pitter-patter
4.	Lovey-dovey
5.	Super-duper
6.	Night-night
7.	Goody-goody

3. Invention

Invention means there is something that did not exist before.

The invention of a word will always occur because following the changing flow of the times is very likely to present a new word.

4. Clipping

Clipping is a process of word formation that stems from an attempt to drop one morpheme. It is very useful

for easier pronunciation and shorter than the pronunciation of the original words. Example:

1	2	WORD
Mathematics	-	Math
Cellular	Phone	Cellphone
Pianoforte	-	Piano

5. Acronym

An acronym abbreviates for a longer word. This abbreviation is created using the first letter of each word to be abbreviated or use syllables. Example:

ACRONYM	MEAN
ASEAN	Association of South East Asian Nations
ROFL	Rolling on the Floor
TBH	to be Honest

6. Blending

Blending is a process of word formation that combines the first of one word with the last of another word to create a new word and mean.

Example: Smog => smoke and fog
 Brunch => breakfast and lunch

7. Folk Etymology

Folk etymology is a word formation process that adapts unfamiliar words or parts of words with words that are known in a particular language. Example: "*show-and-tell*".

8. Back-Formation

Back-Formation is the process of forming new words by removing the actual or suspected affixes from other words. It means like it is shortened.

9. Antonomasia

Antonomasia is a term in which a descriptive phrase takes the place of a person's name; can range from mild nicknames to epic names; can give someone a strong nickname in memory of one's great deeds.²⁶

²⁶ Stageberg, *An Introductory*, 126-134..

Example:

CASE	NORMAL	ANTONOMASIA
You has a friend who is good at singing and you want to say hello	"Hi, Rika!"	"Hi the great singer!"

CHAPTER V

SYNTAX

Syntax is a combination of words that contain undefined verbs and function as a unit phrase or clause or sentence. It is a branch of linguistics that studies sentence structure and its elements.

Syntax is a branch of linguistics that studies the internal structure of sentences and the interrelationship among the internal parts. It is also as science especially cognitive science.¹

Syntax is often called a grammar component that studies how words are combined to form sentences. Syntax is also considered a system of rules and categories that underline the formation of sentences in human language.

¹ Andrew Carnie, *Syntax* (Arizona: Wiley-Black Well, 2000), 4-6.

The purpose of studying the syntax such as:

1. set the form of the strings used by the language to make statements, ask questions, provide directions, and so on;
2. treat sentence structures and their structural relationships with each other;

The syntactic category is divided into 2 parts:
Lexical & Non-Lexical Categories.

A. Syntax Construction

1. Words

Parts of Speech is a syntactic category or classification that reflects a variety of factors, including the type of meaning that words express, the types of affixes that are taken, and the type of structure in which they occur. We also can call it as “kinds of words”.² It is a fundamental part of English sentences.

There are eight parts of speech, such as: noun, pronoun, verb, adjective, adverb, preposition, conjunction, and interjection. However according to

² Carnie, *Syntax*, 28.

Carnie, there are four parts of speech which are more important than another parties, these are the *noun*, *verb*, *preposition*, and *adverb*.

Noun

Noun is a word used to name people, objects, animals, places, abstract concepts, and more.

The function of the noun is adjusted to its position on the sentence. Noun functions include: as subject of verb, subject / object complement, direct / indirect object, object of preposition.³

Countable and Uncountable Noun

Countable noun is a calculated (book, pen), otherwise uncountable noun is a noun that cannot be counted (sugar, salt).

Example:

Countable noun => Dog eats bones

Uncount. Noun => I bring much money

³ Stageberg, *An Introductory*, 171.

Proper and Common Noun

Proper noun is a specific noun that uses capital letters in the original letter (Bali, Sunday), while common noun is a noun of something that is common (Country, day).

Examples:

Proper noun => Jakarta is the capital city of
Indonesia

Common noun => Bali is the famous place in
Indonesia

Abstract and Concrete Noun

Abstract noun is a noun that cannot be observed / seen / felt by the senses (love, romance). In contrast, concrete noun is a noun that can be observed / seen / felt by the senses (heart, fluorine).

Example:

Abstract noun => Mom is my love

Concrete noun => I look at the moon

Collective Noun

Collective noun is a noun used to state a set name. These nouns can be people (family, audience, team), animals (colony, fish, deer), objects or abstracts.

Examples:

CN of people => Family is supporting system.

CN of animals => Fish are very beautiful

Compound Noun

Noun can collaborate with noun or other parts of speech such as verbs, prepositional phrases, or adjectives to form words with new meanings. It is called by compound noun.

Example:

CN => This is the newspaper.

Verb

Verb is a word that serves to indicate the action of the subject, indicating the event or state.⁴

⁴ Stageberg, *An Introductory*, 175.

Transitive and Intransitive Verb

Transitive verb is a verb followed by a direct object that accepts an action such as: buy, bring, and hit., while an intransitive verb is not followed by a direct object because the action performed by the subject does not involve a direct object such as: listen, arrive, and come.

Examples:

Transitive verb => She sent me a *book*

Intransitive verb => She come from Majasari

Regular and Irregular Verb

Regular verbs are verbs that the majority of past tense and past participle forms get by adding suffix *-ed* or *-d* to the base form, such as: walk, arrive, and help., As for irregular verbs, the past tense and past participle forms are more varied, such as: sing, run, and meet.

Examples:

Regular verb => She walked alone

Irregular verb => She came late

Action and Static Verb

An action verb is a verb to state that the subject is performing an action, such as: listen, play, and study., while static verb is not to declare an action but rather to state conditions that are unchanged or tend not to change, such as: have, love, and owe.

Examples:

Action verb => They study hard

Static verb => Mom love dad

Finite and In-finite Verb

Finite verbs are verbs influenced by tense (present or past) and agreements with subjects in terms of person (first/second/third) and number(singular/plural); transitive & intransitive verb, action & static verb, linking verb, and auxiliary verb., while non-finite verbs are not; present participle, past participle, infinitive, and bare infinitive.

Example:

⇒ You're growing up so slow

Linking Verb

Linking verb is to link the subject of sentence to the description, such as: smell, continue, and grow.

Example:

⇒ You look so beautiful

⇒ I continue this game

⇒ Your smell is nice

Causative Verb

Causative verb is to indicate that the subject makes a person or something do an action. *Let, make, have, and get* are some of the most popular causative verbs.

Example:

⇒ Let's dance together!

Preposition

Preposition is a word that serves to indicate the relationship between the object and the other part of the sentence. This English fore language with its object describes verbs, nouns, or adjectives.

A preposition can only consist of one word preposition, or a combination with another part of speech (complex preposition).

Preposition of Time

The preposition of time is the preposition used to indicate the time, such as: before, during, and after.

Example:

⇒ I was born in Pandeglang

Preposition of Place

Preposition of place is English word used to show places or positions, such as: near, between, and under.

Example:

⇒ Qonita sit between Nina and Nani

Preposition of Movement

Preposition of movement is a preposition used to show a movement, such as: into, around, and off.

Example:

⇒ hafidz walked up to the fence

Preposition of Manner

Preposition of manner is a preposition that indicates the "how to" relationship between the object and other words in a sentence.

Example:

⇒ I went to Malang by airplane

Preposition of Purpose

Preposition of purpose is a preposition that indicates the purpose relationship between the object and other words in a sentence.

Example:

⇒ Taqy is looking for science

Preposition of Quantity/ Measure

The preposition of quantity is an English word that indicates the relationship of "quantity" or "size" between the object and the other words in a sentence, such as: for and by.

Example:

⇒ I've been with you for a year

Adverb

Adverb is a word that serves to describe verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs.⁵

Adverbs are distinguished into several kinds, among others: adverb of time, adverb of manner (way), adverb of degree, adverb of frequency, adverb of place, adverb of modality (hope), and focusing adverb.

Adverb of Time

Adverb of time is an adverb to state the time of an activity or event, such as: tomorrow, yesterday, and finally.

Example:

⇒ I've seen them since yesterday

Adverb of Manner

Adverb of manner is a word of evidence to state how an activity is performed or an event occurred, such as: automatically, clearly, correctly, and slowly.

Example:

⇒ Syakira learned correctly

⁵ Stageberg, *An Introductory*, 179.

Adverb of Degree

Adverb of degrees to specify as far as the form of an activity or event, such as: extremely, strongly, and positively.

Example:

⇒ Nur pulled the motorcycle strongly

Adverb of Frequency

Adverb of frequency is a word of evidence that states how often an activity is performed or an event occurred, such as: usually, often, and always.

Example:

⇒ Yahya is often not breakfast.

Adverb of Place

Adverb of place is a word of evidence to talk about where an activity is performed or an event occurred (location), directions to which a person or something moves (directions), how far a person or something (distance), or a combination between it, such as: nearby, above, and here.

Example:

⇒ Raka stands nearby me

Adverb of Modality

Adverb of modality is a word of evidence to express confidence or hope level, such as: hopefully, perhaps, and probably.

Example:

⇒ Hopefully, you can boast

Focusing Adverb

Focusing adverb is a word of evidence used to show that what is talked limited to the focused, such as: even, in addition, and only.

Example:

⇒ Only one I hope, *istiqomah* of your prayers

Pronoun

Pronoun is a word used to replace noun. Pronoun functions are to replace nouns in the form of people, objects, animals, places, or abstract concepts. Below are some types of pronouns that are often found:

Personal pronoun

Personal pronoun is a pronoun used for specific people, animals, objects, or things. These pronouns

depend on the role (subject, object, and possessive), number, person, and gender of the replaced noun.

Subject	Object	Possessive
I	Me	Mine
You	You	Yours
We	Us	Ours
They	Them	Theirs
He	Him	His
She	Her	Her
It	It	Its

Examples:

Subject => They are supporting system.

Object => Look at it!

Possessive => I am yours.

Demonstrative Pronoun

Demonstrative pronoun is a pronoun that uses quantity and distance. It is usually used for nouns, but it can also be for other than that.

Number	Distance	Pronoun
Singular	Near	This
Plural		These
Singular	Far	That
Plural		Those

Examples:

⇒ This is your book.

⇒ Those are my books.

Interrogative Pronoun

Interrogative pronoun is a pronoun used to create questions (who (ever), what (ever), which (ever), whose, and whom).

Examples:

⇒ What are you doing?

⇒ Who it belongs to?

Indefinite Pronoun

Indefinite pronoun is a pronoun for a person, object, or thing in general (not specific). These pronouns are singular, plural, and blend.

Number	Pronoun
Singular	anybody/anyone everybody/everyone somebody, someone one nobody anything everything less much
Plural	Both several many few fewer ones
Singular/ Plural	All none some any more most

Examples:

⇒ Everyone call me Yuyun.

⇒ Do not touch some books!

Reflexive Pronoun

Reflexive pronoun is a pronoun used to state that subject of a sentence receives a reciprocal action, such as: myself, yourself, herself, himself, itself.

Brief "Part of Speech"

PART OF SPEECH	BASIC FUNCTION
<i>NOUN</i>	names a person, animal, place, or thing
<i>PRONOUN</i>	takes the place of a noun
<i>VERB</i>	identifies action or state of being
<i>ADJECTIVE</i>	modifies a noun
<i>ADVERB</i>	modifies a verb, adjective, or other adverb
<i>PREPOSITION</i>	shows a relationship between a noun (or pronoun) and other

	words in a sentence
<i>CONJUNCTION</i>	joins words, phrases, and clauses
<i>INTERJECTION</i>	expresses emotion

2. Phrases

a. Noun Phrase

Noun can take the form of a phrase called noun phrase where it is the result of a combination of noun (as head) with modifier such as determiner (a, an, the, this, that, these), adjective (funny, interesting, lovely), adverb (too, very, so), and other nouns.⁶

Example:

Np => The family is supporting system.

b. Verb Phrase

A verb phrase is a set of words that represent themselves as verbs.⁷

Formula:

⁶ Stageberg, *An Introductory*, 185.

⁷ Stageberg, *An Introductory*, 187.

(Subject + auxiliary + main verb + component
+ modifier)

Example:

⇒ I will have been studying Italian for three
years.

c. Adjective Phrase

An adjective phrase is a set of words that represent themselves as adjectives.⁸

Example:

⇒ I am very happy living in Indonesia

d. Adverb Phrase

An adverb phrase is a set of words that represent themselves as adverbs.⁹

Some examples: very quickly, slightly close, just a bit, etc.

Example:

⇒ The runner was coming quickly

⁸ M. Jurafsky, and Martin J., *Speech and language processing* (Dorling Kindersley: Pearson Education, Inc., 2000), 362.

3. Clauses

Clauses are groups of words containing subjects and predicates. The subject can be what and or who, whereas the predicate is something inherent in the subject.¹⁰

Subjects can be people, animals, objects, or abstract concepts, while predicates can be verbs or auxiliary verbs. Clauses are divided into two, namely independent clause (which can stand alone, not rely on the other), and dependent clause (which depends on the other, not stand alone).

a. Independent Clause

The independent clause stands alone as a simple sentence. This clause consists of the subject and predicate and has a whole meaning.

Example:

⇒ The event started at 07.00 a.m.

b. Dependent Clause

¹⁰ Abdul Muis Ba'dulu, and Herman, *Morfosintaksis* (Jakarta: Rineka Cipta, 2010), 55.

Although the dependent clause has a structure and predicate, it cannot stand alone because of its hanging or intact meaning.

Example:

⇒ When she arrived

c. Elliptical Clause

An elliptical clause is a dependent clause in which one or more of the constituent elements are omitted because they are considered understood.

Example:

⇒ I hope ~~that~~ you are fine

⇒ I say to her, ~~that~~ he is handsome

4. Sentences

a. Simple Sentence

Simple sentence is sentence that contains only one clause with a single verb group, but a verb group itself can consist of one word.

Example:

⇒ The family is supporting system.

⇒ My name is Nurlaela

b. Compound Sentence

A compound sentence is a sentence consisting of two or more coordinate clauses, joined by a Coordinating Conjunction. Simply put, compound sentence is a combination of two simple sentences combined with a conjunction, such as: or & and

Example:

⇒ Rika goes to the store, and Raka goes to the café

c. Complex Sentence

Complex sentences are sentences consisting of one independent clause/ main sentence, and one or more dependent sentences.

Connecting words that you can use in complex sentences, among others:

1. Conjunctive showing time, such as before, after, when, while, until, since, and so on.
2. Conjuncture that indicates conditions or situations such as if or unless.
3. Conjunctive that indicates causation, such as cause and cause.

4. Conjunctives that indicate conflicting things such as though, eventhough
5. Conjunctions are used to add averbs such as that, when, where, who.

Formula:

(Independent clause (IC) + conjunction + dependent clause (DC)) or

(Conjunction + dependent clause (DC) + Independent clause (IC))

Example:

⇒ I will call after I get the signal

⇒ I will sleep before dad came

B. Syntax Constituents

A constituent is a word or a group of words that work as a solitary unit inside a various leveled structure. The constituent structure of sentences is recognized utilizing tests for constituents in syntactic analysis.¹¹ Every phrase, clause and sentence certainly has a constituent.

¹¹ Osborne (2018) provides a detailed and comprehensive discussion of tests for constituents, having surveyed dozens

Kridalalaksana has stated that constituents are part of a construction.¹²

According to La Palombara, constituents are a syntactic entity that joins other syntax to form a construction.¹³

Based on its distribution in construction, constituencies can be distinguished into three, such as: direct constituencies are one of two or more constituencies that form construction directly; a divided constituency is a single element that arises among other elements; and the final constituent is the resulting component in the final stages of the constituent analysis.¹⁴

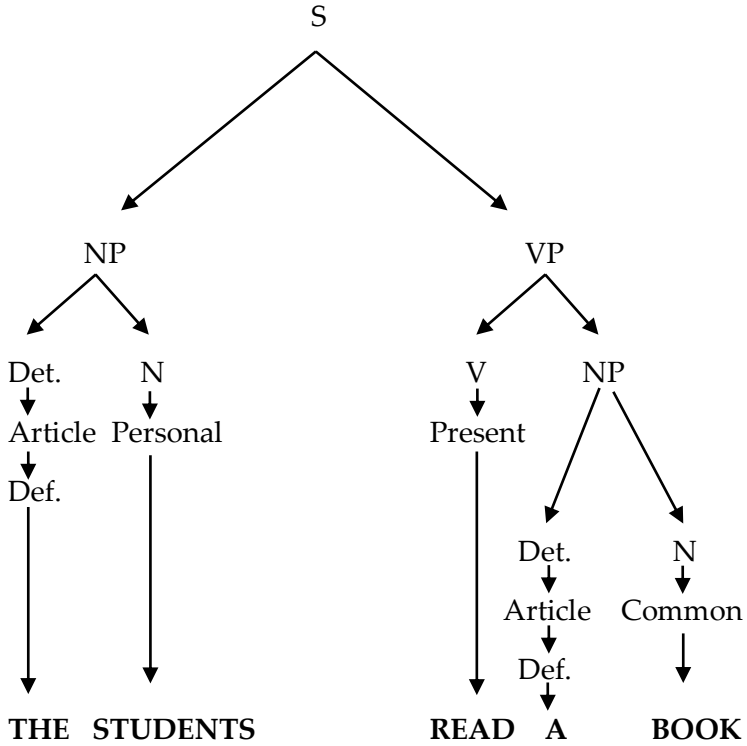
of textbooks on the topic. Osborne's article is available here: Tests for constituents: What they really reveal about the nature of syntactic structure Archived 2018-11-27 at the Wayback Machine. See also Osborne (2019: 2-6, 73-94).

¹² Kridalaksana, *Linguistic Dictionary*, 132.

¹³ Lyda E. LaPalombara, *An Introduction to Grammar* (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Winthrop Publishers, Inc., 1976), 173.

¹⁴ Ba'dulu *etc.*, *Morfosintaksis*, 46.

Constituents' Analyzing



CHAPTER V I

SEMANTICS

Semantics is the study of the meaning expressed by words or sentences which are produced for the communication of lexical meanings and structural meanings.

Semantics is a part of the language structure that is related to the meaning of expressions and also the structure of the meaning of a conversation.¹

Semantic meaning is a form of meaning that is conventional; as part of learning English. The semantic meaning differs from the unconventional pragmatic meaning.²

Each meaning has a component (feature) that associated with the element in that meaning. This is what is called a semantic feature. Every word has one or more components of meaning built into it. The combination of

¹ Kridalaksana, *Linguistic Dictionary*, 216.

² Louise Cummings, *Pragmatics; a Multidisciplinary Perspective* (New York: Oxford University Press Inc., 1999), 4.

several components of the meaning becomes a unity of meaning.

This was stated by Nida that to find the meaning components is very important first to find the meaning relationships that occur between these components so that you can understand the meaning in each word. Despite the meaning on one word consists of several components of meaning, the meaning of one word can be classified into one semantic class based on the meaning component that is core.³

Analysis of the meaning components is based on the differentiating components. This analysis is useful for seeing the contrast between one lexeme and another in the lexical field.

Characteristics of differences in the field of meaning are relying on intuition and experience that has been obtained. In this case there are three signs used to analyze the components of meaning, among others, the plus sign (+), minus (-), and plus minus (\pm).

³ EA, Nida, *Componential Analysis of Meaning* (The Hague: Mouton Publisher, 1975), 33.

The plus sign is used if a certain component of meaning is contained in the lexeme meaning being analyzed. The minus sign is used to indicate if a certain meaning is not found in the lexeme meaning. A plus-minus sign is used when the meaning component may and may not be present in the lexeme meaning.

One of the analysis of meaning components is used to determine whether or not changes have occurred in the meaning of words by knowing the components.

The meaning of two words will get information about closeness, similarity, similarity, or inequality of meaning.⁴

A. Semantics in Linguistics

Semantics is the field of linguistics that studies the relationship between linguistic signs and the things they sign. This field of study in linguistics studies the meaning

⁴ Dick Geeraerts, *Theories of Lexical Semantics* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2010), 70.

or meaning in language. Semantics is the study of meaning which is communicated through language.⁵

Study about the meaning of a word is called lexical semantics. Lexical semantics concerns lexical meaning, namely the meaning that is owned or contained in lexeme even though there is no context whatsoever. Saeed also states that the study of words meaning is also called the study of lexical semantics. The purpose of the description of lexical semantics is to present the meaning of each word and show the part of the meaning of the word in language.

B. Aspects of Semantics

The semantic aspects consist of sign, symbol, signifier, and signified.⁶

Sign

Sign is a pointer to something. Signs can be said to be lexemes which can be directly followed by other forms, for example punctuation marks, proof marks, dividing signs,

⁵ John Saeed, *Semantics* (Oxford: Blackwell Publishers, 1997), 56.

⁶ Pateda, *Semantik Leksikal* (Jakarta: Rineka Cipta, 2010), 35-50.

picture signs, such as: images used as signs of an organization and others.

Example: the sound of an ambulance and the sound of a fire car.

There are 10 types of signs:

1. Quali-sign is a sign that shows quality. The word "sad" shows the quality of the sign.

Example: A woman's eyes are sad

The sentence states that the woman is tired.

2. The iconic sinsign is a sign that shows similarity.

3. Rhematic Indexical sinsign is a sign caused by something and based on experience.

Example: "Caution" sign for a smooth floor.

4. Dicient sinsign is a sign that gives information about something.

Example: A "no parking" sign on the side of a city road.

5. Iconic legisign is a sign that informs the norm or law.

Example: traffic signs.

6. Rhematic Indexical legisign is a sign that refers to a particular object.

Example: The restaurant is there.

7. Dicent Indexical Legisign is a sign that means information and designates the subject of information.

Example: A yellow flag indicates that someone has died.

8. Rhematic Symbol or Symbolic Rheme is a sign associated with its object.

Example: That's a cat.

Why is that? Because there are objects that are in the real world the same as in the picture; cat.

9. Dicent Symbol or what is commonly called a proposition (proposition) is a sign that directly connects with objects through associations in the brain. If someone says, "come here!" the listener's interpretation is immediately associated with the brain, and the listener approaches the speaker.

10. Argument is a sign that is someone inference something based on certain reasons which contain an assessment or reason.

Example: The color is bright.

The speaker says that because the speaker judges what is seen.

Symbol

Symbol is an element of language that is arbitrary and conventional which represents the relationship of objects and their details.⁷

1. Sign of course is a symbol that has a certain meaning as previously explained.
2. Replace or represent; symbol can replace or represent something
3. In oral and written form; symbols can be in the form of spoken and written
4. Meaningful; every symbol has a meaning; emblem of any kind
5. Contains many possible meanings due to sometimes unclear or ambiguity
6. Develop, increase; coat of arms is flexible; growing, increasing

⁷ John Lyons, *Semantics* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1977), 100.

7. Individually
8. Assess
9. Be fruitful
10. Introducing

Signifier and Signified

Simply put, markers are elements associated with or drawing something, such as: a house, whereas what is marked is an idea or concept about it, such as: the idea of a home. Then the sign is an object that combines markers and signage into meaningful units.

C. The Types of Meaning

1. Lexical Meaning

The lexical is an adjective form derived from the lexicon noun form (vocabulary; vocabulary; or vocabulary). Unit of the lexicon is a lexeme, which is a meaningful word unit.⁸ Fromkin asserts that lexical semantics is related to the meaning of the word and meaning relationship between words without any context,

⁸ Geeraerts, *Theories of Lexical*, 83.

literal meaning.⁹ Thus, lexical meaning can be interpreted as meaning that is lexicon, lexeme, or word. Lexical semantics can be understood as a branch of semantics that investigates the meaning of elements of a vocabulary language in general as an independent unit regardless of its position in the sentence. A dictionary is a good example of lexical semantics, because the meaning of each word described there has meaning.¹⁰

According to Geeraerts, the descriptive objectives of lexical semantics are: (a) determining the meaning of each word in a language; and (b) shows how the meanings of words in a language are interrelated.

One of the objects in the study of lexical semantics is loanwords (borrowings).¹¹ Thus, to study the change in meaning of loanwords from a particular language to another language, in this case Arabic into English, one can use the lexical semantic study approach and the meaning

⁹ Fromkin, *et al.*, *An Introduction to Language*, 75.

¹⁰ Geeraerts, *Theories of Lexical*, 87-89.

¹¹ Ferdric W. Field, *Linguistic Borrowing in Bilingual Context* (Amsterdam: John Benjamin Publishing Company, 2002), 77.

components in each language. So that changes and the factors that cause the change in meaning can be found.

Grammatical Meaning

Grammatical meaning / structural meaning is meaning conveyed in sentences according to the order of words and other grammatical signals.

Contextual Meaning

2. Referential & Non-referential Meaning
3. Word & Term Meaning
4. Connotation & Denotation Meaning
5. Conceptual & Associative Meaning

In semantics, conceptual meaning is the exacting or center significance of a word. Nothing is added something extra to terms, no subtext; it's simply an immediate, strict, word reference meaning of the word. The term is likewise called signification or psychological importance as per the content.

6. Idiom Meaning & Its Change

D. Relations in Meaning

According to T. Fatimah Djajasudarma, Aminuddin, and Mansoer Pateda in their own books, there are some relation in meaning¹²¹³¹⁴, such as:

1. Synonyms

Synonym is the same meaning of the word even with different forms.

Example: Student = Learner

2. Antonyms

Antonym is the opposite of the meaning of a word. It is the opposite of synonyms.

Example: Sad # Happy

3. Polysemy

According to Dick Hebdige, polysemy is the same word in form and even sound, but has a different meaning

¹² T. Fatimah Djajasudarma, *Semantik 2* (Bandung: Refika Aditama, 2013), 119-124.

¹³ Mansoer Pateda, *Semantik Leksikal* (Jakarta: Rineka Cipta, 2010), 202-222.

¹⁴ Aminuddin, *Semantik; Pengantar Studi Tentang Makna* (Bandung: Sinar Baru Algensindo, 2011), 110-123.

or infinite meaning.¹⁵ Polysemy refers to the many possible meanings for an existing word or phrase.

Example: She is swimming in bank

I go to the bank

The word "bank" in the first sentence means river to swim, while in the second sentence means bank where to save money.

4. Homonym

Homonym is the existence of two or more words that have the same spelling or pronunciation but different meanings.

Classification of homonyms:

1) Perfect homonyms

It is words that same both in pronunciation and in spelling but different in meaning;

2) Homophones

Homophones are the same of words and same of pronunciation but different spelling and meaning;

¹⁵ Dick Hebdige, *Subculture: The Meaning of Style* (New York: Methuen, 1979). 43.

3) Homographs

Homographs or heteronyms are words same in spelling but different in pronunciation and meaning;

4) Homo-forms are words quite different in meaning but same in some of their grammatical forms;

5. Hyponym

Hyponym is a type of discussion in semantics that is less known or unfamiliar, but this study is actually very important to study.¹⁶

According to Claudia, The hyponym is a special calcification and shows the relationship between hypernym that is becoming common.¹⁷ In conclusion terms, a hyponym is in a specific type-of relationship with its hypernym.

Example: snakes, chameleons, crocodiles are hyponym of reptiles.

¹⁶ David Crystal, *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language*, 2nd ed. (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2003), 37.

¹⁷ Claudia Maienborn, Heusinger Von, Portner Klaus, Paul, eds., *Semantics: An International Handbook of Natural Language Meaning* (Berlin: De Gruyter Mouton, 2011), 112.

6. Ambiguity

Ambiguity is a word, phrase, or statement that contains more than one meaning.¹⁸ An ambiguous word or statement causes ambiguity and confusion to those who accept the language.

Example: Ina saw Rudi in the forest alone

Rudi who is seen alone in the forest, or am Ina alone who sees Rudi in the forest?

7. Redundancy

In linguistics, redundancy refers to information that is disclosed more than once and it is not necessary.¹⁹

Redundancy is the repetition of words, phrases, sentences, paragraphs, or ideas that are unnecessary or called redundant. This is called by waste.

Example: Collaborated together

We can use "collaborated" in order not to waste, then do not use "together".

¹⁸ J.D. Parera, *Dasar-Dasar Analisis Sintaksis* (Jakarta: Erlangga, 2009),70.

¹⁹ Hadumod Bussmann, *Routledge Dictionary of Language and Linguistics* (London: Routledge, 2006), 399-400.

CHAPTER VII

SEMANTICS CHANGES

According to Geeraerts, Semantic changes or word meanings can be manifested by the addition and subtraction of meanings.¹

In addition and subtraction occurs not only in terms of the quantity of words, but also in terms of quality. The change in meaning is part of the changes that have occurred in the history of language which consists of changes in the meaning or semantic function of several vocabularies.

Geeraerts also describes the kinds of changes that occur in the meaning as the following: (1) broadening of meaning (generalization), namely words that have the meaning of one word to another; (2) a narrowing of the meaning (specification), namely the meaning that experiences limitations compared to the original meaning;

¹ Geeraerts, *Theories of Lexical*, 25.

(3) elevation of meaning (amelioration); (4) decrease in meaning; (5) and the exchange of meanings (synesthesia); (6) equality of meaning (associative).

Meanwhile, Hadi explains that the change in meaning that occurs in absorption words is classified into six types of changes, namely: (1) changes based on the category of loan words from Arabic, (2) changes in passive verbs into active verbs; (3) referential changes, (4) changes in meaning are narrowed, (5) changes the meaning extends, and (6) changes the plural meaning to become mufrad.²

Kholison classifies the form of meaning change in three things, namely: 1) limitation of meaning 2) expansion of meaning and 3) transfer of meaning. What is meant by limitation of meaning is a symptom that occurs in a word which initially has a fairly broad meaning, then becomes limited to one meaning only.³

² Hadi, *Kata - kata Arab*, 187-197.

³ Mohammad Kholisin, *Semantik Bahasa Arab; Tinjauan Historis, Teoritis & Aplikatif* (Malang: Lisan Arabi, 2016), 220-222.

Another term for limiting meaning is a narrowing of meaning, whereas what is meant by the expansion of meaning is a symptom that occurs in a word or lexeme which initially only has a meaning, but then due to various factors it has other meanings. For example: the word 'brother' which originally meant 'person who is related by blood' has now expanded its meaning. While that is called meaning transfer is a symptom of a change in meaning that occurs because the original meaning moves or changes into a new meaning.

From the explanation of the change in meaning, the classification described by Hadi is more acceptable in the context of changing meaning in the form of loanwords.⁴

This explanation completes what Kholison explains, while others do not specifically explain the change in meaning that occurs in loanwords. This is because changes in meaning that occur in loan words are simpler than changes in meaning that occur in one language.

Chaer explains that a shift in meaning generally occurs due to several factors, including; developments in

⁴ Hadi, *Kata - kata Arab*, 199.

science and technology, social and cultural development, differences in the field of use, the presence of associations, exchange of sensory responses, differences in responses, existence of abbreviations, grammatical processes, development of terms.⁵

A. Expansion of meaning

The expansion or generalization of meaning is to have a broader meaning than the previous meaning. The expansion of the meaning of the word in question is the words whose meaning experiences a shift in meaning to become larger and wider. An extended concept or expression is the set of things that are extended, or applied, if it is a type of concept or expression that one object can fulfill on its own.

For example, in Indonesian the meaning of "ship" is substantially "a vehicle traveling on water," while the extension includes things such as cargo ships, passenger ships, warships and sailing ships.

⁵ Chaer, *Linguistik Umum*, 103.

B. Narrowing of Meaning

Narrowing of meaning means is having a narrower meaning than the previous meaning. The narrowing of the meaning of the word referred is the words whose meaning has shifted meaning to be less and have a narrower meaning.

Examples of words experiencing a narrowing of meaning: The Pastor, used to have the actual meaning of someone who was an expert on religion, but experienced a narrowing of meaning, meaning only someone who was an expert on Christianity or Christianity.

C. Amelioration (a shift in meaning for improvement)

Amelioration are words whose meaning has shifted in meaning to be better, finer, and more honorable.

Example: It is time for women to be equalized with men in terms of work performance.

The words woman and man in the sentence are equivalent in meaning to the words women and men. However, in this sentence the words women and men were chosen because they felt more respectable than the words

women. Likewise, the use of the word man is more honorable than the word male.

D. Pejoration (shifting meaning gets worse)

Pejoration is a shift in the meaning of a word that causes the word to be less good or unpleasant to hear from the previous word.

Example: A “male” kept contemplating thinking of his daughter at home who was waiting for him with hunger.

The word "husband" undergoes a Pejoration of being "male".

E. Synesthesia (Exchange of Meanings)

Synesthesia is words that experience an exchange in meanings that are captured by the five senses. The word "beautiful" is not only for everything that is seen, but also is heard in place of the word "melodious"

Example: Your voice is so beautiful

F. Association

Association is a reflection of the meaning of a word that is considered to have similar properties with other objects and is considered to represent other objects.

Example: The matter is brought to the Green table
In Indonesia, Green table stands for court.

G. Addition of Meaning to Loan Words

According to Geeraerts and Hadi, the explanation regarding the types of meaning changes based on this explanation is as follows:

1. According to Geeraerts and Hadi, change in referential meaning that referential meaning is a meaning that is directly related to the reference pointed to by the word.

References can be objects, events, processes, or reality. A referral is something the symbol points to. So, if someone says the word river, then that one is appointed by this symbol is land with a wide and long hole in which it flows from the headwaters to the lake or sea. Referential meaning is the meaning of language elements that are very closely related to the world outside of language, whether

objects or ideas, and which can be explained through component analysis. So someone says then the listener immediately connects with the reference. Sometimes the references are imaginary

For example, people say sherbet in English. For those who have never seen it, will probably only imagine it. Hadi gives an example that the word volume in Arabic originally meant 'skin'.

2. Broad meaning is a change in meaning that is more general, general and broad, when the word is absorbed in the target language.⁶ For example, the word *darājāt* (grade) in Arabic becomes degrees in Indonesian, which can mean grade; dignity; rank: or a degree awarded by a college (university) to a student who has passed the required exam.

The meaning of the broad word (extended meaning) shows that the meaning contained in a word is wider than it is considered. Geeraerts explains that the concept of changing meaning like this in English is called widened meaning, namely words that the concept of having a broad

⁶ Hadi, *Kata - kata Arab*, 196.

meaning arises from a narrow meaning. For example, the word *bridde* in mid English which means young *birdling* extends to the word bird (bird).

3. Geeraerts calls this change in meaning a specialized meaning or narrowed meaning, which is a meaning that experiences limitations compared to the meaning originally. This meaning is a narrow tangible meaning in the whole speech. For example, the English word meat, which originally meant food (meaning), changed to flesh food (meat). For example, the word *syaikhi* in Arabic which can mean parents, teachers, teachers, or elders, becomes the word sheikh in Indonesian, which means a teacher who is old and qualified in Islamic scholarship.

4. According to Geeraerts, the plural meaning becomes singular. In English, the plural meaning is the meaning of a word that is more than singular, while in Arabic the meaning of a word is more than two. Loan words sometimes experience a change in meaning, from plural to singular (mufrad). For example, the word spirit in Indonesian. This word is a loan word from the Arabic word *arwāh* which has a plural meaning. When absorbed

into Indonesian turned into a single meaningful word. Another example in English magazine, the word is a loan word from the Arabic word *makhāzin* which means plural.

5. The change in meaning can be motivated by changes in word form categories. Hadi divides the process of changing meaning like this into six types, namely: (1) the category of nouns into verbs, for example the word *rest* in language Arabic becomes a break in Indonesian; (2) *masdar* becomes an adjective, for example the word *ikhlas* in Arabic in Indonesian; (3) *ism* becomes an interjective like the word *devil* in Arabic in Indonesian; (4) *ismul fa'il* becomes an adjective like the word *fair* in Arabic into the Indonesia language; (5) *ismul maf'ul* becomes an adjective category such as the word *mabrur* in Arabic into Indonesian; (6) *Ismut Tafszil* becomes an adjective such as the word *afdal* in Arabic into Indonesian. Meaning of passive becomes active according to Hadi, changes in passive and active meanings occur in loan words from Arabic into Indonesian. For example, the quotes in Indonesian are loan words from words *kutib* [*kutiba*] which means to be quoted. The verb loses its passivity so that it becomes an active verb. The

word *kutiba* 'to be written' is the passive form of the verb *kataba* which means 'to write'.

According to Rohbiah, the change in the semantic word absorption of Arabic in English: (1) changes in referential meanings; (2) widespread change of meaning; (3) the change in meaning narrows; (4) the change of plural meaning to singular; (5) the change of singular meaning to plural; (6) changes in meaning due to category changes; (7) the change of passive meaning becomes active; (8) change of active meaning to passive; and (9) changes in gender meaning.⁷

⁷ Rohbiah, *Arabic Borrowings*, 223-272

CHAPTER VIII

PRAGMATICS

Leech states that the meaning of pragmatics is closely related to speech and its situation.¹

When we say something, it means that we do something. Talking is performing acts according to rules. Take a close look at these utterances; a speaker and a listener.

Pragmatics is different from grammar which studies about the internal structure of language. Pragmatics is the external science of language that studies how language is used is communicating.

According to Kridalaksana, pragmatics is the conditions that study the origin, use and impact of symbols and signs.² Louise Cummings stated that some expressions from linguistics are not just terms, but provide much better

¹ G.N. Leech, *Principles of Pragmatics* (New York: Longman, 1983), 9.

² Kridalaksana, *Linguistic Dictionary*, 198.

examples of the relationship between language and context.³

Pragmatic is a study of how context affects meaning. There are two types of context: physical context and linguistic context.

A. Meaning and Context

Pragmatics talks about language and its context. When interpreting a language in everyday life it certainly requires aspects beyond the language itself (external aspect) of language. Thus, the purpose and purpose of the content conveyed using the language is conveyed well.

B. Speech Acts

The purpose of speech acts is not just to convey the intended information.

According to Searle, there are three types of speech acts:

³ Cummings, *Pragmatics*, 31.

Locution

Locution is an act of utterance or the act of saying something,⁴ the act of saying something is a speech act to state something / more (just saying).

Example: Rainbows are red, orange, yellow, green, blue, indigo, and purple.

The example sentence above is utterance only to inform the listener about the colors of rainbow without any emphasis on doing something or influencing more the listener.

Illocution

Illocution is the purpose of utterance or the act of doing something.⁵ This speech is not just a speech, but it can also make someone do something.

Example: The skies are overcast.

This speech makes the listener to do something; prepare an umbrella if you want to leave the house or take the clothes that are being dried.

⁴ I. Dewa Putu Wijana, *Dasar-Dasar Pragmatik* (Yogyakarta: Penerbit ANDI, 1996), 17.

⁵ Wijana, *Dasar-Dasar Pragmatik*, 19.

Perlocutionary

Perlocutionary is an utterance effect or the act of affecting someone.⁶ This speech has the ability to influence listeners intentionally or unintentionally.

Example: The place is very far from the venue.

This speech is not only a locution, but can also affect the participants of the event. The presenter's house is very far from the venue, so the presenters came not on time.

In addition, speech acts can be classified into two categories, such as: direct speech acts and indirect speech acts. *Direct speech* acts are speech acts whose structure determines the style of illocutionary. For example, "Turn on the lamp!", these speech acts immediately ask others/listeners to turn on the lights. It is as a sentence of command, so include the important one or to the point. *Indirect speech* acts are speech acts that are not directly related to the structure. For example, "Can you turn on the lights?", these speech acts indirectly ask for help to activate the lights.

⁶ J.R. Searle, *Speech Acts; an Essay in The Philosophy of Language* (London: Cambridge University, 1969), 23-24.

There are three basic sentence structures in English in the form of declarative, interrogative and imperative; can be used as a basic indicator of speech acts directly and indirectly.⁷

There are five kinds of speech⁸, namely:

Directive

This speech refers to a command as exemplified above, "Turn on the lamp!"

Expressive

This speech has the characteristic of expressing feelings. Example: "Nice to see you."

Declarative

This speech is a speech that really does something. Example: "Here by stating that the journal I created is an original work and there is no mix of anyone's work."

Commissive

This speech is a speech when you promise to do something in the future. Example: "I'll watch your dance

⁷ Yule, *The Study of Language*, 134.

⁸ Searle, *Speech Acts; an Essay*, 25-28.

squad's art performance, and I'll give you a special gift if you're good at performing later."

Representative

This speech is the simplest. It explains about a piece.

Example: "I am a little girl".

According to Leech, there are several aspects to consider in pragmatic⁹, namely:

Speakers and Listeners

Aspects relating to speakers and listeners, include: age, economic and social background, gender, level of familiarity, place and more. In this discussion, include authors and readers in textual.

Speech Context

The context of speech is the context in all relevant physical or social aspects of the speech in question. Some contexts are: cotext is the usual physical context of context, and context is the context of social setting. The context of the fact is all the background knowledge understood by speakers and listeners.

⁹ Leech, *Principles of Pragmatics*, 11-15.

Speech Purpose

The form of speech expressed by speakers is background by intent and purpose with various forms of speech. In pragmatic, talking is a very closely aligned activity with purpose (*goal oriented activities*).

Speech

Speech is a form of action or activity; clear entities of speakers and listeners, as well as time and place.

Speech as the production of Verbal Acts

Pragmatic speech is a form of speech.

C. Presupposition, Entailment, and Implicature

Sometimes, there are hidden assumptions behind someone's words. In this case it is called presupposition.

Example:

⇒ Why did you come late? (The questioner must have come late)

⇒ Why do you like English lessons? (The person asked liked the English lesson)

The phrase entailment is a phrase that is the relationship between every presupposition, and it is always, "If A is true, Then B must be true."¹⁰

Entailment has similarities with presupposition and implications; assumptions made by listeners about a situation.

Entailment is different from implicature; in entailment all is "definite" and there is no reinterpretation. But in implicature, all things can be interpreted and do not assume that if A is true then B must be true; other possibilities.¹¹

In addition, entailment is also not the same as presupposition. The unclear truth can be summed up so in the presupposition, so that the possibility of misinterpretation could have occurred.

There are two main types of implicature, namely: conventional implicature and conversation implicature.

¹⁰ Evert Willem Beth, *Semantic Entailment and Formal Derivability* (Amsterdam: North-Holland, 1955), 7.

¹¹ Uli Sauerland, and Penka Stateva, *Presupposition and Implicature in Semantic Compositional Semantics* (Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan, 2007), 19.

Conventional Implicature

This implication occurs when a phrase implies something in a context.

Example: Roro is rarely diligent

This example implies that Roro is not always diligent and not always lazy.

Conversation Implicature

This implication occurs when the implication depends on the context.

In conversation, there must be speakers who make maximum efforts in speaking so that the meaning or what is conveyed can be well received. Conversations can run smoothly if the rules of cooperation are adhered to by speakers. The principle of cooperation is a principle with the aim of conversation being cooperative.

According to Grice in *Pragmatics* by Elvi, he has stated that there are a number of maxims that a person engaging in textual and interpersonal conversations must adhere to in order to smooth the process of conversation. There are four maxims of conversation, namely: maxim of

quantity, maxim of quality, maxim of relevance, and maxim of manner.

1. Maxim of Quantity

Maxim of quantity is a principle that focuses on sufficient and clear information provided by the speaker, and is not excessive in providing the information provided; just as necessary. Don't bore your listeners.

Example: "She can't come because she is sick."

This sentence is an example of an informative speech that is not exaggerated.

2. Maxim of Quality

Maxim of quality is a principle that avoids saying something that is believed to be wrong, and something that is less proven true. Maxim of quality requires that the speaker is telling the truth, and not confusing the listener.

Example: ".as well as I know."

The sentence describes doubts about the information to be conveyed. In this maxim, the sentence is forbidden to use; potential to lie even though most people think the speaker is not lying.

3. Maxim of Relevance

The maxim of relevance is a principle that makes a contribution that is relevant to the conversation situation, and does not deviate from what is being discussed.

Example:

A: "There was an ice cream seller an hour ago ..."

B: "I was taking a shower an hour ago"

The sentence shows that B wants A to understand that he did not know if there was an ice cream seller an hour ago.

4. Maxim of Manner

The maxim of manner is a principle that requires the speaker to speak regularly, and avoids vagueness, ambiguity and exaggerated expression. In this maxim, the very principle that is raised focuses on the speaker's way of speaking.¹²

D. Deixis

According to Lyons, deixis comes from a Greek word meaning "to designate" or "to indicate, it has become a

¹² Citraresmana, *Pragmatik*, 46-51.

technical term in grammatical theory to deal with the defining features that language relates to the nature and place of speech. Thus, there is a reference to it; the speaker, close to the speaker, and far from the speaker.

Deixis or contextual information is a thing or function that is points to something outside the language.¹³

Deixis refers to certain things, such as: object, place and time. The three expressions give orders to designate certain contexts so that the meaning of the utterance can be understood properly.

According to Levinson, there are five categories of deixis, such as: person deixis, space deixis, time deixis, social deixis, and discourse deixis.

Personal Deixis

The pronouns can be said to be part of a personal deixis consisting of a first person pronoun: *"I"*, a second person pronoun: *"you"*, and a third person pronoun: *"he"*.

¹³ Kamus Besar Bahasa Indonesia, Ed. Ketiga (Jakarta: Balai Pustaka Departemen Pendidikan Nasional, 2007), 217.

Space Deixis

Space deixis is a deixis related to the location of the speaker and listener.

Example: Bring me that fried chicken!

The sentence refers to the fried chicken "that" which is close to the listener, so the word shows "it" is "this" for the listener because the point of departure between the two is different.

Other words are: there, here, and that.

Time Deixis

Time deixis is a deixis related to the time of the speaker and the listener. The timing of each language is not the same; in English, the expression of time is supported by tense.

Example: He cooks here (today)

He is cooking here (now)

He cooked here (yesterday)

He will cook here (tomorrow)

Social Deixis

Social Deixis expresses the differences in the social or social environment between participants in language. This

deixis causes politeness in language; social differences between the speaker and listener with the topic or reference in the conversation itself.

Example: This is your honor.

The word honorarium is a form of respect for someone who is exalted.

Discourse Deixis

Discourse deixis is related to parts of discourse that have been given or are being developed; anaphora (the first, following) and cataphora (thus, the).¹⁴

E. Politeness Principle

Pragmatics is interpersonal rhetoric that requires the principle of politeness. The principle of politeness has a number of maxims. The following are maxims in the principle of politeness:¹⁵

¹⁴ C. Stephen Levinson, *Pragmatics* (Cambridge University Press), 27-39.

¹⁵ Wijana, *Dasar-Dasar Pragmatik*, 55-61.

Maxim of Wisdom

Maxim of wisdom is a principle that maximizes benefits for others; more polite and respectful. This maxim uses an impositive and commissive speech. The following is an example of a wisdom maxim, where the smaller number has the lower degree of politeness:

Example: Open the door please!

Will you open the door please!

Can you open the door please!

Would you like to open the door please!

Maximum Acceptance

The maxim of acceptance is a principle that maximizes self-harm and minimizes one's own gain. This maxim uses an impositive and commissive speech.

Example: I'll lend you this ball.

Maxim of Generosity

The maxim of generosity is the maxim of politeness in expressing feelings and expressing opinions. This maxim uses expressive and assertive sentences.

Example: A : Your dance is very good

B : I thought, just normal.

Maxim of humility

A maxim of humility is a maxim that maximizes disrespect for oneself and minimizes respect for speaker-self. This maxim uses expressive and assertive sentences.

Example: How nice that person is

Maximum Match

The maxim of match is a maxim that outlines each speaker and listener must maximize the match, and minimize the mismatch between them. This maxim uses expressive and assertive sentences.

Example: A : Arabic is hard?

B : Of course it's hard.

Maxim of Concern

Maxim of sympathy is a maxim that requires each speaker to maximize sympathy and minimize antipathy to the listener / opponent. This maxim uses expressive and assertive sentences.

If the speaker has success, the listener congratulates him, etc.

Example: A : I was accepted to teach in the Islamic Boarding School "Daar El-Nuur" Mandalawangi

B : Wow. Congratulations. I hope you are happy for teaching there.

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BIOGRAPHY

Tatu Siti Rohbiah was born in Jakarta, February 05th, 1983. The third daughter of H. Tubagus Oon Syahroni and Hj. Nuraeni finished elementary school at SD Islam Tambora Jakarta in 1996. Then the writer continued to the junior high school at MTs Futuhiyyah Mranggen Demak, Central Java, until 1998 while studying religion at “Pesantren Putri Al-Badriyah” led by KH. Muhibbin. After that, the writer continued her education at MAK (Madrasah Aliyah Keagamaan) Bahrul Ulum Jombang, East Java. At that boarding school's, the writer also studied religion until 2002.

During at Bahrul Ulum boarding school, the writer has actively studied foreign languages; Arabic and English, both spoken and written. Moreover, while in MAK, all students are required to use a foreign language in daily conversation. The writer also studied at the informal institutions of Arabic, English and computer science education at MAK. Her love of English was applied to the next level of study. The writer majored in English Language and Literature, Faculty of Adab and Humanities, at The Islamic State University (UIN) Jakarta, and graduated in 2006.

The mother of one son named Ahmad Averusia Aleva spends her days teaching, taking care of the household, and taking care of children. She also as the founder of PAUD KOBER Al-Salam in Tirtayasa District of Serang Banten and Islamic Boarding School “Daar El-

Nuur” in Pandeglang-Banten. The writer began her teaching career while still in college. The writer taught English at Pondok Pinang Kindergarten in 2003. After that, the writer was recorded as a permanent teacher at SD and SMP Islam Tambora, West Jakarta, for 3 years. Then, she actively taught at SMK Remaja Pluit, North Jakarta until 2006. The writer was an English tutor at I-Tutor.net, an English course institution with Singaporean methods and curriculum.

After graduating from s1, the writer then taught at the campus of Bina Sarana Informatics (BSI) in english literature, linguistics and translation. After graduating with a master's degree at the University of Jakarta Department of Applied Linguistics in 2009, and currently the writer obtained her Doctorate, graduated with a master's degree in 2019. The writer taught at Indraprasta University (UNINDRA) until 2010, then in 2011 the writer became a permanent lecturer of civil servants in the Faculty of Tarbiyah and The Teacher of Banten State Islamic University in the courses he taught, introduction to Linguistics, Phonology, Morphology, and Semantic. Until now, Lektor in the Functional Department of Lecturers and writers are still actively teaching on the campus.

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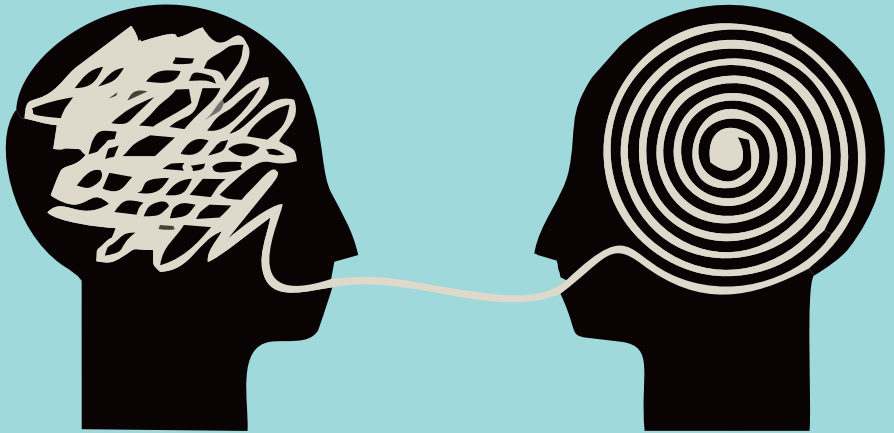
The works of the writer from becoming a lecturer are not fixed until still at The Islamic University of Banten namely conducting research individually or in groups with the theme of research: (1) Translation of Majas Personification

Translation of Majas Personification in English Novels (TSu) "*The Broken Wings*" ke dalam Bahasa Indonesia (TSa) "*Sayap-Sayap Patah*" created by Kahlil Gibran. (Thesis, 2009); (2) Contrastive Analysis of Phonology Between Bantenese, Javanese and English (LPPM UIN Banten), 2013); (3) Alumni Distribution Database of Mu'amalat Faculty of Sharia and Islamic Economics IAIN SMH Banten (Research Survey) (Research Group UIN Banten, 2014); (4) Arabic Word for Absorption in English in Economics (Semantic-Lexical Review) (LEMLIT, 2015); (5) Arabic Words of Absorption in English (Phonological Analysis, Morphology, and Semantics); dan (6) Lexical Innovation of Banten Javanese Language in Serang Regency Border (Geographical-Linguistic Study) (LPPM, 2020).

In addition, there are several papers published in scientific journals including: (1) *English Advertisement in Kompas (A Study of Grammatical Error)* (Wanastra Journal, 2010); (2) *English Borrowings in Indonesian Tourism Registers* (Faktor

Journal, 2011); (3) *Analysis of Rampak Bedug Art as Media of Da'wa in Banten* (Bimas Islam Journal, 2013); (4) *Agribusiness marketing strategies of Al-Ittifaq Islamic Boarding School Bandung* (2013); (5) *Classification and Description of "You" in Indonesian Related with "You" (Kamu) in Plural* (Loquen Journal, 2017), (6) *Perubahan Makna Kata Serapan bahasa Arab dalam Bahasa Inggris pada Istilah Ekonomi* (Jurnal Al Turas, 2017); (7) *English Lexical Loanwords in Indonesian: Exploring in Tourism Magazine* (Jurnal of English Language Teaching and Literature, 2019); (8) *Perubahan Bunyi Vokal pada Kata Serapan Bahasa Arab dalam Bahasa Inggris* (Jurnal Lingua Didaktika, Sinta 3, 2019); and (9) *An analysis of Semantics Changes of English Lexical Borrowings in Indonesian Tourism Field* (Loquen Journal, Sinta 4, 2020).

The writer also has scientific books that have been published among others; (1) *Asyiknya Bermain Teater Sekolah : Langkah-Langkah Praktis* (Madani Publishing 2013); (2) *Fonologi Bahasa Jawa Banten : Suatu Analisis Kontrastif dengan Bahasa Inggris* (Madani Publishing 2014); and (3) *English For Sharia Students 1* (Madani Publishing 2015). To correspond with the writer, it can be via electronic at the address: [ralia84ibra@yahoo.com/](mailto:ralia84ibra@yahoo.com) tatu.siti.rohbiah@uinbanten.ac.id



The purpose of this book is an additional reference for Linguistics subject. Hopefully this book is able to make students understand dealing with Linguistics as one of major compulsory subjects. This book is dedicated to the students of the English Education Department, Faculty of Education and Teachers' Training, State Islamic University Sultan Maulana Hasanuddin Banten.

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*Jl. Syekh Nawawai Al-Bantani KM. 2 KP3B
Pujuh Sukajaya Curug Kota Serang
Banten Kode Pos 42177*

(0254) 7932066 
087771333388 
media.madani81@gmail.com 
madanibookstore81 
Madani Oke 

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