

COGNIZANCE OF APPLIED LINGUISTICS:

**ENGLISH PHONOLOGY, LEXICOLOGY,
MORPHOLOGY, & SYNTAXOLOGY**

Chhorn Than (Ph.D.)



JEILT Publisher

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CHHORN THAN
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Foreword

As the editorial team of Journal of Education Innovation and Language Teaching (JEILT), we have admired Dr. Than Chhorn, who is an author of the book *“Cognizance of Applied Linguistics: English phonology, Lexicology, Morphology, and Syntaxology.”* This book is a guideline that helps educator, trainers, teachers, students, or scholars understand how to analyze and apply the phonology, lexicology, morphology, and syntaxology in their language studies. Students, who pursue the undergraduate and graduate programs, are required to develop the professional subjects. By developing the professional subject, it is needed for learners while schooling at the universities, college, or institutes. Expressly, understanding how to apply and synthesize the phonology, lexicology, morphology, and syntaxology is a challenge for the undergraduate and graduate students. Addressing this issue is important because the students need to be the 21st century learners. This meant that the 21st century learners are required to be proficient in using English language. As part of a major initiative to address in cognizance of applied linguistics, Dr. Than is an educator, specializing in foreign linguistics and applied linguistics. He has experienced in researching linguistics and applied linguistics. Therefore, this textbook forms a valuable addition to existing body of knowledge in linguistics and applied linguistics. Indeed, it is intended for educators, trainers, teacher, students and scholars in inreaching the goals of language developments.

Editorial Team

JEILT Publisher

Preface

If you are planning to take the book *Cognizance to Applied Linguistics: Phonology, Lexicology, Morphology, & Syntaxology*, you are not alone. Countless graduates have signed up to have courses of English linguistics at the universities, and the number keeps growing. For almost all native or non-native speakers of English, who plan to pursue the graduate programs at the universities or colleges in another country, an acceptable score on the exam of English language and linguistic proficiency is a necessity. Preparing for this vital English lecture on applied linguistics can be a difficult and frustrating experience.

One of the ways to ensure success in English linguistic skills is to take practices of English phonology, lexicology, syntax, and morphology. This book is accurate and updated, reflecting the changes in the format of the paper-based principles of English linguistics. The author has established this book to duplicate actual applied linguistics in terms of format, content, and level of difficulty. This textbook covers all the types of items that commonly appear on the actual principles of English linguistics. All items have been carefully and well prepared.

This textbook is designed to offer an in-depth, point-by-point preparation program for English linguistics. However, this textbook can be based on itself.

If you have any questions on this textbook, please not hesitate to contact the author in care of the publisher via phone number +855 89 298 116 or email: chhornthan1984@gmail.com.

To Teachers

Welcome to the book titled *Cognizance of Applied Linguistics: English Phonology, Lexicology, Morphology, & Syntaxology*. This is a textbook designed for the advanced English learner-levels, especially for the upper-secondary teacher-training program.

This textbook consists of four chapters, and each chapter requires five to twenty hours of class time. Organization of this book is highly flexible and complicated – allowing instructors to select chapters or sections of chapters that are suitable for the varying abilities typical of advanced English classes or levels (graduates).

This textbook provides the fundamental and cognitive English linguistics and applied linguistics, with clear language that leads teacher-trainees or learners to cognize the English linguistics. This textbook will help teacher-trainees or students to apply English adequately in their language and linguistic studies. Indeed, it succors the teacher-trainees or students to avoid pronouncing with the mistakes and misunderstanding of English linguistics, in particular, avoiding incorrectness of English linguistics in the learning context.

To Students

Dear Students,

Welcome to *Cognizance of Applied Linguistics: English Phonology, Lexicology, Morphology, & Syntaxology*. The purpose of this book is to help learners meliorate their English linguistics learning. Here, learners will:

- Learn English phonology Phonetics and Phonology.
- Improve the lexicology and morphology in English.
- Fortify and build up the awareness and confidence of English pronunciation.
- Familiarize the stress, intonation, accent, and connected speeches in English.
- Familiarize and recognize the appropriation of lexicons in English.
- Agonize how to construct English syntactically.

Cognizance of Applied Linguistics: English Phonology, Lexicology, Morphology, & Syntaxology has four chapters containing the units or sections of each with the details. These chapters guide graduates or learners on how to learn and improve English linguistic, in particular, the linguistic skills. To help learners elevate their English language learning and linguistic skills, each chapter of this textbook tells graduates or learners the ways to analyze English linguistics in the higher educational context.

Acknowledgment

In the beginning, I would like to thank the students, majoring in English literature, studying *Cognizance to Applied Linguistics: Phonology, Lexicology, Morphology, & Syntaxology*. Nowadays, several graduates want to study the part of *English Linguistics and Applied Linguistics*. Most learners do want to know how to get success in taking English linguistics skills.

Secondly, I would thank the learners or readers for learning and reading the part of this book, although there is no class. On the other hand, most of them want to practice linguistic skills in English.

Thirdly, I wish to thank all learners, who keep learning *Cognizance of Applied Linguistics: English Phonology, Lexicology, Morphology, & Syntaxology*, and I would thank the professors who have encouraged me to take the highly focused consideration in writing the applied linguistics books in English.

Next, I would be grateful to thank my beloved wife **Mam Sokha** who has encouraged me to do research and produce the books in making English academic writing series and English linguistics and applied linguistics series. In the same case, I would thank friends and colleagues who have encouraged me to do something with common sense. After that, I would be grateful to thank my mother **Tep Han**, father **Chhorn Eng**, adored son **Than Puthirith**, and beloved daughter **Than Sokharath**.

Finally, I wish to thank **H.E Dr. Dy Kamboly** (President of Reform Committee of National Institute of Education), **H.E Dr. Sieng Sovanna** (Director of NIE), **Dr. Nauv Vira** (president of scrutinized committee, NIE), **Mr. Mao Saroeun** (member of scrutinized committee, NIE), and members of scrutinized committee, who give a recommendation of writing the English textbooks. Additionally, I would take my gratefulness to thank **Professor Ma Wen** and Professor **Wang Junju**, who encouraged and guided me how to do research and write effectively and comprehensively.

About Author

Dr. Chhorn THAN held the Doctoral Degree of Arts, specialized in Foreign Linguistics and Applied Linguistics at Shandong University, China, in 2021. His Ph.D. Dissertation was *“A Study of Teacher Feedback Impact on Cambodian EFL Students’ L2 writing: Perception, Performance, and Attribution.”* Furthermore, he was the author of two manuscripts entitled *“A Study of L2 Sound Speech to Improve Learners’ Speaking Proficiency”* and *“A Study of Social-Media-Apps Integrated Learners’ Critical Thinking of Second Language Learning,”* which were published at the Journal of Literature, Languages, and Linguistics (JLLL) Vol. 42, 2018. Besides, he was the author of a paper entitled *“Integration of Social-media-apps into Second Language Learning Activities to Improve Critical Thinking in Chinese Foreign Language Learning,”* which was published at Cambodian Journal of Basic and Applied Research (CJBAR), Vol. 1 (2), 2019. Also, he was the author of textbooks named (1) *English Grammatical Application for Academic Writing*, (2) *English Academic Writing 2*, (3) *Educational Research: in Practice & Innovation*, (4) *Advanced English Grammar and Composition Writing*, (5) *An Introduction to Action Research: Writing Thesis*, and (6) *Educational Research Methods: Writing Thesis*.

He received the Master’s Degree of Arts, specialize in English from Cambodian University for Specialties (CUS) in 2016, and he handed the Certificate of Teacher with Higher Education Degree in English Language (CTHED.EL) from National Institute of Education (NIE) in 2015. He further obtained the Bachelor’s Degree in Teaching English as Foreign Language (BA.TEFL) from Western University (WU) in 2013. Also, he gained the Certificate of Teacher with Basic Education Degree in English–Khmer Language (CTBED.EKL) from Regional Training Teacher Center, Kampong Cham Province (RTTC-Kch) in 2010.

He has experienced in teaching English as second or foreign language and research-teaching experience. From 2023 to present, he is a reviewer of the Cambodian Journal of Education and STEM (CJES), Cambodia Education Review (CER), and Association of Southeast Asian Teacher Education Network (AsTEn) journals. Since 2021, he has been a Higher Education Trainer of English literature at National Institute of Education (NIE). He had been as a dean of Institute of Foreign Languages, CUS from 2021 to 2023. From 2016 to 2021, he was an English lecturer at the University of Heng Samrin Thbongkhmum (UHS). In 2010, He was a teacher of English at Heng Samrin Anlungchrey High School. Furthermore, he taught English for the Special Courses at Western International School (WIS) and Pek Vanna Foreign Language School (PVA) in 2008. From 2004 to 2007, he taught English grammar, English as a second language, and English grammar for academic writing at the Asean Mixture Institute (AMI).

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Chapter One

Understanding of English Phonology

Objectives

This chapter helps learners understand and acknowledge the vital aspects of phonetics and phonology in English linguistics, as would be discussed as the following:

- The basics of phonetics and phonology
- The vowels and consonants
- The phoneme Articulation and transcriptions
- The cognitive rules of phonology
- The syllables, stress, intonation, and accent
- The assimilation
- The elision
- The linking and intrusive sounds
- The juncture
- The contractions

Introduction to Cognizance in English Linguistics

In English linguistics, students or learners should understand the phonetics and phonology. Talking about the phonetics and phonology, learners have to understand and acknowledge the essential aspects of English phonetics and phonology, speech systems, cognitive aspects of connected speech. This chapter lets learners recognize how to pronounce English, what speech systems, and how to link or connect speech.

Unit 1

Aspects of Phonetics and Phonology

Some English speakers attract us with their good command of language with correctness of English pronunciation. English is considered a second or foreign language, and Cambodian people are the non-native speakers of English. In the Cambodian context, English is set as an official second language and so there exists serious trouble with regard to the correctness of English pronunciation. Since there are variables of English spoken in different regions of the worldwide, we have often confronted with incorrectness of English pronunciation and mispronunciations in English.

The notable reasons for the incorrectness of English pronunciation

1. In countries where English is the native or first language, children, or learners get enough exposure to English. They learn to respond to sounds and tones, in which their elders habitually use while talking to them. Later they imitate and learn to speak in the accent of mother tongue language.
2. In Cambodia, where English is regarded as a second or foreign language, children or learners listen to wrong sounds and tones spoken by their teachers or grownups. Therefore, they intend to pick up faulty pronunciation in English. This happens mainly due to the lack of sufficient exposure to the right variety of the language.
3. We attempt to speak English as we speak the mother tongue of our language. Due to the influence or interference of our mother tongue language, we make a pile of mistakes in English.

This unit will help students or learners

- Understand the basics of “Phonetics” and “Phonology.”
- Familiarize the students or learners with English sounds and symbols.
- Identify the various reasons for the incorrectness of English pronunciation.
- Learn how to pronounce the vowels, diphthongs, and consonant sound properly.
- Recognize the phoneme articulation and transcriptions
- Realize the phonological rules in English.

1.1 Basics of Phonetics and Phonology

Unlike Cambodian, English makes Cambodian learners have the trouble with writing and pronunciation in English words, particularly, the phonetics and phonology. Phonetics is the study of the sounds that are made by the human voice in speech. Phonetics refers to the physical aspects of language sounds, and it shows how sounds are articulated and perceived, but not how they are organized. Meanwhile, phonetics is the study of the linguistic sounds. Phonology is the study of sounds in a particular language or in generic language, and it refers to the study of sounds organizing in language. Therefore, phonology is the study of sound

systems of a particular language. Phonemes refer to the varied sounds within a language, which articulate the sounds. The phonemes are also known as segments.

The international language, English is regarded as a window to the outside world. As a global language, it has a unique status. English has no one-to-one correspondence between the letters of the alphabets and the sounds they represent. For example, the letter /i/ is pronounced differently in “ink” and “ice” in English linguistics. The letter /K/ in “keep” and /C/ in “cat” is pronounced alike. In English linguistics, one letter of the alphabet stands for more than one sound. Therefore, there is no one to one relationship between English spelling and pronunciation.

Logically Phonetic Alphabet

English alphabets, which consist of twenty-six letters, are used to write English. There are differences between the English writing and pronunciation. Therefore, we demand more alphabets to represent all the English speech sounds. The distinctions of English sound units that assist to pronounce are the phonemes. A phoneme is the minimal sound unit in English linguistics. In the phonetic and phonological linguistics, phoneme refers to a sound unit that can distinguish one word from another in a particular language. Sounds may be voiced and unvoiced (voiceless). A phoneme set contains two types, such as vowel sounds and consonant sounds. Vowel sounds are all voiced and may be single (pure vowel) or a combination (diphthong). Consonant sounds may be voiced and unvoiced based upon the identifications of many pairs of consonants. The study of phonemes is known as phonology. In English linguistics, there are fifty phonemes. The fifty sound units of the English linguistics contain fifty symbols. The pure vowels include twelve single vowels, and the diphthongs contain nine combinations. There are five triphthongs in English linguistics. There are twenty-four consonants in English linguistics.

International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA)

The International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) is an alphabetic system of phonetic notation based upon the Latin script, which is created by the International Phonetic Association in the late 19th century. IPA is considered as the standardized representation of speech sounds in written form. IPA means recording sounds of global languages within a comprehensive system. The alphabet operates on the relationship of one sound and one symbol, and it contains enough symbols to cover every language that has been catalogued.

The IPA is designed to represent those speech qualities that are parts of lexical sounds in oral language: phones, phonemes, intonation, and word and syllable separation. IPA may be used to represent additional speech qualities, such as tooth gnashing, lisping, and cleft lip-palate sounds, extended set of symbols, and extensions of IPA. IPA symbols are composed of one or more elements of two basic types, such as letters and diacritics. For example, the sound of the English letter /t/ may be transcribed in IPA with a single letter [t] or with a letter plus diacritics [tʰ]. Notice that the slashes are used to signal phonemic transcription;

therefore, /t/ is more abstract than either [th] or [t], based upon the context and language. Letters or diacritics, occasionally, are added, removed, or modified by the International Phonetic Association.

International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA)							
Vowels				Consonants			
Pure Vowels	Example	Diphthongs	Example	Voice	Example	Unvoiced	Example
				d			
i	pin	ei	take	b	baby	p	play
i:	sea	əʊ	sew	d	advice	f	fish
ʌ	come	ai	height	g	goat	k	key
ɑ:	heart	ɑʊ	doubt	j	yes	h	hen
e	bed	ɔi	noise	l	look	t	ten
æ	bag	ɪə	dear	m	man	ʃ	shell
ə	woman	eə	care	n	can	tʃ	chair
ɜ:	girl	ʊə	insure	s	sing	θ	thin
ʊ	put	ɔə	pour	v	vain		
u:	fruit	Triphthongs	Example	w	window		
ɔ	what		shower	z	goes		
ɔ:	door		sour	ʒ	genre		
			player	ŋ	string		
			trial	dʒ	age		
			employer	ð	the		
				r	real		

In the IPA, the technical names of vowels indicate three things about a speech sound:

- The height of the tongue (high-mid-low)
- The portion of the tongue that is raised or lowered (front-central-back)
- The tenseness of the tongue (tense-lax)
- The rounding of the lips (rounded-unrounded)

In the IPA, the technical names of consonants indicate three things about a speech sound:

- The state of the vocal cords (voiced or voiceless)
- The place of articulation in the vocal tract (bilabial, ...)
- The manner of articulation or the way the air moves through the vocal tract (fricative, etc.)

Misconception about English Sounds

There are 26 letters of the English language and so most of us believe that there are only 26 sounds of the English language. Because of this misconception, most Cambodian students fail to acquaint the correctness of English pronunciation and accent. In fact, even though there are 26 letters, the various sounds of the English linguistics are regarded as 50 sound units. An alphabet is differentiated from the sound in the English linguistics. Look at the following words that are given as the examples of the speech sounds: *cat, keen, occasion, Chemistry, school*.

In these above-mentioned words **c**, **k**, **cc**, and **ch** have /k/ sound. Sometimes same alphabets may have different sounds. Below are examples that demonstrate the varied sounds of alphabets in English linguistics.

- | | | |
|---|---|----------------------|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none">- Chemist- Schedule- School- Character | } | /Ch/ give /k/ sound |
| | | |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none">- Cheese- Chess- Chief- Cheap- Chad | } | /Ch/ give /tʃ/ sound |

1.2 Vowels and Consonants

Phonemes refer to the different sounds in a language, and they are slightly differentiated in how individuals articulate sounds. Sounds can be voiced and unvoiced. The sounds are voiced when the vocal cords in the human's larynx are vibrated. The sounds are unvoiced when the vocal cords in the human's larynx are not vibrated. The set of phonemes contains the vowel sounds and consonant sounds. The vowel sounds and consonant sounds would be discussed in details as the following.

Vowels

English Vowels are pronounced with an open tract, and there is no formation of air pressure at any point above the glottis. A vowel is a sustainable vocal sound that is made without audible stopping of the breath or friction in its passage out through the mouth. The vowel sounds are all voiced and they may be single or combinations. The vowel sounds are sub-classified into three types, such as pure vowels, diphthongs, and triphthongs. Below are the details of vowel sounds, as would be discussed as the following.

a. Pure Vowels

A pure vowel refers to a vowel sound with the quality of which does not change over the duration of the vowel. The pure vowel sounds of English linguistics comprise twelve sound units. Here are the pure vowels with examples and transcriptions.

Pure Vowels					
Vowels	Examples	transcriptions	Vowels	Examples	Transcriptions
i	sit	/sit/	ə	ago	/əgəʊ/
i:	tea	/ti:/	ɜ:	third	/bɜ:d/
ʌ	but	/bʌt/	ʊ	put	/bʊt/
ɑ:	farm	/fɑ:m/	u:	fool	/fu:l/
e	bet	/bet/	ɔ	chalk	/tʃɔk/
æ	sat	/sæt/	ɔ:	all	/ɔ:l/

In English linguistics, the vowel sounds may appear in the initial, medial, or final position.

Positions of Vowels			
Sounds	Initial	Medial	Final
i	initial, intake, input, ink	Silk, slip, hit, thick	Duty, lovely, beauty
i:	Eat, each, eave, eager	Seed, piece, thief	Sea, key, pea, tea
ʌ	Utter, uplift, undergo	Bus, but, dust, dull	Ø
ɑ:	Aunt, art, answer, artist	Hard, farm, fast	Car, bar, jar
e	Entire, entrance, exist	Bed, dead, wet, red	Ø
æ	Apple, actor, axe, anger	Man, bank, band	Ø
ə	About, ago, allow,	Sentence, factory	Motor, doctor, beggar
ɜ:	Early, earn, earl, earner	Murder, thirty, dirty	Ø
ʊ	Ø	Cook, book, wood, soot	Ø
u:	Ø	Rule, suit, stupid, soon	New, shoe, too, two
ɔ	Office, official oxygen	Bottle, hot, lock, dog	Ø
ɔ:	All, awkward, ought	Call, ball, morning	Raw, saw, claw

b. Diphthongs

The diphthong sounds indicate the vowel quality beginning in one vowel sound and later gliding into another vowel, so as they are gliding vowels. There are nine diphthongs in English linguistics. Notice that the diphthong /ɔə/ is not essential, and it is replaced by the diphthong /ɔ:/.

Vowels					
Diphthongs	Examples	Diphthongs	Examples	Diphthongs	Examples
ei	take	ɑʊ	doubt	eə	care
əʊ	sew	ɔi	noise	ʊə	insure
ai	height	ɪə	dear	ɔə	pour

c. Triphthongs

There are five triphthongs in English linguistics.

Triphthongs		
Sounds	Examples	Transcriptions
əʊə	shower	/jəʊə/
aʊə	sour	/saʊə/
eiə	player	/pleiə/
aiə	trial	/traɪə/
ɔɪə	employer	/ɪmplɔɪə/

Consonants

A consonant is a speech sound that is articulated with the complete or partial closure of the vocal tract. Consonants are produced by restricting and releasing the airflow in three aspects of speech sounds, namely, vibrating the vocal cords, changing the part of the anatomy, which restricts the airflow, and changing the extent to which the airflow is restricted. Unvoiced (voiceless) consonants refer to the consonants with relatively little vibration or no vibration of the vocal cords. Voiced consonants are the consonants with relatively more or high vibration of the vocal cords. Consonants are broken down into several types, based upon what part of the anatomy is used to restrict the airflow. Below are the types of consonants, which are produced by the restricting and releasing the airflow.

- **Labial** refers to the airflow that is restricted with the lips.
- **Dental** refers to the airflow, which is restricted with the teeth.
- **Labiodental** is the airflow that is restricted with the top teeth on the bottom lip (if both lips are used the sound is called bilabial).
- **Alveolar** is the airflow that is restricted by placing the tongue on the hard plate (alveolum) behind the top front teeth.
- **Palatal** refers to the airflow is restricted by placing the tongue on the soft palate behind the alveolum.
- **Velar** is the airflow that is restricted by placing the tongue far back in the mouth.
- **Glottal** refers to the airflow that is restricted by tightening the folds in the vocal cords (glottis).

Consonants can also be categorized by the extent to which the airflow is restricted.

- **Stop** is the airflow, which is stopped and released quickly.
- **Fricative** refers to the airflow that is released gradually.
- **Affricate** refers to the airflow that is stopped and released gradually.
- **Nasal** is the airflow, which is channeled through the nasal cavity.
- **Liquid** refers to the airflow that is channeled around the tongue sides.
- **Glide** is the airflow that is partially restricted only (semi-vowels).

In English linguistics, there are 24 consonants.

Consonants					
Voiced Sounds			Unvoiced Sounds		
Sounds	Examples	Sounds	Examples	Sounds	Examples
b	<i>bat</i>	v	<i>vacancy</i>	p	<i>pen</i>
d	<i>device</i>	w	<i>widower</i>	f	<i>finish</i>
g	<i>got</i>	z	<i>revise</i>	k	<i>keyboard</i>
j	<i>yellow</i>	ʒ	<i>genre</i>	h	<i>heroine</i>
l	<i>leak</i>	ŋ	<i>strength</i>	t	<i>tiny</i>
m	<i>movement</i>	dʒ	<i>edge</i>	ʃ	<i>shall</i>
n	<i>cancel</i>	ð	<i>clothe</i>	tʃ	<i>church</i>
s	<i>sink</i>	r	<i>reality</i>	θ	<i>thick</i>

Faults of Speech Sounds

In the Cambodian context, the sounds /s/ and /z/ are not pronounced correctly in words, and this leads to confusion between pairs.

/z/	/s/
Eyes	Ice
Falls	False
Fears	Hiss
His	Niece
Knees	Fierce

Interchanging of the sounds /ʃ/ and /s/

/ʃ/	/s/
Shave	Save
She	See
Sheet	Seat
Shine	Sign

Confusion between the sounds /v/ and /w/ or /ʃ/ and /ʒ/

Sound Confusions			
/v/	/w/	/ʃ/	/ʒ/
Very	White	Attention	Version
Vest	West	Presentation	Revision
Vine	Why	Situation	Inversion
Voice	Wear	Revolution	Extension

To understand the distinctions between sounds enough practice with tongue twisters is essential. For example, “*She sells sea shells on the sea shore.*”

1.3 Phonemic Articulation and Transcriptions

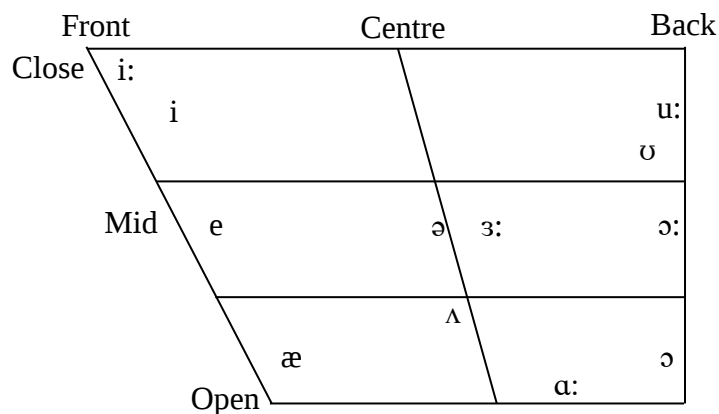
In English linguistics, articulation is a way in which human pronounces words or produces sounds. A transcription is the systematic representation of the spoken language in written form. Transcription should not be confused with translation that means representing the meaning of a language text in a target language. In the academic discipline of English linguistics, transcription is an essential part of the phonetics, and it plays an important role for several subfields of speech technology. The focus of this study is on articulation and transcription in linguistics.

Phonemic Articulation

Transcription is set of rules, which defines how spoken language is to be represented in written symbols. Articulation occurs when the airstream is interrupted, shaped, restricted, and/or perceived. In this section, the vowel articulation and consonant articulation would be discussed in details as the following.

a. Vowel Articulation

When the airstream is voiced through the vibration of the vocal cords in the larynx and shaped by using the tongue and lips to modify the overall mouth shape, the vowels are produced. The tongue position points out the vital reference in describing the variations between vowel sounds.



The vowel space is presented by the diagram in the mouth center where the vowel sounds are articulated.

- “Close,” “Mid,” and “Open” refer to the distance between the tongue and the roof of the mouth.
- “Front,” “Centre,” and “Back” and their corresponding vertical lines refer to the part of the tongue.
- Each phoneme position represents the height of the tongue and the part of the tongue, which is raised.

b. Consonant Articulation

Consonants can be voiced and unvoiced. In addition to the absence or presence of voicing, the consonants may be described in terms of the articulation manner and place. With regard to the articulation manner, the vocal tract may be completely closed. The movement of the lips, tongue, or throat may be closed, so that the sound that is made by air passing through would be heard. The nasal sound is heard when the air is diverted through the nasal passages. Therefore, the consonant sounds are produced based upon the articulation manner, such as plosive /p, b/, affricate /tʃ, dʒ/, fricative /f, v, θ, ð, s, z, ʃ, ʒ, h/, nasal /m, n, ŋ/, lateral /l, r/, and approximant /j, w/. With regard to the articulation place, the consonants may be moved based upon the varied articulators, such as bilabial /p, b, m/, labio-dental /f, v/, dental /θ, ð/, alveolar /t, d, s, z, n, l, r/, palato-alveolar /tʃ, dʒ, ʃ, ʒ/, palatal /j/, velar /k, g, ŋ, w/, and glottal /h/.

Consonant Phonemes of English Linguistics									
		Articulation Place							
		Front _____ Back							
		bilabial	labio-dental	dental	alveolar	palato-alveolar	palatal	velar	glottal
Articulation Manner	Plosive	p b			t d			k g	
	Affricate					tʃ dʒ			
	Fricative		f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ			h
	Nasal	m			n			ŋ	
	Lateral				L r				
	Approximant	(w)					j	w	

(Voice phonemes are bold, and unvoiced phonemes are italic.)

Phoneme Transcriptions

To indicate standard sounds in English linguistics, there are some standard symbols. These symbols are accepted by educated people, which are known as IPA (International Phonetic Alphabet). Using standard symbols for standard sounds is known as transcription of the English linguistics. The transcriptions of English linguistics are broken down into two types, namely, phonetic transcription and phonemic transcription.

a. Phonetic Transcriptions

In English linguistics, phonetic transcription (phonetic notation) is the visual representation of speech sounds by means of symbols. The common type of phonetic transcription uses a phonetic alphabet, such as the International Phonetic Alphabet. Phonetic transcription can be used to transcribe the phonemes of a language and to specify their precise phonetic realization. Most phonetic transcriptions are based on the International Phonetic Alphabet.

According to the International Phonetic Association, a phonetic transcription should be enclosed in square brackets []. A transcription, which denotes phonological contrasts only, may be enclosed in slashes / / instead. In English linguistics, the phonetic transcription is flexibility in how closely sounds that is transcribed. A phonetic transcription is also called narrow transcription. Narrow transcription refers to a close transcription, which indicates precise details of the sounds. For example, home [həʊm], deny [di'nai], cough [kɒf]

b. Phonemic Transcriptions

Phonemic transcription refers to the representation of a word pronunciation and the precise number of phonemes in the word. Phonemic transcription is a representation of phonemic structure, and it is a particular form of broad transcription, which disregards all allophonic difference. Phonemic transcription commonly indicates the phonemes by using the slash /. A transcription, which includes some allophonic detail but closely links to the phonemic structure of an utterance, is called an allophonic transcription. In accordance with the phonemic transcription, two similar sounds may share the same symbol if the variable between the sounds does not change the meaning of the word. Phonemic transcription can be also called broad transcription.

Broad transcription is a transcription that gives a basic idea of the language sounds in the broadest terms only. The broad transcriptions are enclosed in brackets. None of those transcriptions makes any claims about the phonemic sound status. Instead, they represent certain ways to produce the sounds that make up the word. Also, there are several possibilities in how to transcribe the word phonemically, but the differences are generally of not precision but analysis.

Frequently, phonemic symbols will be chosen to avoid diacritics as much as possible, under a “one sound-one symbol” policy. Phonemic symbols should be backed up by explaining their use and meaning, especially when they are as divergent from actual pronunciation. To avoid confusion with the IPA symbols, it may be necessary for specifying when native orthography is being used.

When writing English, the five vowels and twenty-one consonant letters are used. Typically, the twenty-five varied vowels (including eight diphthongs and five triphthongs) and twenty-four consonant sounds are employed when speaking English. Here are examples of using the phonemic transcriptions to indicate the phonemes.

Cough /kɒf/	Though /ðəʊ/	Although /ɔ:l'dəʊ/	Lough /lɒk/
Bough /baʊ/	Bought /bɔ:t/	Right /rait/	Flight /flait/
Rough /rʌf/	Thorough /'θʌrə/	Deny /di'nai/	Busy /'bizi/

1.4 Cognitive Phonological Rules

A phonological rule refers to a formal way of indicating a systematic phonological process or a change of diachronic sound in language. Commonly, the phonological rules are used in phonological generating as a notation to capture sound-operating relation when producing or comprehending spoken language. Phonological rules can be conducted to indicate the mappings between two different sounds representation levels – abstract level and the surface level. In addition, phonological rules express how a speaker goes from the abstract representation to the actual sound articulated when speaking. Phonological rules generally start with the abstract representation of a speech sound and yield the final surface form. For example, [s] is pronounced in the word “books,” [z] is pronounced in the word “pens,” and [ɪz or əz] is pronounced in the word “fishes.” As shown in the above-examples, the surface pronunciations are derived through a series of phonological rules.

The phonological rules are mostly often written by using the distinctive features – natural characteristics describe the acoustic and articulatory makeup of a speech sound. By selecting a particular bundle of features, it is possible to represent a group of speech sounds that form a natural class and pattern together in phonological rules. For example, rather than writing /t/ and /d/ separately, the systematic features may capture the whole set of sounds that are pronounced by placing the tongue against the alveolar ridge. When the rule is applied to a single sound only, rules are written by using the IPA symbols.

Categories of Phonological Rules

The phonological rules are categorized into four types, as would be discussed as follow:

- **Assimilation** refers to a sound that changes one of its features to be more similar to an adjacent sound. This rule happens in the plural rule of English linguistics – the [-s] becomes voiced or voiceless, based on whether or not the preceding consonant is voiced.
- **Dissimilation** refers to a sound, which changes one of its features to become less similar to an adjacent sound – making two sounds more distinguishable. This rule is mostly often seen among people speaking a language, which is not their native language. Meanwhile, the sound contrasts may be difficult.
- **Insertion** refers to an extra sound that is added between two others. This rule also happens in the plural rule of English linguistics. For example, when the plural morpheme [z] is added to “dish,” “dish-z” would be unpronounceable for most English speakers, so as the schwa [ə] or [ɪ] (a short vowel) is inserted between [sh] and the [z].
- **Deletion** refers to a sound, such as a weak consonant, which is not pronounced. For example, in the word “handcraft,” the [d] sounds are not pronounced, so that the [d] sound is deleted.

Unit 2

Speech Segments and Pronunciation

Some English speakers attract us with their good command of the language with the correctness of English pronunciation. English is considered a second language or foreign language, and Cambodian people are the non-native speakers of English. In the Cambodian context, English is established as an official second language and so there exists serious trouble with regard to the correctness of English pronunciation. Since there are variables of English spoken in different regions of the worldwide, we have often confronted with the incorrectness of English pronunciation and mispronunciations in English.

In accordance with the segmental structure of speech, the phonemic segments are perceived in four domains, such as *syllable*, *stress*, *intonation*, and *accent*. In the case of analyzing the phonemes in these domains, it is necessary to describe speech sounds in a well-organized manner. Therefore, it is necessary to distinguish a set of phonemic units. The set of the phonemic features constitutes the minimum set of descriptive parameters that are used to account for the phonological differences between phonemic units of a language. The features that are important in English linguistics are syllable, word and sentence stress, intonation, and accent (pronunciation). The set of all features forms a model of a language and its speech sounds.

Phonemic segment refers to the speech portion with relatively constant phonemic features. With the segments, utterances are often built of linear sequences of segments. Typically, phonemic segments form a syllable. The syllable may be defined in the phonological terms and itself represents a level of higher linguistic organization. The second type of phonemic segments is stress. Stress is commonly applied in words (single word and compound words) and sentences, and it indicates the strong and weak sounds of speech in a language. Another sort of phonemic segments is intonation. Intonation refers to a way in which the pitch of the voice goes up and down in the course of an utterance. The utterance stress and intonation pattern are most commonly linked to the communicative meaning. The last one is accent. Accent refers to the pronunciation in which the speakers pronounce differently, such as Received Pronunciation (RP) or Dialectic Pronunciation (DP). Received Pronunciation refers to the standardized pronunciation of British English. Dialectic Pronunciation or Regional Pronunciation refers to the non-standardized pronunciation of British English.

To complete the framework of speech segments, the utterance may be defined as a stretch of speech by a single speaker delimited by silence and containing no internal pauses whereas the speaking-turn consists of one or more utterances. The linguistic features and phonemic segments are brought together in the process of speech production.

This unit will help students or learners

- Understand the Syllable, Stress, Intonation, and Accent of English linguistics

- Familiarize the students or learners with the pitch (tone) and utterance in English.

2.1 Syllables

It is the smallest convenient unit of speech. Syllables are formed by combining phonemes. All the words in English have one or more syllables. According to the number of syllables in a word, words may be classified into several types, such as monosyllabic words, disyllabic words, tri-syllabic words, and polysyllabic words. Syllable division is usually marked with a hyphen. It is not possible to mark the syllable division in the orthographic representation (ordinary spelling) of English words. It is, therefore, better to write the phonetic transcription of words and mark syllable division in the transcribed versions of words. A syllable will always have a vowel. There may or may not be consonants in a syllable. The number of syllables in a word can be understood by counting the number of vowels in them. The structure of a syllable is (CV) or (CVC). |C| stands for consonant and |V| stands for a vowel. Consonants are optional and so they are placed between the bars.

Syllabic Types

The syllables are categorized into four types, as would be discussed as the following.

- Monosyllabic word
- Disyllabic word
- Tri-syllabic word
- Polysyllabic word

a. Monosyllabic Words

Monosyllabic words refer to the words, which have only one syllable. Below are examples that indicate the monosyllabic words.

Monosyllabic Words					
Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription
Dip	/d ip /	Heat	/ hi:t /	Kill	/ kil /
Art	/ ɑ:t /	Feed	/ fi:d /	Zoo	/ zu: /
Class	/ klɑ:s /	Sad	/ sæd	Mud	/ mʌd /
Cheap	/tʃi:p /	Each	/ i:tʃ /	Eat	/ i:t /

b. Disyllabic words

Disyllabic words refer to the words with two syllables. Syllable division is marked with a hyphen. Here are examples of disyllabic words.

Disyllabic Words					
Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription
Apple	/ æp-l	College	/ kɒl-idʒ /	Battle	/ bæ-t-l/

Engage	/ in-geɪdʒ /	Intact	/ in-tækt /	Intake	/ in-teɪk /
Relax	/ ri-læks /	Rebound	/ ri-baʊnd /	Glitter	/ glɪt-ə /
Lonely	/ ləʊn-li /	Rebuild	/ ri:-bɪld /	Impart	/ ɪm-pɑ:t /

c. Tri-syllabic Words

Tri-syllabic words refer to the words that have three syllables. Examples are listed below.

Tri-syllabic Words					
Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription
Strategy	/ stræt-ə-dʒi /	Imitate	/ ɪm-i-teɪt /	Affection	/ ə-fek-ʃn /
Consider	/ kən-sɪd-ə /	Algebra	/ æl-dʒi-brə /	Predicate	/ pred-i-kæt /
Prepayment	/ pri:-pei-mənt /	Saturday	/ sæt-ə-deɪ /	Satisfy	/ sæt-is-fai /
Promoted	/ prə-məʊ-tɪd /	Pedicure	/ ped-i-kjuə /	Radio	/ rei-di-əʊ /

d. Polysyllabic Words

Polysyllabic words are the words that have more than three syllables. Below are examples of the polysyllabic words.

Polysyllabic Words			
Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription
Propaganda	/ prɒp-ə-gæn-də /	Exterior	/ ɪk-stɪə-ri-ə /
Understandably	/ ʌn-də-stænd-ə-bli /	Exploitation	/ ɛk-splɔɪ-teɪ-ʃən /
Pronunciation	/ prə-nʌn-si-eɪ-ʃən /	Probability	/ prɒb-ə-bɪl-ə-ti /
Temporary	/ tem-pə-rə-ri /	Commercialization	/ kə-mɜ:-ʃə-lai-zeɪ-ʃən /
Complimentary	/ kɒm-pli-men-tə-ri /	Communion	/ kə-mju:-ni-ən /

Syllabic Structure

A syllable is a group of one or more sounds. The essential part of a syllable is a vowel sound (V), which may be preceded by a consonant (C) or a cluster of consonants (CC or CCC). Some syllables consist of just one vowel sound (V). For example, I /aɪ/, own /əʊn/, version /vɜ:ʒən/ or /vɜ:ʒn/. The syllables can be structured with several vowel sounds and consonant sounds. Below are examples of structuring the syllables.

Word	Transcription	Syllabic Structure
- Clap	/ klæp /	c c v c
- Hope	/ həʊp /	c v c
- Late	/ leɪt /	c v-c

- Fauna	/ fə:nə /	C V-C V
- Scream	/ skri:m /	C C C V C
- Remember	/ ri m em bæ /	C V-C V C-C V
- Telephone	/ te-li-fəun /	C V- C V-C V C
- Apologize	/ ə-pɔ-lə-dʒaiz /	V-C V-C V-C V C
- Listlessness	/ list-lis-nis /	C V C C-C V C-C V C
- Potato	/ pə-tei-tou /	C V-C V-C V
- College	/ kɔ-lidʒ /	C V-C V C
- Manner	/ mænə /	CV-CV
- Considering	/ kən-si-də-ring /	C V C-C V-C V-C V CC
- Ability	/ ə-bi-lə-ti /	V-C V-C V-C V
- Passenger	/ pæ-sin-dʒə /	C V-C V C-C V
- Imagine	/ i-m æ-dʒin /	V-C V-C V C
- Languages	/ læŋg-wi-dʒiz /	C V C C-C V-C V C
- Atlantic	/ ət-læ-ntik /	V C-C V C-C V C

2.2 Stress

Stress is a syllable or word that is pronounced with the greater force than other syllables in the same word or other words in the same sentence. In English linguistics, **stress** refers to the relative prominence or emphasis that is given to a certain syllable in a word or to a certain word in a phrase or sentence. Typically, that emphasis is caused by the loudness increase and vowel length, full vowel articulation, and tone changes. The term “stress” is most often used in that context synonymously but is sometimes distinguished.

Syllabic stress is the part of a word, in which the speakers say with greater emphasis than the other syllables. Syllabic stress is also called **Tonic Stress**. The syllabic stress can be broken down into three levels, including stressed syllable, unstressed syllable, and secondary-stressed syllable. **Stressed syllable** (also known as **primary stress**) is symbolized as / ' / and is stressed on words having more than one syllable in which a single syllable in the word is given more emphasis than other syllables. In the stressed syllable, the vowel sound is emphasized by being pronounced longer, louder, and at higher pitch than the syllables surrounded. The stressed syllable's vowel sounds are more likely to be phonetic. Alternatively, an **unstressed syllable** is a part of a word in which the speakers say with less emphasis than the stressed syllable. Frequently, an unstressed syllable is located next to the stressed syllable within a multi-syllabic word. The unstressed syllable's vowel sound is not phonetic and is a schwa sound (natural vowel sound / ə /). In addition, **secondary-stressed syllable** is symbolized like / , /, and it happens two beats off a main stress. It is given more emphasis than unstressed syllable, but not as more as stressed syllable. Secondary-stressed syllable's vowel sound is more likely phonetically pronounced than unstressed syllable.

In English linguistics, **worded stress** refers to the stress placement on the words that are pronounced stronger, longer, and louder than other words in a phrase, clause, or sentence.

The worded stress is used to place the stress on the lexical word (content words) in a phrase, clause, or sentence. The **lexical words** include verbs (main verbs), nouns, adjectives, and adverbs. However, the worded stress is used on the negative auxiliary verbs (e.g., **don't**, **aren't**, and **can't**). Notice that the **functional words** (grammatical words or structural words) are unstressed in a phrase or sentence. The **functional words** include pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, articles, and auxiliary and modal verbs.

Since the term “stress” can be realized through a wide range of phonetic properties, such as loudness, vowel length, and pitch, it is not easy to define stress solely phonetically. The stress has two levels, such as primary stress and secondary stress. **Primary stress** refers to the stressed syllable, which is pronounced strong, long, and loud. **Secondary stress** refers to the secondary-stressed syllable that is pronounced unlikely the stressed syllable. Meanwhile, it is pronounced normally with simple sound.

The stress can be categorized into two types, such as lexical stress and sentence. **Lexical stress** is the stress, which is placed on syllables within words. English linguistics has lexical stress, where the stress position in a word is lexically encoded. In English linguistics, the lexical stress examines the single lexicon stress and compound lexical stress. **Sentence stress** refers to the stress, which is placed on words within sentences. Meanwhile, the sentence stress refers to the stress placement in which it stresses or accents on the lexical-words (content words). However, the stress can also be classified as phrasal stress and contrastive stress. **Phrasal stress** refers to the default emphasis of certain words within phrases, clauses, or sentence. **Contrastive stress** refers to the stress that is used to highlight an item, a word, or a part of a word, which is given particular focus.

Lexical Stress

In English linguistics, lexical stress (word stress) refers to the stress that is placed on the syllable in a word. The position of lexical stress in a word may depend on certain rules that are applicable in the language or dialect. Word classes in a language, in some cases, differ in their stress properties. For example, borrowed words (loanwords) into a language with fixed stress may be preserved as the stress placement from the source language. The stress of lexical stress may be at the first, middle, or last syllable of the words. For dialects of the same language, it may have varied stress placement. For example, the word “laboratory” is stressed on the secondary syllable in British English (/lə'bɒrətɹi/, the second “o” is silent), but the first syllable in American English (/ˈlæbrətɔ:ri/, the first “o” is silent).

Lexical stress is used to stress on the syllable in a word. There are two types of lexical stress, such as single lexical stress and compound lexical stress. These two types of lexical stress are discussed in details as the following.

a. Single Lexical Stress

English is a stress-based language. In a word, the syllables are not pronounced with equal emphasis. For example, the word “ability” is stressed on the second syllable, so as “b” is prominently pronounced louder and longer, but the schwa /ə/ is unstressed. This is known as lexical stress (word stress). Word ‘mother’ is the disyllabic word, and it is stressed on the first syllable, so as the word “mother” is transcribed like /'mʌðə/. In English linguistics, the words that have two or more syllables are stressed or accented based upon the parts of speech. Remember that the words, which contain the monosyllable, are unstressed. The lexicons can be a single lexicon (single word) and compound lexicons (compound words).

The indefinite pronouns are stressed on the first syllable. Here are examples of indefinite pronouns, which are stressed on first syllable, as follow: **someone**, **something**, **anything**, **anyone**, **anybody**, **nothing**, **nobody**, **everyone**, **everything**, **either**, **neither**, **other**, etc. Notice that the word “**another**” is stressed on the second syllable.

Disyllabic words are stressed on the first syllable based upon their parts of speech. Below are examples that indicate the disyllabic lexical stress on first syllable, in **bold** and *italic*.

Disyllabic Words with Stress on First Syllable				
Noun	Adjective	Verb	Preposition	Adverb
Father	Gentle	Listen	Under	Under
Enter	Thorough	Open	Into	Ever
Fellow	Fellow	Argue	Onto	Even
Laughter	Detailed	Wither	Over	Over
Teacher	Modern	Juggle	Forward	Forward
Robber	Crowded	Sentence	Unto	Always
headset	Boring	Tighten	During	Sometimes
Letter	Handsome	Highlight		Somehow
Magnet	Clever	Gabble		Somewhat
Garden	Sleepy	Vacuum		Never
Mother	Happy	Nibble		Often

Disyllabic words are stressed on the second syllable based upon their parts of speech. Here are examples that indicate the disyllabic lexical stress on second syllable, in **bold** and *italic*.

Disyllabic Words with Stress on Second Syllable						
Noun	Adjective	Verb	Ref.Pron	Rel.Pron	Preposition	Adverb
Career	Mundane	Endear	Myself	Whatever	About	About
July	Asleep	Propose	Ourselves	Whoever	Beside	Again
Inside	Humane	Advise	Yourself	Whomever	Inside	Inside
Draftee	Upset	Dismiss	Yourselves	Whichever	Above	Above
Facade	Polite	Withstand	Himself		Below	Below
Macaw	Surprised	Record	Herself		Against	Astern
Outside	Outside	Occur	Itself		Outside	Outside
Artiste	Precise	Remind	Themselves		Beneath	Beneath
Repast	Unfair	Assert			Without	Without
Repair	Correct	Reveal			Towards	Away
Dislike	Exact	Dislike			Throughout	Throughout

Tri-syllable words are stressed or accented on the first syllable depending on their parts of speech. Here are examples that demonstrate the disyllabic lexical stress on first syllable, in **bold** and *italic*.

Tri-syllabic Words with Stress on First Syllable			
Noun	Adjective	Verb	Adverb
Dem ocrat	<i>Poly</i> glot	Dem arcate	<i>Poss</i> ibly
Lam inate	Gen eral	Cal culate	An grily
Barr ister	Reg ular	Demon strate	Sec ondly
In strument	Re levant	Rep licate	Freq uently
Inter est	Res olute	Is olate	Care fully
Pun ishment	Com petent	con secrate	Rap idly
Gov ernment	Gen eral	Rec ognize	Us ually
Gov ernor	Prac tical	Central ize	Freq uently
Gen eral	Graph ical	Sacr ifice	Fret fully

Tri-syllable words are stressed or accented on the second syllable depending on their parts of speech. Here are examples that demonstrate the disyllabic lexical stress on first syllable, in **bold** and *italic*.

Tri-syllabic Words with Stress on Second Syllable			
Noun	Adjective	Verb	Adverb
Behav <i>ior</i>	Exp <i>ensive</i>	Distri <i>bute</i>	Pol <i>itely</i>
Corr <i>ect</i> ness	In <i>active</i>	Disti <i>ngu</i> ish	Pro <i>found</i> ly
Corr <i>ec</i> tion	Conv <i>en</i> ient	Resur <i>face</i>	Pro <i>fu</i> sely
A <i>part</i> ment	Inf <i>or</i> mal	Disc <i>ov</i> er	Alr <i>eady</i>
Dep <i>art</i> ment	Not <i>or</i> ious	Exa <i>m</i> ine	Ext <i>rem</i> ely
Ref <i>us</i> al	Comp <i>et</i> ent	Consec <i>rate</i>	Ina <i>nely</i>

Sometimes, the tri-syllable words are accented on the third syllable. The disyllabic lexical stress is highlighted in **bold** and *italic*. For example, noun/adverb: after*noon*, adjective: inhu*mane*, and verbs: enter*tain*, prepos*sess*, recom*mend*, inter*cept*, inter*link*, intro*duce*.

In English linguistics, the polysyllabic words have varied stress patterns. Here are examples that demonstrate the polysyllabic words with varied stress placement.

Polysyllabic Words with Varied Stress Patterns			
First Syllable	Second Syllable	One Syllable before –ian, -ical, -ically, -al, -ially	Last Syllable before -ion, -tion, -ity
<i>F</i> ascinating	Imp <i>or</i> tantly	Polit <i>ici</i> an	Exami <i>na</i> tion
<i>W</i> onderful	Establi <i>sh</i> ment	Psycholo <i>gi</i> cal	Considera <i>ti</i> on
<i>R</i> easonable	Oblig <i>at</i> ory	Univ <i>er</i> sals	Recommenda <i>ti</i> on
<i>G</i> enerously	Believ <i>ab</i> le	Govern <i>men</i> tal	Encrusta <i>ti</i> on
<i>P</i> hotocopy	Communi <i>ty</i>	Phonolo <i>gi</i> cal	Original <i>ity</i>
<i>P</i> oliticking	Redeem <i>ab</i> le	Polit <i>ic</i> ally	Fragil <i>ity</i>
<i>T</i> abernacle	Psychol <i>og</i> y	Geograph <i>ic</i> al	Decorat <i>ion</i>
<i>I</i> ndicator	Indic <i>at</i> ive	Essent <i>ial</i> ly	Demonstra <i>ti</i> on

Notice that the stress placement may change in the same word when there is a change in the parts of speech. The placement of stress on the words that are functioned as the prepositions and adverbs do not change the placement of the stress. Mostly, the verbs and prepositions are commonly stressed or accented on the second syllable in words. Below are examples of changing the stress placement on second syllable of verbs that change parts of speech from nouns or adjectives and unchanged of prepositions into adverbs.

Stress Placement on the Same Words in Different Parts of Speech			
Noun/adjective	Verb	Preposition	Adverb
<i>Export</i>	<i>Export</i>	<i>Under</i>	<i>Under</i>
<i>Perfect</i>	<i>Perfect</i>	<i>Underneath</i>	<i>Underneath</i>
<i>Present</i>	<i>Present</i>	<i>Below</i>	<i>Below</i>
<i>Produce</i>	<i>Produce</i>	<i>Above</i>	<i>Above</i>

b. Compound Lexical Stress

In English linguistics, there are many compound lexicons (compound words) like *bookshop*, *bedroom*, *postman*, *blackboard*, *lighthouse* etc. The compound words are constructed by putting together two or more words. The two words when they are separate, they are both stressed. Only one word is stressed when they are joined together to form compound words. For example, *breakfast*, *bedroom*, *handmade*, *bad-tempered*, *understand*, *handcuff*, *waterproof*, *reverse engineer*, etc.

i. Compound Nominal-lexicon Stress

Compound nominal-lexicons can be written as one word, separated-words, or hyphenated-words. Nevertheless, compound nominal-lexicons are all compounds, and they are accented without concern for spelling patterns. In English linguistics, compound nominal-lexicons are usually stressed on the first part. In some compound nominal-lexicons, the placement of the stress is on the second part of those compound nominal-lexicons. Below are examples that indicate the compound nominal-lexicon stress, in **bold** and *italic*.

Compound Nominal-Lexicon Stress		
Compound Nominals	Stress on First Part	Stress on Second Part
Noun + Noun	<i>Bus</i> stop, <i>book</i> stall, <i>X-ray</i> , <i>Eye-opener</i> , <i>football</i>	Touch <i>football</i> , cut-throat <i>razor</i>
Adjective + Noun	<i>Software</i> , <i>black</i> ball	Fast <i>food</i> , full <i>moon</i>
Verb + Noun	<i>Breakfast</i> , <i>break</i> age	open <i>class</i> room
V-ing + Noun	<i>Swimming</i> pool	Running <i>water</i>
V-ed/t/en + Noun	<i>Closed</i> season	Closed <i>book</i> , closed <i>shop</i>
Noun + Verb	<i>Mush</i> room cloud	Open <i>book</i> , Close <i>call</i>
Noun + V-ing	<i>Sight</i> seeing, <i>sight</i> -reading	White- <i>water</i> <i>raft</i> ing
Noun + V-ed/t/en	<i>Table</i> painted	Door <i>opened</i>
Verb + Particle (adv./Prep)	<i>Run-off</i> , <i>pick-up</i> , <i>hang-up</i>	
Adverb/Preposition + Verb	<i>Input</i> , <i>under</i> wear, <i>also-ran</i>	<i>Overlook</i> , under <i>graduate</i>
Noun + Adv./Prep (phrase)	<i>Mother-in-law</i> , <i>close-out</i>	Runner- <i>up</i> , hanger- <i>on</i>

Preposition/Adverb + Noun	<i>Underworld</i> , <i>update</i>	<i>Upholder</i>
Noun + Adjective	<i>Breakaway</i> , <i>cupful</i>	Door <i>open</i>
Adjective + Verb	<i>Whitewash</i> , <i>small-talk</i>	White <i>water</i>

ii. Compound Adjectival-Lexicon Stress

A compound adjectival-lexicon is constructed by combining the two or more adjectives or words together. The compound adjectival-lexicons modify the noun or adjective itself. The compound adjectival-lexicons can be written as one word, separated-words, or hyphenated-words. Nevertheless, the compound adjectival-lexicons are all compounds, and they are stressed or accented without concern for spelling patterns. In English linguistics, the compound adjectival-lexicons are often stressed on the second part. In some compound adjectives, the stress placement is on the first part of those compound adjectival-lexicons. Here are some examples that express the compound adjectival-lexicon stress, and the stressed syllables are in **bold** and *italic*.

Compound Adjectival-Lexicon Stress		
Compound Adjectives	Stress on First Part	Stress on Second Part
Noun + Adjective	<i>Hand</i> maiden, <i>Smoke</i> less	Sugar- <i>free</i> , ice- <i>cold</i>
Adjective + Noun	<i>Handy</i> man, <i>down</i> scale	Middle- <i>class</i> , long- <i>term</i>
Noun + Noun	<i>Water</i> proof, <i>child</i> proof	Part- <i>time</i>
Adjective + Adjective	<i>Half</i> -assed, <i>big</i> -blue	Fat- <i>free</i> , full- <i>frontal</i>
Adjective + Past Participle	<i>Narrow</i> -minded	Bad- <i>tempered</i> , middle- <i>aged</i>
Adverb + Past Participle	<i>Brightly</i> -lit	Hard- <i>bitten</i> , well- <i>preserved</i>
Noun + Past Participle	<i>Sun</i> -baked	middle- <i>aged</i> , child- <i>wanted</i> , Man- <i>made</i> , hand <i>made</i>
Noun + Present Participle	<i>Time</i> -consuming, <i>mouth</i> - watering, <i>record</i> -breaking	English- <i>speaking</i> , thought- provoking
Adj. + Present Participle	<i>Critical</i> thinking, <i>forward</i> - looking	Wide- <i>ranging</i> , good- <i>looking</i>
Adv. + Present Participle	<i>Well</i> spring, <i>up</i> coming	Well- <i>doing</i> , well- <i>meaning</i>
Verb (V3/V-ing) + Adverb	<i>Interested</i> in, <i>walk</i> -in	Made- <i>up</i> , born- <i>again</i>
Noun + Adverb/Preposition	<i>Hands</i> -off, <i>hands</i> -on	Hand-to- <i>hand</i> , step-by- <i>step</i>

iii. Compound Verbal-Lexicon Stress

Compound verbal-lexicon is constructed when two or more verbs are joined together to do action the noun as the subject. The compound verbal-lexicons can be written as one word, separated-words, or hyphenated-words. Nevertheless, the compound verbal-lexicons are all

compounds, and they are stressed or accented without concern for spelling patterns. In English linguistics, the compound verbal-lexicons are often stressed on the first part. In some case, compound verbal-lexicons are stressed on the second part of those compound verbal-lexicons. Below are examples that demonstrate the compound verbal-lexicon stress, in **bold** and *italic*.

Compound Verbal-Lexicon Stress		
Compound Verbs	Stress on First Part	Stress on Second Part
Noun + Noun	<i>Water</i> proof, <i>hand</i> cuff	Back <i>engineer</i> , back <i>door</i>
PrepV (Verb + Prep)	Believe in, rely upon,	Ask <i>for</i> , laugh <i>at</i> , wait <i>for</i>
Noun + Verb	<i>House</i> -sit, <i>lip</i> -read, <i>lip</i> -synch	
Verb + Noun	<i>Tiptoe</i> , <i>touch</i> -type	
Verb + Verb	<i>Type</i> -write	Reverse <i>engineer</i>
Serial Verb	<i>Run</i> and look	Wash and <i>dry</i>
Prep/Adv. + Noun	<i>Down</i> size, <i>under</i> -report	Under <i>score</i> , under <i>line</i> , up <i>stage</i>
Adv./Prep + Verb	<i>Input</i>	under-re <i>port</i> , under <i>lie</i> , out <i>grow</i>
PhrV (Verb + Adv.)	<i>Pick</i> up	Get <i>over</i> , go <i>up</i> , go <i>around</i>
Aux. Verb + Verb	<i>Be</i> love, <i>do</i> love	Have been <i>eaten</i> , be <i>done</i>
Single-word Verb	<i>Babysit</i> , <i>weed</i> -whack	Under <i>stand</i> , re <i>write</i> , re <i>think</i>

iv. Compound Adverbial-Lexicon Stress

A compound adverbial-lexicon is constructed by an adverb paired with a noun, an adjective, a verb, or an adverb itself. The compound adverbial-lexicons are constructed to modify the verb, adjective, adverb, or entire clause, and they can be written as one word, separated-words, or hyphenated-words. However, compound adverbial-lexicons are all compounds, and they are stressed or accented without concern for patterns of spelling. In English linguistics, the compound adverbial-lexicons are often stressed on the second part. In some case, compound adverbial-lexicons are stressed on the first part of those compound adverbial-lexicons. Here are examples that indicate the compound adverbial-lexicon stress, in **bold** and *italic*.

Compound Adverbial-Lexicon Stress		
Compound Adverbs	Stress on First Part	Stress on Second Part
Adv./Prep + Adv./Prep	<i>After</i> wards, <i>for</i> ward	With <i>out</i> , early <i>on</i> , here <i>after</i>
Adv. + Noun/Adj.	<i>Som</i> etimes, be <i>fore</i> hand	In- <i>bed</i> , in <i>side</i> , out <i>side</i> , in <i>doors</i>

Adv. + Noun/pronoun	<i>Somewhat, someday</i>	in- <i>house</i> , <i>today</i> , <i>tonight</i> , <i>upstairs</i>
Adv. + Adv.	<i>Somehow, therefore</i>	Overall, very <i>well</i> , <i>moreover</i>
Noun + Adv.	<i>Homeward, skyward</i>	
Noun + Noun/Adj.	<i>Yesterday</i>	Right <i>of</i> certainty
Adv./Prep + Adv.	Over-large, <i>near</i> enough	Too <i>boldly</i> , far <i>enough</i>
Self + Adverb		Self- <i>confidently</i> , self- <i>consciously</i>
Adv. + Participle	<i>Well</i> known, <i>fast</i> -talking	Fully <i>employed</i> , well-fed <i>cattle</i>
Adv. (Phr.) + Adj.	<i>Equally</i> productive means	All too compl <i>acent</i> attitudes

Rules of Lexical Stress

Making the stress on the syllable in a word, it helps the listeners understand the speakers' spoken language well. In English linguistics, there are differences of grammatically ruling the lexical stress based upon the parts of speech. Remember that a lexicon (word) can have only one stress, and the vowels are stressed, but not consonants. Five vowels among the consonants of 26 alphabet letters include **a, e, i, o, u**. However, there are several exceptions of rules because of complexity of the lexical stress (word stress) rules. Here are the details of accenting or stressing on the syllable in words depending on the grammatical rules.

a. Core or Generic Lexical Stress

In English linguistics, core or generic lexicons (core/generic words) that have two or more syllables are stressed or accented on the syllable in lexicons (words) based upon the parts of speech. The syllabic stress (tonic stress) of the lexical stress may be placed on the first, second, or last syllable of the disyllabic, tri-syllabic, or polysyllabic words in general. The syllables that are accented are in **bold** and *italic*.

1. The stress is usually placed on the first syllable of disyllabic nouns and adjectives. Here are examples of stressing on the first syllable of disyllabic nouns and adjectives, as follow: nouns (*f*ather, *e*nter, *f*ellow, *h*eadset, *t*eacher, *l*etter, *m*agnet, *g*arden, *r*obber, etc.) and adjectives (*g*entle, *t*horough, *d*etailed, *m*odern, *c*rowded, *h*appy, *b*oring, *s*leepy, etc.).

Notice that disyllabic nouns and adjectives, in some case, are stressed or accented on the second syllable. The examples of stress placement on the second syllable of disyllabic nouns and adjectives are given as follow: nouns (dis*l*ike, mac*caw*, art*i*ste, rep*ast*, etc.) and adjectives (mund*ane*, hum*ane*, pol*i*te, prec*i*se, corr*e*ct, etc.).

2. The stress is usually placed on the first syllable of disyllabic words (lexicons) that are functioned as indefinite pronouns. Here are examples of stressing on the first syllable of

disyllabic-indefinite pronouns, as follow: *someone*, *something*, *somebody*, *nothing*, *anyone*, *anything*, *nobody*, *everyone*, *everybody*, *either*, *neither*, *other*, etc. In the contrary, the indefinite pronoun “*another*” is stressed or accented on the second syllable.

3. For disyllabic adverbs, the stress is often placed on the first syllable. Here are examples of placing the stress on the first syllable of disyllabic adverbs, as follow: *under*, *ever*, *never*, *over*, *often*, *seldom*, *little*, *further*, *rather*, *very*, etc. However, the disyllabic adverbs can be stressed or accented on the second syllable, for example, *again*, *enough*, *above*, *below*, *beneath*, *astern*, etc.

4. For disyllabic verbs and prepositions, the stress is usually placed on the second syllable. Here are examples of disyllabic verbs and prepositions that are stressed and accented on the second syllable, as follow: verbs (*endear*, *occur*, *propose*, *advise*, *record*, *remind*, *assert*, *reveal*, etc.) and prepositions (*about*, *beside*, *below*, *against*, *beneath*, *toward*, *above*, etc.). Notice that there are a large number of exceptions, which have stressed syllable (primary stress) on the first syllable in the disyllabic verbs and prepositions. Here are examples of placing the stress on the first of disyllabic verbs and prepositions, as follow: verbs (*argue*, *beckon*, *cancel*, *gable*, *kindle*, *hinder*, *fasten*, etc.) and prepositions (*after*, *during*, *into*, *onto*, *under*, etc.).

Remember that the stress placement may change in the same words of disyllabic words when there is a change in the parts of speech. However, the stress placement of prepositions and adverbs is not changed when there is a change in the parts of speech. The examples of changing the stress placement are given as follow: nouns/adjectives (*export*, *perfect*, *present*, *produce*, etc.) to verbs (*export*, *perfect*, *present*, *produce*, etc.) and prepositions (*under*, *below*, *above*, *underneath*, *before*, *after*, etc.) to adverbs (*under*, *below*, *above*, *underneath*, *before*, *after*, etc.).

5. The tri-syllabic nouns and adjectives are most commonly stressed or accented on the first syllable. Here are examples of stressing on first syllable of tri-syllabic nouns and adjectives, as follow: nouns (*barrister*, *interest*, etc.) and adjectives (*polyglot*, *relevant*, *competent*, *resolute*, *regular*, etc.). In some case, tri-syllabic nouns and adjectives are stressed on the second syllable, for example, nouns (*behavior*, *umbrella*, etc.) and adjectives (*competent*, *indulgent*, etc.)

6. The tri-syllabic verbs are most commonly stressed or accented on the second syllable. The examples of stressing on the second syllable of tri-syllabic verbs are given as follow: *distribute*, *distinguish*, *resurface*, *discover*, *consecrate*, *examine*, etc. However, there are exceptions that have stress placement on the first syllable of tri-syllabic verbs, for example, *isolate*, *demonstrate*, *replicate*, *calculate*, *demarkate*, *consecrate*, *centralize*, *sacrifice*, etc.

Notice that the tri-syllabic words are sometimes stressed or accented on the third syllable. The examples of stressing on the third syllable of the tri-syllabic words are given as follow:

adjective (inhuman**e**) and verbs (entertain, preposs**ess**, recom**men**d, inter**cept**, inter**link**, intro**duce**, etc.). In fact, every verb that begins with the letters “**G, H, J, K, L, and M**” has its primary stress placement on the first syllable rather than the second syllable.

7. In English linguistics, the polysyllabic words have the varied stress patterns. Examples of the polysyllabic words with varied stress placement are given as follow: **tab**ernacle, recon**na**issance, ob**lig**atory, **dic**tionary, didger**idoo**, etc.

b. Stress Rules of Root-Lexicons (Root-Word) with Prefixes

In English linguistics, every word that is combined with the prefix are stressed or accented on the syllable of its root-word. The prefixes that are combined with the root-lexicons (root-words) include *a-*, *be-*, *re-*, *dis-*, *im-*, *non-*, *un-*, *under-*, *in-*, *il-*, *ill-*, *ir-*. Notice that the prefix “*il-*” is used before the lexicons beginning with L; prefix “*im-*” is used before the lexicons beginning with B, M, or P. Prefix “*ir-*” is used before the lexicons beginning with R. Here are examples of the stress placement on the syllable of root-words combining with the prefix, as follow: **away**, **ago**, **below**, **belong**, **beloved**, **record**, **rewrite**, **reconsider**, **recount**, **dislike**, **dismiss**, **distress**, **disguise**, **impossible**, **imbed**, **immature**, **non-bio**, **non-aligned**, **unabashed**, **undo**, **undergo**, **in-service**, **in-store**, **inability**, **in-house**, **insane**, **illegal**, **ill-advised**, **ill-fated**, **irregular**, **irrelevant**, etc.

Notice that all lexicons combining with the prefix “*re-*” are stressed on the syllable “*re-*” when those lexicons (words) are functioned as nouns. The examples are given as follow: **rewrite**, **record**, **recount**, etc. However, the stress is placed on the syllable “*in-*” when “*in*” is functioned as preposition or adverb. For example, **inborn**, **inbox**, **inbuilt**, **in-joke**, **in-law**, **inbound**, etc. For more details, please see in the compound lexical stress. Remember that when the prefix “*multi-*” is combined with other words, the stress is placed on the syllable of the root-words. For example, multi-**dimensional**, multi-**disciplinary**, multi-**ethnic**, multi-**faceted**, multi-**storey**, multi-**cultural**, multi-**purpose**, etc.

c. Stress Rules of Root-Lexicons (Root-Words) with Suffixes

In English linguistics, every word that is combined with the suffixes is stressed or accented on the syllable of its root-word or suffix based upon the suffix patterns.

1. In English linguistics, every word that is ended with the suffix “*ly*” is usually stressed or accented on the syllable of its root-word. The examples are given as follow: **loudly**, **quietly**, **deeply**, **kindly**, **clearly**, **cruelly**, **simply**, **nicely**, **rarely**, **freely**, **truly**, **slowly**, **highly**, **possibly**, **angrily**, **carefully**, **frequently**, **fretfully**, **politely**, **profoundly**, **inanely**, **profusely**, **extremely**, **advantageously**, **courageously**, etc.

2. The disyllabic verbs that are ended in “*-ate*, *-ise*, *-ize*, *-ct*” are stressed on the last syllable. Here are examples of placing the stress on the last syllable of these verbs, as follow: **attract**, **cremate**, **narrate**, **debate**, **baptize**, **inject**, **project**, **infect**, etc.

3. Every word that is combined with the inflectional suffixes “-s, -es, -ing, -ed/t/d” is stressed or accented on the syllable of its root. For example, *students*, *matches*, *boxes*, *considering*, *participated*, *replied*, *experienced*, etc.

4. In English linguistics, every word that is combined with the derivational suffixes “-en, -age, -ance, -ant, -er, -or, -ess, -ful, -hood, -ice, -ive, -ish, -less, -ment, -ness, -ship, -ter, -ar, -zen” is stressed or accented on the syllable of its root. For example, *strengthen*, *marriage*, *encourage*, *importance*, *important*, *participant*, *importer*, *visitor*, *governor*, *inventor*, *business*, *waitress*, *goddess*, *careful*, *beautiful*, *childhood*, *neighborhood*, *practice*, *sacrifice*, *active*, *productive*, *expensive*, *donnish*, *English*, *selfish*, *punish*, *childish*, *document*, *government*, *correctness*, *carelessness*, *relationship*, *friendship*, *teacher*, *presenter*, *beggar*, *burglar*, *dozen*, *citizen*, etc.

5. The words that end with the suffixes “-are, -aire, -eer, -ental, -ential, -escent, -esque, -ique, -ee, -ette, -ete, -ade, -ese, -oon” are most commonly stressed on the suffix. The examples are given as follow: *declare*, *compare*, *questionnaire*, *millionaire*, *billionaire*, *pioneer*, *career*, *existential*, *adolescent*, *grotesque*, *technique*, *unique*, *physique*, *payee*, *goatee*, *agree*, *guarantee*, *picturesque*, *gazette*, *replete*, *delete*, *complete*, *barricade*, *Chinese*, *Siamese*, *balloon*, *afternoon*, *cartoon*, *continental*, etc.

Remember that “*earthenware*” is a compound adjectival-lexicon, and “*software*” and “*nightmare*” are the compound nominative-lexicons, so that these lexicons are stressed on the syllable of basic words.

6. In English linguistics, if a word ending in “-consonant” or in “-y” is stressed or accented on the first syllable. Here are examples, *gradient*, *generous*, *country*, *embassy*, *faculty*, *dangerous*, *sorry*, *worry*, *pretty*, *busy*, *body*, *melody*, etc.

7. A word ending with the suffix “-ance” or “-ence” is stressed on the syllable of its root. For example, *violence*, *competence*, *absence*, *sentence*, *balance*, *audience*, *equivalence*, *performance*, *importance*, etc.

8. The tri-syllabic words ending with the suffix “-er” or “-ly” is stressed on the first syllable of the root-words. Here are examples, *orderly*, *silently*, *lovingly*, *manager*, *gardener*, *easier*, *earlier*, etc.

9. The words ending with the suffixes “-ion” (also -sion, -tion, -ation, or -ition) is stressed on the last syllable of the root-words. For example, *permissions*, *revision*, *participation*, *classification*, *reposition*, *obsession*, *restoration*, *repetition*, *application*, *introduction*, *assimilation*, *examination*, *explanation*, *simplification*, *vermillion*, *production*, *million*, etc.

10. The words ending with the suffixes “-ary, -ory, -orary” are stressed on the syllable of the root-words. Here are examples as follow: *secretary*, *dictionary*, *contrary*, *contemporary*, *oratory*, *factory*, *disciplinary*, etc.

11. The words ending with the suffixes ‘-ic, -ics, -ical, -ically, -ial, -ially, -ia, -cian, -ian, -ient, -osis, -ible, -ery, -able, -ious/eous” are stressed on the last syllable of root-words before the suffix. Here are examples as follow: *archaic*, *platonic*, *practical*, *phonological*, *photographically*, *photochemical*, *characteristic*, *diabetics*, *characteristics*, *memorial*, *special*, *substantial*, *essential*, *financial*, *differential*, *essentially*, *media*, *bacteria*, *victoria*, *musician*, *politician*, *librarian*, *comedian*, *civilian*, *patient*, *ancient*, *ingredient*, *advantageous*, *hypnosis*, *diagnosis*, *osmosis*, *resistible*, *impossible*, *terrible*, *very*, *robbery*, *bakery*, *scenery*, *addable*, *durable*, *laughable*, *curious*, *laborious*, *rebellious*, *spontaneous*, *courageous*, *serious*, *various*, *mysterious*, *religious*, *medical*, *medically*, *refinery*, etc.

12. The words ending with the suffix ‘-ism” are commonly stressed on the first syllable of the root-words. The examples of these words are given as follow: *pragmatism*, *plagiarism*, *sexism*, *feminism*, *Buddhism*, *activism*, etc.

13. The words ending with the suffix “-ity” are commonly stressed on the last syllable of the root-words before the suffix. The examples are given as follow: *abnormality*, *ability*, *responsibility*, *possibility*, *normality*, *abdominal*, *generality*, *informality*, *capability*, *ability*, *curiosity*, *creativity*, *magnanimity*, etc.

14. The words ending with the suffixes “-al, ally, -ual, -ually” are commonly stressed on the syllable of the root-words. The examples of these words are given as follow: *approval*, *adjectival*, *verbal*, *medicinal*, *general*, *refusal*, *generally*, *referral*, *abnormal*, *abnormally*, *usual*, *perpetual*, *usually*, *perpetually*, *normal*, *professional*, *cultural*, *optional*, *formal*, *informally*, *informal*, *informational*, *optimal*, *multi-cultural*, *capital*, *unusual*, *marital*, etc.

15. In English linguistics, the words ending with the suffix ‘-ist” are commonly stressed on the first syllable of the root-words. The examples of these words are given as follow: *pragmatist*, *plagiarist*, *sexist*, *feminist*, *Buddhist*, *Marxist*, *activist*, *tourist*, etc.

16. Words ending with the suffixes “-ate, -ise/ize, -fy” are stressed on the third syllable or fourth syllable from the end. Here are examples, as follow: *duplicate*, *modernize*, *cultivate*, *beautify*, *educate*, *criticize*, *satisfy*, *revolutionize*, *professionalize*, *generalize*, *characterize*, *modify*, *simplify*, *specify*, *characterize*, *deactivate*, *classify*, *declassify*, *categorize*, etc.

17. The words ending with the suffixes “-cracy, -crat, -graph, -graphy, -meter, -logy” are stressed or accented on the third syllable from the end. The examples of these words are given as follow: *democracy*, *autocracy*, *autocrat*, *autocrat*, *bureaucracy*, *criminology*, *zoology*, *paragraph*, *parameter*, *sociology*, *anthropology*, etc.

d. Rules of Compound Lexical Stress

In English linguistics, there are several rules of placing the stress on the compound lexicons based upon the types of compound lexicons. This article raises the four main categories of compound lexicons (compound words). The rules of forming the compound lexicons would be discussed in details as the following.

i. Rules of Compound Nominal-Lexicon Stress

A compound nominal-lexicon (compound noun) can be constructed with a noun plus noun, a noun plus verb, a noun plus participle (present and past participle), an adjective plus noun, a verb plus noun, or a participle plus noun. A compound nominal-lexicon, in which it is made out of two nouns or lexicons (words), is often stressed or accented on the stressed syllable of the first part (word). The examples are given as follow: **sea**food, **I**celand, **foot**ball, **book**store, **X**-ray, **soft**ware, **white** house, **break**fast, **swim**ming pool, **closed** season, **mush**room cloud, **sight**seeing, **table** painted, etc.

In some case, there are exceptions of rules that the stress placement is on the stressed syllable (primary stress) of the second part of the compound nominal-lexicons. For example, touch **foot**ball, cutthroat **razor**, full **moon**, open **class**room, running **water**, closed **shop**, open **book**, close **call**, white-water **raft**ing, door **opened**, etc.

Notice that when noun plus compound nouns (two-lexicon compound nouns), the stress placement is on the first word. For example, **air**plane mechanic, **project** manager, **board** member, etc.

ii. Rules of Compound Adjectival-Lexicon Stress

A compound adjectival-lexicon (compound adjective) can be constructed with a noun plus noun, an adjective plus noun, a noun plus adjective, an adjective plus adjective, an adjective plus participle (present and past participle), an adverb plus participle, a noun plus participle, a verb plus adverb, or a participle plus adverb. A compound adjectival-lexicon that is made out of two adjectives or lexicons (words) is most commonly stressed or accented on the stressed syllable (primary stress) of the second part (word). For example, sugar-**free**, long-**term**, part-**time**, half-**decent**, middle-**aged**, hard-**bitten**, hand-**made**, thought-**provoking**, good-**looking**, well-**meaning**, made-**up**, hacked **off**, run-**down**, etc.

However, there are exceptions of rules that the stress placement is on the stressed syllable of the first part of compound adjectival-lexicons. For example, **hand**maiden, **smoke**less, **handy**man, **child**proof, **big** blue, **brightly**-lit, **sun**-baked, **time**-consuming, **forward**-looking, **up**coming, **walk**-in, etc.

iii. Rules of Compound Verbal-Lexicon Stress

A compound verbal-lexicon (compound verb) can be constructed with a noun plus noun, a prepositional verb (verb plus prepositional phrase), a noun plus verb, a verb plus noun, a

verb plus verb, a serial verb, a preposition/adverb plus noun, an adverb/preposition plus verb, a phrasal verb (verb plus adverb), an auxiliary verb plus verb, or a single-word verb. A compound verbal-lexicon in which it is made out of two verbs or lexicons (words) is most often stressed or accented on the stressed syllable (primary stress) of the first part. The examples are given as follow: **water**proof, **believe** in, **house**-sit, **touch**-type, **typewrite**, **run** and look, **downsize**, **input**, **pick**-up, **be** love, **do** love, **babysit**, etc.

There, sometimes, are exceptions of rules that the stress is placed on the stressed syllable of the second part of compound verbal-lexicons. For example, back **engineer**, ask **for**, laugh **at**, reverse **engineer**, wash and **dry**, **underscore**, **upstage**, under**lie**, out**grow**, be **done**, have been **eaten**, under**stand**, re**write**, etc.

Notice that when a subject contains two or more verbs in a sentence, the stress placement of compound verbal-lexicon is on the second part or last part. Here are examples, as follow:

- Sokha loves meat but **detests** vegetables.
- Dr. THAN worked at UHST and **lectured** Applied Linguistics course.
- Dogs love to eat bones and love to **drink** water.

iv. Rules of Compound Adverbial-Lexicon Stress

Compound adverbial-lexicon (compound adverb) can be formed with an adverb or preposition plus adverb or preposition, adverb plus noun or adjective, adverb plus noun or pronoun, adverb plus adverb, a noun plus adverb, a noun plus noun or adjective, adverb or preposition plus adverb, self plus adverb, adverb plus participle, or adverb (phrase) plus adjective. A compound adverbial-lexicon, which is made out of two adverbs or lexicons (words), is most commonly stressed on the stressed syllable (primary stress) of the second part. Here are examples of placing the stress on compound adverbial-lexicons, as follow: without, early **on**, there**after**, in-**bed**, **outside**, **outdoors**, in-**house**, **tonight**, **upstairs**, **overall**, very **well**, right **of** certainty, too **boldly**, far **enough**, self-**confidently**, self-**consciously**, full **employed**, well-fed **cattle**, all too **complacent** attitudes, etc.

Nevertheless, there are exceptions of rules that the stress is on the stressed syllable of the first part of compound adverbial-lexicons. For example, **afterward**, **forward**, **sometimes**, **beforehand**, **someday**, **somewhat**, **somehow**, **therefore**, **homeward**, **skyward**, **yesterday**, **over-large**, **near** enough, **fast**-talking, **equally** productive means, **well** known, etc.

v. Proper Nouns

The proper noun, in which it is the specific name of the person, place, or thing, is most commonly stressed on the second word. For example, North **America**, Dr. **THAN**, Apple **Incorporated**, Cambodian **Assembly**, etc.

vi. Reflexive Pronouns

Reflexive pronouns refer to the words that indicate the actions affecting the person performing the action. Meanwhile, the pronouns that end with the suffix “-self” are stressed on the suffix. For example, *myself*, *ourselves*, *yourself*, *yourselves*, *himself*, *herself*, *itself*, *themselves*.

vii. Wh... Question Words

The Wh... question words, which are used to ask for information and are combined with the suffix “-ever,” are stressed on the suffix. The examples are given as follow: *however*, *whatever*, *whenever*, *wherever*, *whichever* *whomever*, *whoever*.

viii. Numbers

If the number is a multiple of ten, the stress placement is on the first syllable. The examples are given as follow: *ten*, *fifty*, *ninety*, *one*-hundred, etc.

Phrasal Stress

A phrasal stress is mostly assigned to the phrasal segment. Phrasal stress, similar to the compound lexical stress, refers to a form of stress over the other types of lexical phrase (grammatical phrase). A lexical phrase (grammatical phrase) refers to a collection of words that work together as a unit. Lexical (grammatical phrase) adds meaning to sentences by providing detail about one or more uses of the parts of speech in usage. Lexical phrase has its own stress patterns, where one of the lexical stresses is pronounced stronger and louder than the others in a phrase. Phrasal stress is the stress that is assigned beyond lexical (word) stress in syntactic collocations of lexicons (words), such as phrases, clauses, or sentences. The lexical phrase (grammatical phrase) has the varied types, such as nominative-lexical phrase, adjectival-lexical phrase, phrasal verbal-lexicon, etc. The lexicons (words) that are stressed in a phrase, clause, or sentence are lexical words (content words). The functional words (grammatical or structural words) are unstressed in a phrase, clause, or sentence. Therefore, phrasal stress is assigned in the same representation as lexical (word) stress. The phrasal stress is **bold** and *italic*, and lexical stress is underlined, as the examples given below.

- The sister of **Sokha** (Who did you meet?)
- The government of Cam**bo**dia established the lockdown **are**as. (Guess what)
- The sister of **Sokha** went to Bokor resort for her vacation.

a. Nominal-lexical Phrase Stress

Nominal-lexical phrase (noun phrase) refers to a nominal-lexicon (noun) that is combined with the modifiers (adjectives, articles, and determiners). For example, *a pornographic video projection*, *a book*, etc. In a nominal-lexical phrase, the nominal-lexicon (noun) most often gains more stress or accent than the accompanying adjectival-lexicons or other modifiers. Here are examples, as follow:

- A class **president**
- A new **computer**

- The chemistry **professor** cancelled class today.
- I am interested in applied **linguistics**.

b. Adjectival-lexical Phrasal Stress

An adjectival-lexical phrase (adjective phrase) refers to an adjectival-lexicon (adjective) by itself (e.g., in a predicate or with adverbial modifiers). An adjectival-lexical phrase can be the prepositional-lexical phrase, infinitival-lexical phrase, participial-lexical phrase, or adjectival-lexical phrase itself. For example, *singing in a bar*, *with the red blouse*, *being good at mathematics*, *to get the scholarship*, *heaven up on the floor*, *very happy*, etc. In an adjectival-lexical phrase, the adjectival-lexicon (adjective) usually receives more stress or accent than the preceding adverbs or other modifiers. Notice that the adjectival-lexical phrases that stand after nominal-lexicon modify the nominals (nouns), so as they become nominal-lexical phrase. The adjectival-lexicons are stressed when they are the predicative adjective or stand after the main verb or linking verb. The examples are given as follow:

- Very **interesting**
- Sokharath looks very **beautiful**.
- This soup sounds greatly **tasty**.
- A boy living in Phnom Penh is **my** cousin.
- A girl speaking coolly to me is quite **charming**.
- A girl spoken coolly to me is **well known** as the top star.
- A tall fat white man Tanakong was **heaved** up on the floor.
- Sokha is **friendly**.

c. Phrasal Verbal-Lexicon Stress

A phrasal verbal-lexicon (phrasal verb) refers to a combination of words that contain the verbal-lexicon (verb) and a particle (adverb). Notice that the phrasal verbal-lexicons are usually two or sometimes three lexicons (words) long. The phrasal verbal-lexicon may be functioned as both a noun and a verb, and it, sometimes, is functioned even as an adjective. For example, *look after*, *take off*, *wake up*, *get up*, *turn on*, *look up to*, *put away*, *do over*, *run into*, *run across*, *look-in*, *run-in*, *run-off*, *pick-up*, *hang-up*, *walk-in*, *run-down*, etc.

When a phrasal verbal-lexicon is functioned as a verb describing an action, the stress is most often placed on the particle (adverb) or second word. Here are examples, as follow:

- Turn **off** the **TV** before you **sleep**.
- I **went** to the **library** to take **out** the Applied Linguistics **books**.
- My **family** is going to **have takeout** for **dinner tonight**.
- Pick **up** the **books** under the table.

When a phrasal verbal-lexicon is functioned as a noun or an adjective, the stress is usually placed on the first word. Here are examples, as follow:

- I **have** the **turn-off** to Mr. Sok's **behavior**. (noun)
- It is a **walk-in** dental **clinic**. (adjective)

- Sokha is *interested* in the medical *books*. (adjective)
- He *loves* *pick-up* the *rubbish* in the public place. (noun)

Contrastive Stress

A contrastive stress is a stress on a word or syllable contrary to its ordinary accentuation in terms to contrast it with a word or syllable alternation. A contrastive stress refers to the stress in which the words or syllables are emphasized to indicate their relationship to other words or syllables, and it is a stress on the word or syllable with focus attention to how spoken lexical information that highlights explicit and implicit contrasts. A contrastive stress shows relative prominence of a word within the utterance that contrasts that word with others being used in its place. In English linguistics, a contrastive stress is functioned to highlight new information. Meanwhile, the contrastive stress had three main functions of prominence in English speech.

The first function of a contrastive stress is to help the listeners (native listeners) easily understand the speaker's message by giving a rhythmic and melodic shape to English speech. Typically, prominence happens on the last lexical word (content word) of a phrase or sentence. Notice that a rise in pitch is on the prominent syllable before a final fall in pitch at the end of the sentence, but a fall in pitch may also be occurred on the prominent syllable before a subsequent rise, as it is typical in utterances with the rising intonation. In English speech, native-English speakers, in either case, always have the pitch change on the prominent syllable, extra syllable length, and extra loudness.

Here are some examples of the first function of contrastive stress in a phrase or sentence.

- Sokha was at her *house*. (pitch rising on prominent syllable before final pitch falling)
- It is *cloudy*. (pitch rising on prominent syllable before final pitch falling)
- Dr. THAN is at the *meeting*. (pitch rising on prominent syllable before final pitch falling)
- Sokharath will be in class *early*. (pitch falling on prominent syllable before a subsequent rise)

The second function of a contrastive stress is to express the information structure in which it highlights new information and de-accent the given information. This function type of a contrastive stress is a common pattern in English, but it is complicated and difficult to learn quickly because it is a cognitive demand.

The third function of a contrastive stress is to indicate the contrasts that may be used for the explicit comparing attention, correction of misinformation, or connections to not-expressed semantic categories.

Contrastive stress refers to the special prominence use that is not restricted by the ordinary prominence patterns (prominence on the last lexical word) or by information structure patterns (prominence on the last lexical word of new information). The contrastive stress

may happen on any word or part of a word, whether that word or syllable is unstressed. Even if contrastive stress occurs in ordinary places, it may have the greater pitch change and length than ordinary prominence.

The expression of a contrast is unlikely as the marking new information. The contrary expression evokes the special pragmatic meanings relevant to semantic categories instead. Contrastive prominence is learnable at varied proficiency levels, for both perception and production.

Contrasts may be expressed explicitly or implicitly by speakers, based upon the intention and full intention of speakers. In English linguistics, the ordinary prominence is always on the lexical words (form/content words), but contrastive prominence can be on the functional words (grammatical words or structural words) to express explicit or implicit intentional focus.

- It is more difficult to walk **up** the stairs than **down** the stairs. (explicit contrast)
- Sokha fell **up** the stairs yesterday. (implicit contrast to **down**)
- The tie is on the **top** self, not the **bottom** self.
- The picture is **on** the wall.
- You may find your shoes **under** the table.

Typically, ordinary prominence happens on the lexical words only. Lexical words include nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. Contrastive prominence, however, can happen on any type of words, both lexical words and functional words. The functional words include prepositions, conjunctions, determiners, qualifiers/intensifiers, interrogatives, pronouns, and articles. Contrastive prominence (stress) can be more than one contrast in a sentence.

- Sokha likes to **drive** not **walk**.
- Sokha asked **her** daughter, "Do you like **Bread** or **Pizza**?"
- Puthirith said, "I dislike **her**."
- I ran **across** Dr. THAN **on** the street **yesterday**.
- Your book is **on** the table, not **under** the table.
- He is an **unknown** man, not a **known** man.
- **Which** sweater do **you** want to **wear**?
- The **tree** had lost all of **its** leaves by **October**.
- Chanthy ran **down** the **old** stairs **rather** quickly.
- I ran **down** the **rather** old stairs **quickly**.
- **What** is your name?
- Sok said that he can **eat** or he can **talk**, but not **together**.
- **She** is always **happy**, but **she** is sometimes **sad**.

Notice that the contrastive stress is not only placed on the final lexical word of the utterance, but it may also be placed on the functional word to express the contrastive meaning of the

speaker's conveying. The contrastive stress is most commonly signaled by the lexical and grammatical features.

- It is **in** the drawer, not **on** the table.
- I gave the gold ring to **his** mother, not **hers**.

Sentence Stress

A sentence stress refers to the worded stress that is stressed on the certain words within a sentence. A sentence stress is also called prosodic stress, and it is usually determined by whether a word is considered a lexical word (form/content word) or a functional word (grammatical word or structural word), and the vocal space between the stressed words creates a rhythm of a sentence. Like lexical stress (word stress), the sentence stress can help the listeners understand the speakers' spoken English.

Mostly, the sentences have two basic types of words, such as lexical words and functional words. The lexical words are the key words in a sentence – carrying the meaning or sense of the sentence. The lexical words cannot remove from a sentence. If the lexical words are removed from a sentence, a sentence will have no understandable meaning or sense. The functional words are not the vital words in a sentence – the simple words that make the sentence correct grammatically. The functional words can be removed from a sentence. If the functional words are removed from a sentence, a sentence still has understandable meaning or sense. The lexical words are stressed in a sentence. Sometimes, the functional words are also stressed in a sentence. The examples are given as follow:

- Will you **sell** my **car** because I have **gone** to **Thailand**?
- The students **left** the **class** without any **permission**.
- **They** have been to **Kep** for **their** vacation.
- Yesterday, I met Dr. THAN **on** the way to work.

a. Sentence Stress Rules

The sentence stress has three basic rules, as the following:

- The lexical words (content words) are stressed.
- The functional words (grammatical or structural words) are unstressed.
- The time between the stressed words is most always the same.

The lexical words include main verbs, nouns, adjectives, adverbs, and negative auxiliary verb (don't, cannot, aren't). The lexical words are considered as the words that carry the meaning or sense. Functional words include pronouns, prepositions, articles, determiners, conjunctions, auxiliary verbs (pure/modal auxiliary verbs), qualifiers/intensifier, and interrogatives. Sometimes, there are exceptions of rules for stress placement of a sentence stress on the functional words to correct information.

- Sokharath ran **quickly** to the **desk**.
- Sokha have **earned** the **money** for buying a **new** car.
- The **tie** is **in** the **dresser**.

- *You* will find *your* book *in* the *drawer*.
- *Who* will *come* to the *party*?
- *Puthirith* is a *responsible* person.
- Are you *sure*?

b. Types of Sentence Stress

The sentence stresses are categorized into three types, as follow:

- Ordinary sentence stress
- Logical sentence stress
- Emphatic sentence stress

i. Ordinary Sentence Stress

The ordinary (normal) sentence stress is usually used to arrange the words into a sentence or phonetic intonation group. The ordinary sentence stress is also known as the syntactic sentence stress. It expresses the generic ideas of the sentence and shows its communicative center, both with the lexical and grammatical meanings. Most commonly, the nuclear syllable associated with the last lexical words of the sentence or intonation group. The ordinary sentence stress affects the lexical words, which convey the information necessity to the listeners. For example, Dr. THAN has less *time*.

In English linguistics, the sentence stress is relevant to the rhythm. Meanwhile, the sentence stress substantiates the structure of rhythm in a sentence. To make the intervals between the stress segments regular in a sentence, the lexical words often lose their ordinary (syntactic) stresses as a tendency to avoid two consecutively stressed syllables. For the same reason, the functional words may also have stresses. The realization of ordinary stress in a sentence is called rhythm stress.

- She is *very* beautiful. She is *quite* beautiful.

Notice that in English linguistics, the lexical words, including main verb, nouns, adjectives, adverbs, numerals, demonstrative and interrogative pronouns, absolute form of possessive pronouns, and interjections are stressed as rules. Functional words, including articles, determiners, prepositions, conjunctions, particles, qualifiers/intensifiers, personal pronouns, simple form of possessive pronouns, auxiliary and modal verbs in affirmative sentences, and linking verbs are unstressed.

ii. Logical Sentence Stress

Logical sentence stress refers to the sentence stress that gives the special prominence to a new element in a sentence or an intonation group. Logically, the words that are signaled by logical stress are most essential in a sentence, and it is known as logical (communicative) center of the sentence, which bears the terminal tone. The logical center of the sentence, which is marked by the logical stress, introduces new information to the listeners while the other words in a sentence convey what is already known to them. The position of the last sentence stress determines the placement of the nucleus of the logical center

(communicative center). Sifting the position of the last stress can change the placement of the nucleus of logical center. Meanwhile, shifting the stress modifies the meaning of the sentence. Any word in a sentence, including functional words may become the nucleus of the logical center of the sentence, and it may be logically stressed as carrying new information.

- Sokha **spoke** to him **yesterday**.
- Sokha **spoke** to **him** yesterday.
- Sokha **spoke** to him yesterday.
- She **went** to **Cambodia** by **air**.
- She **went** to **Cambodia** by air.
- **She** went to Cambodia by air.

Note: in English linguistics, the logical stress on the auxiliary, modal, and linking verbs is much more frequently used than syntactic stress in a sentence.

- You **ought** to **be** just, Sokharath.
- I **am** just.
- This soup **sounds** salty.
- She **looks** nasty.

iii. Emphatic Sentence Stress

Emphatic sentence stress refers to the human's utterances that show not only the speaker's thoughts, but also his/her feelings and attitudes to reality and contents of the sentence. Both ordinary and logical stresses can be emphatic or un-emphatic. Emphatic stress refers to a stress that increases the expressing effort, and it may strengthen the stressed word that makes it more prominent. Emphatic stress manifests itself mainly on the High Fall or the Rise-Fall of the nuclear syllable. Emphatic stress is a powerful expressive means, and it is the highest degree of logical and emotional prominence of the words in a phrase.

In English linguistics, the sentence stress is only decentralized or dispersed when all the lexical words are often stressed, and it is centralized or concentrated when the utterance is marked with one reinforced sentence stress.

Emphatic stress may be used in a sentence to compare/contrast, connect, or clarify things. Emphatic stress usually singles out the word in which the speaker considers the most important. In this case, functional words can be stressed. Emphatic stress is the emphasis on a word in a sentence. Emphatic stress on interrogative sentences will be provided as options. The interrogative sentence that contradicts the emphasized word is the correct option.

- Last week's football was very **exciting**.
- Sokha **works** at Kampot Referral Hospital.
- The old man is a **messenger**.
- Is Sothea's earring made of **silver**?
- Sothea's earring is made of **gold**.

The word “*silver*” is the correct option because the word ‘*silver*’ contradicts the word ‘*gold*’ and the interrogative statement provides a chance to re-emphasize the word ‘*gold*’. Is Sothea’s earring made of *silver*? No, it is made of *gold*.

c. Sentence Stress Functions

A sentence stress is a worded stress that is stressed on the lexical words in a sentence. The functional words, sometimes, is stressed in a sentence. Sentence stress is very necessary for intelligible communication in English. In English linguistics, sentence stress serves other functions in spoken English, including marking new information, promoting listeners comprehension, and calling attention to contrasts.

i. New information

The first function of the sentence stress is to introduce new information to the listener about the speaker’s message or spoken English language. The main function of the sentence stress is to single out the logical center (communicative center) of the sentence, which introduces new information. The prominence is realized by the variations of pitch, force, length, and quality in a sentence. The syllables of the words, which are marked by sentence stress, are pronounced with possible pitch changes, greater force, greater vowel length, and their full quality, so that the stressed words are pronounced more distinctly in a sentence. Most commonly, the prominent part of a sentence is the last stressed word, which takes the nuclear tone. The stress distribution in a sentence is based upon the mantic value of the words and is closely connected with the lexical and grammatical structure of the sentence.

Typically, the sentence stress is indicated in speech by the pitch movement, greater syllable length, and increased loudness on the last lexical words (e.g., main verb, nouns, adjectives, adverbs) in a sentence. In every spoken phrase or sentence, the sentence stress will generally have one word that is marked. The sentence stress typically happens towards the end of the phrase or sentence. Also, it is the beginning of the pitch movement at the end phrase or sentence.

In marking new information, the sentence stress may be placed at the end of the sentence or somewhere else, and a word is marked by the sentence stress, so that it is given information. Information structure is regarded as the main and essential function of the sentence stress, which introduces new information to the listeners with the understandable meaning.

- Our professor will have the meeting on **Monday**.
- I could help you do this exercise after**noon** on Wednesday.
- The book is in the **drawer**.
- The image of Angkor Wat is **very** interesting.
- I **already had** dinner.

ii. Contrasts

The second function of the sentence stress is contrastive stress, in which it calls attention to contrasts the lexical items with everything else in the same sentence pattern. Contrastive stress is one that is complicated to predict because of its dependence on the speaker's mind, and it may be on the functional words to indicate the essence of contrastive meaning that the speaker is conveying.

- It is **on** the table, not **under** the table.
- I bought a gold ring for **my** daddy, not **yours**.

In a sentence, the contrastive stress is most often signaled by the lexical and grammatical feature (e.g., alternative lexical-items in speech and grammatical parallelism), and it may be associated with the focus-sensitive particles (e.g., even, other, another, only, up, etc.). The sentence stress on the functional words or focus-sensitive particles signals a contrast with a set of the speakers' identifications.

- Who can look **after** our mother?
- Thida is the **only** one free.
- **Surely**?

When the sentence stress signals a possible contrast that happens at the beginning of a speaker's contribution, it assists the listeners anticipate the forthcoming contrast effectively. In a sentence, the contrastive stress has multifunction that can be used to signal corrections to previous information. Contrastive stress, however, plays a vital rule to help resolve interpretation of ambiguity in speech. Therefore, the contrastive stress has three main uses, such as correction, anticipation, and resolution of ambiguity to help the listeners understand the speakers' spoken language with the importance of contrasts in a sentence.

- I said **discourage**, not **encourage**.
- Sokha loves the **yellow** shirt ...
- Dara yelled at **Sophy**, but **she** did not pay attention.

iii. Comprehension

The third function of the sentence stress is to promote listeners comprehension, in which it is meant the amount of work that the listeners do in understanding speech. By examining the sentence stress, the contrastive stress most commonly affects the comprehension of the non-native English speakers, so as the comprehension is very important for the listeners to understand the speakers' spoken English language. The comprehension is relevant to the speech measures, including discourse complexity, fluency, grammatical accuracy, lexical richness, and pronunciation. The contrastive stress can lead to betterment in spontaneous speech, both in how easily the speech is understood (comprehensibility) and in how smoothly it is produce (fluency). Contrastive stress, in other words, is a high-value feature, which means that changes in the feature are likely to make the listeners rate speech positively even if everything in a sentence remains the same. In accordance with the

sentence stress, the contrastive stress has promise as a high-value feature, which may help learners or listeners improve their comprehensibility.

- How **are** you?
- Fine, how are **you**?

2.3 Intonation

An intonation refers to the melodic pattern of an utterance, which indicates the voice height or pitch up and down. Intonation in a sentence is a complicated system of meaning, which is communicated through rise and fall of the speaker's voice. Like stress, intonation is a system operation of contrasts, in which the contrast is between voice movement up (↗) or down (↘). Intonation may be changed the meaning of what the speaker speak even when the same words are used in a sentence. In English linguistics, the English speakers often use intonation to communicate several varied types of meaning, such as grammatical meaning (e.g., varied types of statements and questions), information status (e.g., subordinate or main, ended or non-ended), attitude (e.g., certain or not, doubts or reservations), feeling (e.g., happy, bored, sad, surprise), and relational (e.g., how open, friendly or closed).

When the listeners hear the speakers' messages or spoken language, the listeners may realize that the speakers do not always say on the same note. The listeners usually hear the constant variations in the level at which the speakers' voice is pitched. Sometimes the pitch may rises or falls. When the pitch of the voice falls, it is called the falling tone, and when the pitch of the voice rises, it is called the rising tone. The falling tone is symbolized as ↘ before the syllable on which the pitch of the voice falls, and the rising tone is symbolized like ↗ before the syllable on which the pitch of the voice rises. Notice that the term "**tone**" is as **intonation**.

In the phonetics of English linguistics, intonation is the melodic pattern of an utterance or sentence, in which it primarily indicates the variations in the pitch level of the voice (tone), but the stress and rhythm are also involved in English linguistics. In English, intonation serves a grammatical function, which distinguishes one type of phrase or sentence from another. Intonation may convey the varied expressive meaning (e.g., minded, friendly, anger, wariness, confident, sad). Falling intonation is simply used for statements (assertion), and rising intonation is most commonly used for questions.

Examples of Intonation	
Example	Different Types of Meaning
- This project was <u>interesting</u> .	Assertion: The speaker is giving information. The speaker is certain and confident about the information.
- This project was <u>interesting</u> (?)	Question or incomplete statement: The speaker is not sure about the status of information.

- This project was <u>interesting</u> ...	Incomplete statement: The speaker has more things to say.
- This project was <u>interesting</u> ...	Reference/Qualification: The speaker has doubts or reservations to qualify this with more information. The speaker may be referring to what has already been said or will be said.
- This project was <u>interesting</u> (!)	Exclamation: The speaker wants to emphasize this. The speaker feels surprised.

Types of Intonation

Intonation refers to the description on how the voice goes rise or fall in speech. Intonation is a melodic language and is made of pitches, which is high (rise) and low (fall). Intonation is used to communicate for intentions and emotions, and it is used in spoken language to replace punctuation. Intonation can indicate anger, surprise, hesitation, confusion, sarcasm, interest, or lack thereof. In English linguistics, there are five types of intonation patterns: falling intonation (↘), rising intonation (↗), flat intonation (→), falling-rising intonation (↘↗), and rising-falling intonation (↗↘). Intonation occurs at the end of the sentence.

a. Falling Intonation (↘)

Falling (proclaiming) intonation is a description on how the voice (tone) falls on the final stressed syllable of a phrase, clause, or sentence (utterance). A falling intonation most commonly occurs in the assertion (statement) and information questions (Wh-questions). Notice that the falling intonation is very common in information questions when the questions are asked for new information, but the rising intonation occurs in information question when the question is asked for repetition, confirmation, or clarification of previous known information. A falling intonation, however, is often used for imperative (demand), exclamation, and question tags that are expected for confirmation. Remember that the falling intonation is on the last lexical word, and it is sometimes on the last functional word in a phrase or sentence. Falling intonation typically falls at the end of a phrase or sentence.

- My **name** is ↘Sokha.
- **This** is the **university** where I ↘study.
- **Some** students **graduated** their **Bachelor**, but **they** did not **receive** the ↘job.
- **Nice** to **meet** ↘you.
- **Put** the **rubbish** in the ↘bin.
- **Leave** the paper on the ↘table.
- **What** is your ↘name?
- Where should we go for ↘lunch?
- **What** a pleasant ↘surprise!
- You are an outstanding **student**, **aren't** ↘you?

b. Rising Intonation (↗)

Rising intonation is a description on how the voice (tone) rises on the final stressed syllable of a phrase, clause, or sentence. A rising intonation most commonly occurs in Yes or No

questions, polite request, and questions that show concern, apologies, certainty, etc. Rising intonation, however, is used in Wh-question when the question is asked for repetition, confirmation, or clarification of previous known information. In addition, rising intonation is used in question tags that show less certainty. Rising intonation typically rises at the end of a phrase or sentence.

- Are you ↗ **Cambodian**?
- Can you **lend** me the ↗ **money**?
- **Why** wasn't the ↗ **door** locked?
- ↗ **Really**?
- **Who** borrowed my ↗ **phone** charger?
- Your **mother arrives** at five o' clock, isn't ↗ **she**?

c. Flat Intonation (→)

Flat intonation is an intonation, in which the interval may be flat given that as a whole it is too narrow when the lower pitch is sharp or the upper pitch is flat. When the lower pitch is flat or the upper pitch is sharp, the interval may be sharp given that as a whole it is too wide. Therefore, flat intonation refers to the pitch that is the same level along the whole sentence. The flat intonation is used to indicate that the speaker has more information to say, so that the flat intonation is commonly used in the incomplete statements.

- **She** is very → **beautiful** ...
- It was → **interesting**.
- **Some** students **graduated** their **Bachelor**, but **they** did not **receive** the → **job**.

d. Falling-Rising Intonation (↘↗)

Falling-Rising (dipping/referencing) intonation is a description on how the voice falls and then rises on the final stressed syllable of a phrase, clause, or sentence in statements when whatever the speaker says is unsure or when something the speaker may have more to add. A falling-rising intonation may be used in questions, polite request, and questions, in which the speaker requests information or invite someone to do or have something. However, falling-rising intonation is used in reference or qualification when the speaker has doubts or reservations to qualify with more information or when the speaker may be referring to what has already be said or will be said.

- **He** dislikes any **football** match at the ↘↗ **moment**.
- Is this your ↘↗ **notebook**?
- It was ↘↗ **interesting**...

e. Rising-Falling Intonation (↗↘)

Rising-falling (non-final/peaking) intonation is a description on how the voice rises and then falls on the final stressed syllable (at the end) of the Wh-question. In Wh-question, a rising intonation is common on the question words, and a falling intonation usually falls at the end (final stressed syllable of lexical word) of the question. A rising-falling intonation, however, is used in the serial words (lists of items) in the same utterance (sentence) when the speaker

attempted to divide the utterance into tone units. A rising-falling intonation may be used in exclamation when the speaker essays to emphasize or when the speaker feels surprised, angry, disappointed, and in agreement. Typically, rising-falling intonation (non-final intonation) is used with unfinished thoughts, introductory word and phrase, and expressive choices.

- ↗ How did you ever ↘ escape?
- She can have that shirt in ↗ blue, ↗ red, ↗ yellow, ↗ white, or ↘ black.
- It was very ↗ ↘ interesting.
- She has to leave ↗ ↘ now.
- He has to leave ↗ now, but he ↘ can't.
- If she has to leave, then let ↗ ↘ her.
- As a matter of ↗ ↘ fact, she doesn't know what I study.
- Sokharath is good at ↗ mathematics, ↗ physics, ↗ chemistry, and ↘ English.
- Do you want to play football or watch ↗ ↘ TV?

Functions of Intonation

In a sentence, intonation has several functions, which help the listener easily understands what the speaker has said. These functions would be discussed as the following.

a. Falling Intonation

Falling (proclaiming) intonation describes how the voice falls at the end of the utterance (sentence). Falling intonation can be used in different types of the utterance, such as in statements, information questions, imperative, exclamation, and questions.

i. Statements

Falling intonation is often used in ordinary statements without emotional implication.

- It is ↘ two o' clock.
- I have a lot of ↘ friends.
- It is ↘ raining.
- His name is ↘ Sok.
- This is the house where I ↘ grow up.
- I think we are completely ↘ lost.
- He lived in Phnom Penh since he was ↘ thirteen.
- Have a great ↘ day.

ii. Imperatives (Demands/Commands)

Falling intonation is usually used in imperatives.

- Put the rubbish in the ↘ bin.
- Leave the books on the ↘ desk.
- Close your ↘ book.
- Put the waste ↘ there.
- Sit ↘ down.
- Shut the ↘ window.

iii. Information Questions (Wh-Questions)

Falling intonation is commonly used in the information questions (Wh-questions) when the questions are asked for new information.

- What is your ↘ name?
- Where does she ↘ live?
- Why did you go ↘ there?
- How did you do this ↘ exercise?
- Who is ↘ crying?
- When does Sothea ↘ arrive?
- What is the ↘ hurry?

iv. Exclamation

Falling intonation may be used in exclamation.

- *What* a pleasant ↘ surprise!
- *How* ↘ beautiful!
- *How* ↘ wonderful!
- *What* a *truly beautiful* ↘ day!
- *How absolutely fabulous* ↘ idea!
- *What* a beautiful *rose* ↘ is!
- *How* happy the ↘ wedding!

v. Question Tags

Falling intonation may be used in question tags that are expected for confirmation.

- You are Cambodian, *aren't* ↘ you?
- She is *very beautiful*, *isn't* ↘ she?
- Your *brother* is clever *student*, *isn't* ↘ he?

vi. Alternative Question

Falling intonation may be used in alternative questions that ask for expressing choice.

- Would *you* like some ice *cream* or some ↘ cake?
- Are *you doing exercise* or *playing* ↘ game?
- Does *she work* in the *city* or in the ↘ suburbs?
- Is *this* the *front* or the *back* of the ↘ desk?
- Do *you* like *pizza* or ↘ not?
- Are there *trains* or *buses* from the *airport* to ↘ Kampot?
- *Which* do *you prefer*, with or without ↘ salt?
- *Which* is best, to *water* the *plant* every *day* or just once a ↘ week?

b. Rising Intonation

Rising intonation describes how the voice rises at the end of the sentence. Rising intonation is commonly used in incomplete statements, yes/no questions, polite requests, questions

showing concern, apologies, and certainty, Wh-questions asking for repletion, confirmation, and clarification of previous known information, and question tags showing less certainty.

i. Incomplete Statements or Responses to Questions

Rising intonation can be used in incomplete statements or responses responding to what someone said. Rising intonation can also be used in apologies, greetings, saying thanks, and expressing encouragement.

- This **program** is **very** ↗ interesting...
- It was all ↗ right.
- **We** may **go** ↗ shopping.
- ↗ Thank you.
- Ex ↗ cuse me.
- Bye- ↗ bye.
- You're ↗ welcome.
- **Don't** you ↗ worry!
- It **doesn't** ↗ matter.
- It will be all ↗ right.

ii. Yes/No Questions

Rising intonation can be used in yes/no questions that are regarded as the real questions. Rising intonation may also be used in echo-questions that repeat the speaker's previous messages or spoken language.

- Are you ↗ happy?
- **Have** you **read** the ↗ book?
- **Can** you ↗ sing?
- Have you **ever** been to ↗ Thailand?
- **Did** you **do** your ↗ homework?
- **Is** she your ↗ mother?
- Is Dr. **THAN** **joining** the ↗ meeting?
- ↗ Where?
- You **met** Dr. **THAN** at which ↗ university?

iii. Polite Requests

Rising intonation may be used in polite requests.

- **Will** you **help** ↗ me?
- **Please** sit ↗ down.
- **Would** you **open** the ↗ door?

iv. Questions Showing Concern, Apologies, certainty

Rising intonation may be used in questions that show concern, apologies, and certainty.

- **How** is your ↗ mother?
- **Why** are you ↗ crying?

- *What* is your ↗ problem?
- *Which* of these is your ↗ book?

v. Wh-Questions Asking for Repetition, Confirmation, or Clarification

Rising intonation may be used in Wh-questions that ask for repetition, confirmation, or clarification of previous known information.

- *How* do you *help* your ↗ mother?
- *Why* wasn't the ↗ shop closed?
- *What* did you *do* for your ↗ father?
- *Who* took my ↗ book?

vi. Question Tags Showing Less certainty

Rising intonation may be used in question tags that show less certainty.

- *Your* bus *leaves* at four, *isn't* ↗ it?
- She is *Chinese*, *isn't* ↗ she?
- You are *Cambodian*, *aren't* ↗ you?

c. Flat Intonation

Flat intonation describes the pitch sharp or flat, which is the same level along the sentence. Flat intonation is most commonly used in the incomplete statements that indicate that the speaker has more information to say or add, and it indicates there is no interest.

- *Sokha* looks → beautiful ...
- *This* program was not → good.
- Dany is an *outstanding* student, but *she* doesn't *gain* the → scholarship.
- *It* sounds → good ...

d. Falling-Rising Intonation

Falling-rising (dipping/referencing) intonation is a combination of a falling intonation from high or mid to low followed by a low rising intonation (a rising intonation from low to mid). Falling-rising intonation has many functions, and it may be used for several purposes, such as statements showing being unsure and having more information to add, polite requests, reference or clarification, questions requesting information or inviting someone to do or have something.

i. Statements Being Unsure and Having More Information to Add

Falling-Rising intonation may be used in statements that show that the speaker is unsure and has more information to add.

- *She* doesn't *support* any football *team* at the ↘ ↗ moment.
- I *saw* that *car parked* here *every* ↘ ↗ day.
- In my *old* car, there was *enough room* for *six* ↘ ↗ people.

ii. Questions requesting Information or Inviting Someone to Do or Have Something

Falling-Rising intonation may be used in questions that request information or ask someone to do or have something.

- Is it her ↘ ↗ pencil?
- Would you like another ↘ ↗ coffee?
- I have **never** **seen** your ↘ ↗ house.
- Any ↘ ↗ sugar?

iii. Polite Requests

Falling-Rising intonation may usually be used in polite. Notice the polite requests are made out by using auxiliary verbs (pure and modal auxiliary verbs).

- **Can** I have a **copy** of this ↘ ↗ paper?
- **Could** I please **have** some more ↘ ↗ tea?
- **May** I **use** you ↘ ↗ motor?
- **Will** she join us for ↘ ↗ dinner?
- **Would** you **translate** this **Chinese** paper to ↘ ↗ English?
- **Do** you **mind** if I **close** the ↘ ↗ window?
- **Would** you **mind** if I **use** your ↘ ↗ table?
- **Is** it ok if I sit ↘ ↗ here?
- **Do** you **think** I could **buy** this ↘ ↗ car?
- **Is** it all **right** if park ↘ ↗ there?
- Where could I find Dr. ↘ ↗ THAN?

iv. Reference or Qualification

Falling-Rising intonation may be used in reference or qualification when the speaker has some doubts or reservations to qualify by giving more information or when the speaker may be referring to what has already been said or will be said.

- **It** was ↘ ↗ interesting ...
- I have to **stay** in ↘ ↗ side.
- **Spending** time indoors can be ↘ ↗ fun.
- The **bus** was ↘ ↗ late.
- **Sokha** and I **arrived** at the **bus** station **early** but **waited** until **noon** for the ↘ ↗ bus.

v. Introductory Words and Phrases

Falling-Rising intonation may also be used after the introductory words and phrases, in the middle of a sentence.

- When you need ↘ ↗ help, who can you turn to?
- After the severe spring ↘ ↗ thunderstorm, the sky turned gold.
- In the very beginning of the ↘ ↗ story, a boy meets a stray dog.
- Along the way to my ↘ ↗ house, I saw several lilac bushes in bloom.
- Opening the door to my ↘ ↗ friend, I discovered that she was not alone.

vi. Lists of Items (Words)

Falling-Rising intonation may be used in the lists of items (words) as an alternative to a low rising intonation, in the middle of a sentence.

- We can count on ↘ ↗ family, ↘ ↗ friends, and even neighbors.
- Yesterday, I went to the store to buy ↘ ↗ meat, ↘ ↗ drinks, ↘ ↗ bread, and sugar.
- Sokha's favorite colors of are ↘ ↗ yellow, ↘ ↗ blue, ↘ ↗ green, ↘ ↗ red, and white.
- She likes burger, pizza, and sandwich.

vii. Count...

Falling-Rising intonation may also be used for counting the numbers to sound certain or authoritative.

- ↘ ↗ One, ↘ ↗ two, ↘ ↗ three, ↘ ↗ four, ↘ ↗ five, and six.

vii. Hesitate

Falling-Rising intonation may be used when the speaker hesitate to say something for some reasons.

- ↘ ↗ Well, let me think.
- ↘ ↗ No, not really.
- ↘ ↗ Well, I'm not sure.
- She may say ↘ ↗ yes, but don't count on it.
- That's ↘ ↗ true, but it's not always the case.
- I can ↘ ↗ help, but if it is in the morning.

viii. Polite Speech

Falling-Rising intonation may be used in polite speech.

- ↘ ↗ Hello, I'm Dr. ↘ ↗ THAN, and I'll be your Applied Linguistics professor.
- Good ↘ ↗ morning, I'm your Ph.D. research advisor.
- Who's ↘ ↗ next, please.
- Excuse ↘ ↗ me, what ↘ ↗ time is it?

e. Rising-Falling Intonation

Rising-Falling (non-final) intonation is the pitch that rises and falls within a sentence. This type of intonation may be used in various situations, such as Wh-questions, serial words, exclamation, yes/no questions replaced by "if" and joined by coordinators, alternative questions (expressive choices), unfinished thoughts, introductory words and phrases.

i. Wh-Questions

Rising-Falling intonation may usually be used in information questions (Wh-questions) to ask new information.

- ↗ How did you do this ↘ exercise?
- ↗ Why do you go ↘ there?
- ↗ What did you say this ↘ morning?

- ↗ Whose pen is ↘ it?
- ↗ Which car is ↘ yours?

ii. Yes/No Questions with “If” and “Coordinators”

Rising-Falling intonation may also be used in yes/no questions replaced by the word “if” and connected by the coordinators.

- She **asked** if we had ↗ questions, but **everyone** just ↘ sat there.
- The teacher asked if you don’t ↗ understand, for you can have a ↘ question.

iii. Unfinished Thoughts

Rising-Falling intonation may usually be used in unfinished thoughts. When the speaker raises the pitch at the end of the phrase, it indicated that the speaker’s thoughts are incomplete even if he/she stops saying.

- If I had enough ↗ money, I would buy a new ↘ car.
- When I grow ↗ up, I want to be a ↘ doctor.
- When I am ↗ twenty, I will have my own ↘ car.
- If she would listen to ↗ me, she would ↘ understand.
- When Dr. THAN finished his ↗ meeting, he met Den for thesis ↘ discussion.
- I just bought a new ↗ car, and I wanted to have ↘ test drive.
- She bought a ↗ magazine, but she didn’t read ↘ it.
- I am going ↗ outside, for some fresh ↘ air.

iv. Introductory Words and Phrases

Rising-Falling intonation may usually be used with the sentences that begin with the introductory words and phrases. The introductory words and phrases include as a matter of fact, as far as I’m concerned, actually, in my opinion, if you don’t mind, by the way, for example, however, on the other hand, in any case, in fact, and anyway.

- As a matter of ↗ ↘ fact, I do know where he lives.
- As far as I’m ↗ ↘ concerned, she was not suitable for this position.
- ↗ ↘ Actually, the movie was pretty fabulous.
- In my ↗ ↘ opinion, this car is too expensive.
- If you don’t ↗ ↘ mind, I’m going to leave early.
- By the ↗ ↘ way, have you read that book I lent you?

v. Serial Words of Lists of Items

Rising-Falling intonation may usually be used in serial words of lists of words/items. In the serial words, the rising intonation may be often used with the first few items or words, and falling intonation is usually used with the final/last word or item.

- Go to the store to get ↗ milk, ↗ eggs, and ↘ bread.
- She likes the colors ↗ black, ↗ yellow, ↗ green, ↗ while, and ↘ red.
- My son loves playing ↗ football, ↗ soccer, ↗ baseball, and ↘ tennis.
- You need to ↗ study hard, go to class, ↗ read the book, and ↘ do well on the test.

- I ↗read books, ↗filed portfolio, ↗lectured the AL course, and ↘advised students.
- She loves eating ↗beans, ↗lettuce, ↗cabbage, and ↘meat.
- Sokah likes to ↗sleep, ↗do exercise, ↗go for a walk, and ↘take a bath.
- “I studied doctorate degree in FLAL, the day I graduated I ↗received the approval from the five members of committee, ↗passed the examination, and ↘got my tuition back” – Dr. THAN Chhorn.

vi. Expressive Choices or Alternative Questions

Rising-Falling intonation may be used in expressing choices or alternative questions when offering two or more choices in a question.

- Do you want the shirt with color ↗blue or ↘yellow?
- Is Dr. THAN lecturing the *Applied Linguistics* ↗course or *Writing* ↘skill?
- Will you be bringing salad, ↗bread, or dessert?
- Does she live in Kampot or ↘Phnom Penh?
- Is the delivery date in ↗July or ↘Augusts?
- Would you like a ↗coke or some ↘juice?
- Is her daughter’s name ↗Sokha or ↘Sokharath?
- Is he ↗coming or ↘not?
- Which do you prefer, with↗ or *without* ↘sugar?

vii. Emphasis, Enthusiastic, or Exclamation

Rising-Falling intonation may also be used in emphasis or exclamation when emphasizing, feeling enthusiastic, happy, or surprised, or contrasting strongly with what someone else has said.

- It was ↗↘interesting (!)
- It was surprised to hear ↗↘that.
- This project is pretty ↗↘great.
- How beautiful this city ↗↘is!
- Ben, wipe the ↗↘board!
- Don’t talk, get ↗↘out!
- Please, help me ↗↘now!

2.4 Accents

Accent refers to the way in which the humans in a particular area, social group, or country pronounce words. Accent is also called pronunciation. In linguistics, accent is a way in which the humans pronounce a language. Accent is the part of dialect, in which it concerns local pronunciation. Accent (pronunciation) may vary greatly among dialects of a language. Also, accent refers to the set of pronunciation conventions of the community speech. In English linguistics, there are several varied accents within the variety known as British Accents and American Accents. Most of these varied accents provide some clues as to the regional origins of the speakers.

British Accents

Accent is meant to a way of pronouncing a language. Accent is the pronunciation, which is the part of dialects in spoken language. British accent is the part of dialects, which is concerned with the local English pronunciation in England. British accent has the variations of regional pronunciations in English, so that there are differences of British accent.

There are considerable variations of English accents across England, such as Received Pronunciation, Cockney, Estuary English, Yorkshire, Northern Irish, Scottish, Brummie (Midland English), Scouse, Geordie, Welsh English, Southeast British (West Country), Multicultural London English (MLE). Below are the details that demonstrate the varied types of British accent in English.

a. Received Pronunciation (RP)

Since English is considered as the global language, it is spoken in the worldwide. In some countries like U.K, U.S.A, Canada, and Australia, English is the native or first language. On the contrary, in some countries like Cambodia, China, Thailand, Pakistan, Philippine, Vietnam, etc., English is regarded as the non-native language or second language. As there are variations in accent, tones, and pronunciation, it is important for us to follow a standard variety of English pronunciation that is accepted by the global people. As a native regional variety with an accepted accent gained a social prestige and status is known as the Received Pronunciation (RP) of the English language, it is the people's pronunciation of South East England and is used by all educated English speakers in the global contexts.

Received Pronunciation (RP) is a standardized term, which describes the regionally neutral accent used by native-English speakers in England. Widely, Received Pronunciation is used as a reference point that is applied in dictionaries and is as a model for teaching English as a foreign language. Traditionally, Received Pronunciation is the accent that is regarded as the standard British English, and it is concerned with the pronunciation matters only.

Received Pronunciation is the instantly recognizable accent in which it is often described as "typically British." This type of accent includes the Queen's English, Oxford English, or BBC English, which are slightly misleading. The Queen's English refers to the speech, in which the Queen speaks an almost unique form of English, while the English is spoken by the Oxford University or the BBC. Received Pronunciation, in other words, is an accent and is used to avoid the non-standard grammatical constructions and localized vocabulary characteristic of regional dialects. Also, Received Pronunciation is a regionally non-specific aspect that does not contain any clues about a speaker's geographic background, but reveal a great deal about the speaker's social or educational background.

Received Pronunciation is commonly called BBC English in North America and Standard British pronunciation, and it is an accent of Standard English in the United Kingdom. Although it can be heard from native speakers throughout England and Wales, it is defined as the standard accent of English spoken in southern England. Received Pronunciation can be

typically broken down into three types, Conservative RP, Mainstream RP, and Contemporary RP. Conservative RP is a traditional variety that is associated with elder speakers and aristocracy. Mainstream RP refers to an accent that is neutral in terms of signal regarding age. Contemporary RP is typical features of younger RP speakers.

b. Cockney

Cockney accent refers to the pronunciation that is commonly spoken in East London, and it also refers to anyone from London. With cockney accent, there are many glottal stops, and the “*th*” sound is frequently changed to an “*f*” sound. For example, “think” to “fink.”

c. Estuary English (Southeast British/West Country)

Typically, Estuary English is most often spoken by people who live along the river Thames and its estuary in Southeast England. Estuary English, however, can be found stretching beyond London to the regions of Essex and Kent. Most commonly, Estuary English is described as a mix between cockney and Received Pronunciation.

d. Yorkshire

Yorkshire accent refers to the variations of pronunciation in which many people speak English with a variety of Yorkshire dialects in England. One of the biggest between the Yorkshire accent and Received Pronunciation is the words that end in an “*ee*” sound are pronounced with an “*eh*” sound. For example, the word “*nasty*” is changed into “*nasteh*.”

e. Northern Irish

Northern Irish accent refers to an accent that is quite a beautiful and strong one of English pronunciation. You probably notice the Northern Irish accent by examining how many letters seem to be missing from the words when the people speak it. For example, the word “Northern Irish” would be pronounced like “Nor’n ir’sh.”

f. Scottish

Scottish refers to an accent in which the people roll their Rs regularly and collapse their words, being cut off the middle of the words. The Scottish accent hugely varies from city to city or town to town, and it becomes increasingly like Irish accent in the Western Isles. For example, “cot” is instead of “caught” and “not” with “nee.” Instead of saying you “didn’t do anything in Edinburgh,” it sounds like “didnee do anythin’ in Ednbrah.”

g. Brummie (Midland English)

Brummie English is most famously spoken by people in the midland’s city of Birmingham. Brummie is the worst accent in England, despite the popularity of the British. Brummie accent refers to a part of Brummie dialect, which is soft, elastic, and lumpy sound.

h. Scouse

Scouse refers to the form of English spoken by the people from Liverpool area in the northwest England. Most people from the Liverpool always speak Scouse, and Scouse has its own accent that is called Liverpool accent. Liverpool accent is one of the most famous British regional accents, and it is a nasal dialect, which can be hard to copy at first.

i. Geordie

Geordie accent refers to the pronunciation of English Geordie dialect, which is spoken by the people from the Newcastle in Northeast England. The difference between Geordie and RP is that the letter “*r*” at the end of every word is not pronounced, and it is tended to pronounce like “*ah*” instead. For example, “sugar” becomes “sug-ah,” and “Space Centre” becomes “Space Cent-ah.” One more notice is the different accent between Geordie and RP on the word “canny,” so as Geordie accent of the word “canny” is like “CAH-ne.”

j. Welsh English

Welsh English refers to an accent in which it is heavily influenced by the Welsh language. Some Welsh say that their accent may be a hindrance to their career, but others describe the accent as melodious and lilting with proudness. Improving the Welsh English in natural conversation, it suggests you to watch the hit show Gavin & Stacey. For example, “It is my pleasure, *nay* (my) privilege, to introduce tonight’s quest speaker.”

k. Multicultural London English (MLE)

As known a sociolect, London-based accent refers to a dialect specific that is to a particular social class and predominantly heard among young people speak London English. For example, if you wonder the streets of Hackney in London, you might see the following terms: “*Blud*” is meant to “*mate*.” “*Ends*” refers to a “*neighborhood* or *geographical area*.” and “*Bare*” is meant to “*sparse*” or “*uncovered*.”

American Accents

Unlike British accent as Received Pronunciation, American accent is a pronunciation that refers to the most iconic and arguably influential accent. The American accent is broken down into two types, including general accent and regional accent.

a. General Accent

General American accent is a pronunciation that is known for how rhotic it is – how strongly the “*R*” sound appears in the spoken words. Most of the American people pronounce English with the strong sound of “*R*” in the spoken words. For example, in the words like *pearl*, *car*, or *court*, the “*R*” sound is pronounced strongly. In accordance with the general American accent, the letter “*T*” in the middle of a word is most often pronounced like a “*D*.” For example, the word “*water*” becomes “*wadder*” and “*flatter*” becomes “*fladder*.”

The difference between American accent and British accent on English pronunciation is how the short “**A**” vowel is pronounced like “*ash*.” For example, in the word “*cat*,” **A** vowel in British accent is pronounced with long sound, but **A** vowel in American accent is pronounced with short sound.

b. Regional American Accent

The United States is the English-speaking country, which is regarded as the biggest country with the native-English people in the world, so that it should be no surprise or concern about the variations of the regional American accents. For example, the American people who come from New York or New England commonly speak with a less pronounced **R** than the people who live in the rest of America.

Likewise, people who grew up in the South will frequently drop the letter R. For example, “*there*” sounds like “*theeyuh*.” The Southern Americans are most commonly famous with their “Southern Drawl” – a way of speaking English sounds slower and with prolonged vowel sounds. For example, in the word “*cry*” sounds like “*crah*.”

California accent is famous American accent, and it is distinct from other accents with its marked vowel shift. This shift is most often pronounced by young people. For example, the words “back” sound like “bock” and “lit” like “let.”

Unit 3

Connected Speech

Connected speech refers to the language, which is spoken in a progressive sequence in an ordinary dialogue. Connected speech can also be called connected discourse. In connected speech, the syllables or words are clipped, phrases are run together, and words are stressed differently than they would be in writing. In English linguistics, connected speech is a continuous sequence of the sounds forming utterances or dialogues in the spoken language. In connected speech, sound changes that affect linguistic units are traditionally described as phrases, words, lexemes, morphemes, syllables, phonemes, or phones.

In English linguistics, there are several features of connected speech, in which the native-English speakers speak a language in ordinary dialogues. The features of connected speech include assimilation (sound change), elision (deletion), linking (catenation), intrusion (insertion), contraction, geminate, delayed plosive, and juncture.

3.1 Assimilations

Assimilation refers to a change of the phoneme (sound) in the spoken language. In English linguistics, assimilation happens when the phoneme in one word is changed in a sound in a neighboring word. Assimilation describes how phonemes modify each other, and it usually occurs across the morpheme or word boundaries, but within word as well. For example, in the phrase “that boy,” the phoneme /t/ is changed into /p/ when the words ending in /t/ meet the words beginning with /b/ phoneme, so that the phrase “*that boy*” sounds like “*ðæp bɔɪ*.” Thus, assimilation is the spoken language in which the phoneme is changed.

Assimilation happens when the new phonemes in the utterance (phrase or sentence) are created by (1) a phoneme influenced by the previous phoneme, (2) a phoneme influenced by the preceding phoneme, and (3) a set of two phonemes influenced each other. In English, assimilation most commonly occurs in the phoneme /t/, /d/, and /n/ when followed by a consonant /k/, /g/, /m/, /b/, or /n/. The past tense of verbs in English provides several assimilations of the phonemes /t/ and /d/.

Types of Assimilations

Assimilation is the pronunciation change of a phoneme (sound) under the influence of its neighboring phoneme. The assimilations are categorized into two types, including direct change assimilation and consonant change assimilation. Direct change assimilation refers to the regressive, progressive, and coalescent assimilations. Consonant change assimilation refers the assimilations of articulation place, articulation manner, and voicing.

a. Direct Change Assimilations

Direct change assimilation refers to the change of the phoneme directly. The direct change assimilation can be categorized into three types, such as regressive assimilation, progressive assimilation, and coalescent assimilation. In the direct change assimilation, regressive assimilation refers to a change of the phoneme that comes first is affected by the phoneme that comes after. For example, *go shopping* /gəʊʃɒpiŋ/. Progressive assimilation refers to a change of the phoneme that comes first affects the phoneme that comes after. For example, *good eye* /gʊdai/ or /gʊd ai/. Coalescent (fusion) assimilation refers to the phoneme (sound) change by merging the two progressive phonemes into another phoneme, which is different from the two coalesced phonemes. For example, in the phrase, “*got you*” sounds like /gɒtʃʊ / or / gɑ:tʃʊ /.

b. Consonant Change Assimilations

In the consonant change assimilation, assimilation of articulation place refers to the change of the final consonant of the first words to another consonant based upon the first consonant of the second words. For example, *hard-working* /hɑ:bwɜ:kɪŋ/, *ten boys* /tembɔɪ/, *that goat* /ðækɡəʊ/, *would come* /wʊɡkʌm/, *ten girl* /tenɡɜ:l/, *this shop* /ðɪʃʃɒp/, *those sheep* /ðəʊʃi:p/, *want you* /wɒntʃʊ/. Assimilation of articulation manner refers to the change of the final consonant of the first word to the first consonant of the second word. For example, *that side* /ðæssaid/, *that night* /ðænnait/. Assimilation of voicing refers to the change of the final consonant of the first word to the first consonant (phoneme) of the second word. For example, *big car* /bɪkɑ:/.

Rules of Assimilations

In English linguistics, there are many rules of assimilation in the spoken language that the native-English speakers use in normal conversation. Below are the details of assimilation based upon the grammatical rules.

a. Direct Change Assimilations

In direct change assimilation, assimilation occurs depending on the regressive assimilation, progressive assimilation, and coalescent assimilation.

i. Regressive Assimilations

In the regressive assimilation, the phoneme of the first word is affected by the phoneme of second word. The regressive assimilation may be occurred with the morpheme boundaries or across the word boundaries. Here are examples of the regressive assimilation, as follow:

- This **y**ear / diʃ jiə /
- Bright **c**olor / braɪk kʌlə /
- Light **b**lue / laɪp blu: /
- Ten **b**abies / tem 'beɪbi-s /
- Had **b**een / hæb bi:n /
- That **g**irl / ðæk ɡə:l /

- Govern**ment** / 'gʌvəmmənt /
- Intern**et** / 'innənət /
- Love **me** / lʌm mi: /
- In **my** / im mai /
- Piss**ing** match / 'pisim mætʃ /
- Let **me** / lep mi: /
- Noth**ing** but / 'nʌθim bʌt /
- And **being** / æm bi:ɪŋ /
- Can **barely** / kæm 'beəli /
- Not **be** / nɒt bi: /
- Common **poodle** / kɒməm pu:dl /
- In **case** / iŋ keɪs /
- These **skill** / ði:s skil /
- Put **my** / pʊt mai /
- And **more** / æm mɔ: /
- With **devils** / wɪð devls /
- Can't **batter** / kɑ:m bætə /

ii. Progressive Assimilations

In progressive assimilation, the phoneme of the first word affects the next phoneme. The progressive assimilation may be occurred within the morpheme boundaries or across word boundaries. Here are examples of the progressive assimilation, as follow:

- Those **year** / ðəʊz_jiə /
- Close **book** / kləʊz bʊk / or / klouz_buk /
- Do**ze** off / dəʊz_ɔf / or / douz_ɔf /
- English **speaker** / 'ɪŋlɪʃpi:kə /
- Rib**bon** / 'rɪbən /
- Ba**con** / 'beɪkən /
- Up **and** about / ʌp əm əbaʊt /
- Read **these** / ri:d di:z /
- Beginning to / bi'gɪnɪn nu: /
- Maintaining this / meɪn'teɪnɪn nɪs /
- Hit the / hɪt ti /
- Taken to / 'teɪkən nu: /
- Even though / 'i:vən nəʊ /
- Put them / pʊt təm /
- Understand the / ʌndə'stænd də /
- Bake them / beɪk kəm /

iii. Coalescence Assimilations

Coalescent (fusion) assimilation refers to the phoneme (sound) change, where two or more segments of the phonemes are combined into one segment of the phonemes. In English

linguistics, coalescence happens when the morpheme-final alveolar plosive /t, d/ or fricative /s, z/ is followed by morpheme-initial palatal approximant /j/ to produce palato-alveolar-affricative /tʃ, dʒ/ or palato-alveolar-fricatives /ʃ, ʒ/. Notice that the coalescent assimilation may be the phoneme change within the morpheme boundaries or across word boundaries. Mostly, when the morpheme-final affricative /s/ is followed by the suffix /-ion/, the coalescence is /ʒ/, which is created from the interaction between /s/ and /j/. When the morpheme-final plosive /t/ is followed by the suffix /-ion/, the coalescence is /ʃ/, which is created from the interaction between /t/ and /j/. Here are examples of the coalescent assimilation, as follow:

- Do you / dʒʊ /
- Could you / kʊdʒʊ /
- This year / ðɪʃiə /
- Those year / ðəʊʒiə /
- Version / 'vɜ:ʃən / or / vɜ:ʒən /
- Revision / ri'viʒən /
- That you / ðætʃʊ /
- Fortune / 'fɜ:tʃu:n /
- Presume / pri'zʊ:m /
- Situation / sitʃʊ'eɪʃən /
- Education / edʒʊ'keɪʃən /
- Glacial / 'gleɪʃəl /
- Provincial / prə'vɪnʃəl /
- Don't you / dɒntʃʊ /
- Did you / dɪdʒʊ /
- Suggestion / sə'dʒestʃən /
- Interaction / intə'rækʃən /
- Elaboration / ɪləbə'reɪʃən /

b. Consonant Change Assimilations

In consonant change assimilation, assimilation can be occurred in various ways, based upon the assimilations of articulation place, articulation manner, or voicing.

i. Assimilations of Articulation Place

In assimilation of articulation place, the assimilation may be occurred in several main aspects, including (1) alveolar-plosive assimilations, (2) alveolar-nasal assimilations, (3) alveolar-plosive dental assimilations, (4) labio-dental fricative assimilations, and (5) alveolar-fricative assimilations.

Alveolar-Plosive Assimilations

The phoneme alveolar-plosive /t/ may become the phoneme bilabial-plosive /p/ when the phoneme /t/ is followed by bilabial /b, m, w/. If the phoneme alveolar /t/ comes before the

phoneme bilabial **/p/**, the phoneme **/t/** becomes the bilabial **/b/**. Below are examples of the alveolar-plosive assimilations.

- Fat boy / fæp bɔi /
- Department / di'pɑ:pmənt /
- That work / ðæp wɜ:k /
- That book / ðæp bʊk /
- That pen / ðæb pen /
- Meat ball / mi:p bɔ:l /
- Eat more / i:p mɔ: /
- Apartment / ə'pɑ:pmənt /

The phoneme alveolar-plosive **/t/** may be assimilated to phoneme velar-plosive **/k/** when the phoneme **/t/** is followed by the phoneme **/k, g/**. If the phoneme **/t/** is preceded by the phoneme **/k, g/**, the phoneme **/t/** may be assimilated to the phoneme velar **/k/**. Below are examples of the alveolar-plosive assimilations.

- White cow / waik kəʊ /
- Perfect coward / 'pɜ:fek 'kəʊəd /
- Might come / maik kʌm /
- That girl / ðæk gɜ:l /
- Hate gamble / heik 'gæmbəl /
- Might go / maik gəʊ /
- Bright color / braik kʌlə /
- Bake them / beik kəm /
- Take the book / teik kə bʊk /
- Hot cake / hɒk keik /
- Not quite / nɒk kwait /

The phoneme alveolar-plosive **/t/** is assimilated to the phoneme alveolar-nasal **/n/** when the phoneme alveolar **/t/** is the initial consonant of an unstressed syllable that is preceded by the phoneme alveolar **/n/** or velar **/ŋ/** in a stressed syllable. Here are examples of alveolar-plosive assimilations.

- Twenty / 'twenni /
- Internet / 'innənet /
- Want to / wɒnnə /
- Going to / 'gəʊinnə /
- Interact / innə'ækt /
- Intercom / 'innəkɒm /

The phoneme alveolar-plosive **/t/** is assimilated and is integrated into the phoneme palato-alveolar fricative **/ʃ/** or palato-alveolar affricative **/tʃ/** when the phoneme **/t/** is followed by a phoneme palato-alveolar fricative **/ʃ/** or palatal-approximant **/j/**. Here are examples of alveolar-plosive assimilations.

- Suggestion / sə'dʒestʃən /
- Exhaustion / ig'zɔ:stʃən /
- Exhumation / ekshju:'meɪʃən /
- Fortune / 'fɔ:tʃu:n /
- Meet you / mi:tʃʊ / or / mi:tʃə /
- Get you / getʃʊ / or / gettʃə /

The phoneme alveolar-plosive /**t**/ is assimilated to the phoneme alveolar-fricative /**s**/ when the phoneme /**t**/ is followed by a phoneme alveolar-fricative /**s**/. Here are examples of alveolar-plosive assimilations.

- Let see / les si: /
- Art sword / as swɔ:d /
- That sable / ðæs 'seɪbl /

The phoneme alveolar-plosive /**d**/ may be assimilated to the bilabial-plosive /**b**/ when the phoneme /**d**/ is followed by the bilabial /**p, b, m, w**/. Below are examples of alveolar-plosive assimilations.

- Bad boy / bæb bɔɪ /
- Red pen / reb pen /
- Should put / ʃʊb pʊt /
- Could make / kʊb meɪk /
- Should win / ʃʊb wɪn /

The phoneme alveolar-plosive /**d**/ may become the phoneme velar-plosive /**g**/ when the phoneme /**d**/ is followed by the phoneme velar-plosive /**k, g**/. Below are examples of the alveolar-plosive assimilations.

- Bad cold / bæg kəʊld /
- Red cake / reg keɪk /
- Should come / ʃʊg kʌm /
- Should go / kʊg gəʊ /
- Bad gate / bæg geɪt /
- Good girl / gʊg gɜ:l /
- Could come / kʊg kʌm /
- Good guy / gʊg gaɪ /
- Good kid / gʊg kɪd /
- Bad girl / bæg gɜ:l /
- Red color / reg 'kʌlə /

The phoneme alveolar-plosive /**d**/ may be integrated into the phoneme palato-alveolar affricative /**dʒ**/ when the phoneme /**d**/ is followed by the phoneme palatal-approximant /**j**/. Below are examples of the alveolar-plosive assimilations.

- Did you / dɪdʒʊ /

- Would you / wʊdʒʊ /
- Should you / ʃʊdʒʊ /
- Individual / indi'vidʒʊəl /
- Education / edʒʊ'keɪʃən /

Alveolar-Nasal Assimilations

The phoneme alveolar-nasal /**n**/ may become the phoneme bilabial-nasal /**m**/ when the phoneme /**n**/ is followed by the bilabial /**p, b, m, w**/. Below are examples of the alveolar-nasal assimilations.

- Ten boys / tem bɔɪz /
- Gone past / gɒm pɑːst /
- Seen Ben / si:m Ben /
- Ten men / tem men /
- Ten women / tem 'wɪmɪn /
- Green water / gri:m wɔːtə /
- Government / 'gʌvəmmənt /
- Can't batter / kɑ:m bætə /
- And more / æm mɔː /

Notice that the phoneme alveolar-nasal /**n**/ may be assimilated to phoneme bilabial-nasal /**m**/ when the phoneme /**n**/ is preceded by a phoneme bilabial in the same word and followed by a consonant in the same or next word.

- Open / əʊp^əm /
- Woman / 'wʊməm /
- Ribbon / rɪb^əm /
- Up and down / ʌp æm daʊn /
- Threw (sth) in / θru: ɪm /
- Go in / gəʊ^w ɪm /
- Ten pens / tem pen /
- Nine boy / naɪm bɔɪz /

The phoneme alveolar-nasal /**n**/ is nasalized and is assimilated to the phoneme velar-nasal /**ŋ**/ when the phoneme /**n**/ is followed by the phoneme velar-plosive /**k, g**/. Below are examples of the alveolar-nasal assimilations.

- One cup / wʌŋ kʌp /
- Seen Cambodian / si:ŋ kæm'bæʊdiən /
- Main gate / meɪŋ geɪt /
- My own car / maɪ əʊŋ kɑː /
- Ten coins / teŋ kɔɪnz /
- Green kite / gri:ŋ kaɪt /
- Can keep / kæŋ ki:p /
- Have been keened / hæv bi:ŋ ki:nd /

- Ten cows / tɛŋ kaʊz / or / tɛŋ kaʊz /
- In kitchen / ɪŋ 'kɪtʃən /
- Handkerchief / 'hæŋkətʃi:f /
- Handcart / 'hæŋkɑ:t /
- Handgun / 'hæŋɡʌn /

Notice that the phoneme alveolar-nasal /n/ may be assimilated to phoneme velar-nasal /ŋ/ when the phoneme /n/ is preceded by a phoneme velar-plosive /k, g/ in the same word and followed by a consonant in the same or next word.

- Bacon / 'beɪkən /
- Taken / teɪkən /
- Balcony / 'bælkənɪ /
- Kindergarten / 'kɪŋdʒɑ:tən /

Alveolar-Plosive Dental Assimilations

The phoneme alveolar-plosive /t, d, n/ is dentalized and is assimilated to dental-fricative /θ, ð/ when the phoneme /t, d, n/ is followed by the dental-fricative /θ, ð/. Here are examples of alveolar-plosive dental assimilations.

- Get there / getðeə /
- Tenth / tenθ /
- Bad thing / bædθɪŋ /
- Thousandth / 'θaʊzəndθ /

Labio-Dental Fricative Assimilations

The phoneme labio-dental fricative /v/ may be assimilated to the phoneme bilabial-nasal /m/ when the phoneme /v/ is followed by the phoneme /m/. Here are examples of the labio-dental fricative assimilations.

- Love me / lʌm mi: /
- Leave meeting / li:m mi:tɪŋ /
- Remove mute / ri'mu:m mju:t /

Alveolar-Fricative Assimilations

The phoneme alveolar-fricative /s/ is assimilated to the phoneme palato-alveolar fricative /ʃ/ when the phoneme /s/ is followed by the phoneme /j/ or /j/. Below are examples of the alveolar-fricative assimilations.

- Nice shoes / naɪʃ ju:z /
- This shop / ðɪʃ ʃɒp /
- This year / ðɪʃ jɪə /

The phoneme alveolar-fricative /z/ is assimilated to the phoneme palato-alveolar fricative /ʒ/ when the phoneme /z/ is followed by the phoneme /j/ or /j/. Below are examples of the alveolar-fricative assimilations.

- These sheep / ði:ʒ ʃi:p /
- Those shops / ðəʊʒ ʃɒp /
- These years / ði:ʒ jɪəz /
- Where's yours / weəʒjɔ:z /
- Boys' shoes / bɔɪz ʃu: /

ii. Assimilations of Articulation Manner

In the assimilation of articulation manner, the assimilation is only regressive assimilation of alveolar consonant, and it may be occurred in two main aspects, such as plosive-fricative assimilation and plosive-nasal assimilation.

Plosive-Fricative Assimilations

The phoneme plosive /t/ is assimilated to the phoneme fricative /s/ when the phoneme /t/ is followed by a fricative /s/. Below are examples of the plosive-fricative assimilations.

- That side / ðæs saɪd /
- Bright sightseeing / braɪs 'saɪtsi:ɪŋ /
- Right side / raɪs saɪd /

The phoneme plosive /t/ is assimilated to the phoneme fricative /z/ when the phoneme /t/ is followed by a fricative /z/. Below are examples of the plosive-fricative assimilations.

- That zoo / ðæz zu: /
- Great zeal / greɪz zi:l /
- That zebra / ðæz 'zeb rə /
- Bright zest / braɪz zest /

The phoneme plosive /d/ is assimilated to the phoneme fricative /s/ when the phoneme /d/ is followed by a fricative /s/. Below are examples of the plosive-fricative assimilations.

- Good song / gʊs sɔŋ /
- Wide site / waɪs saɪt /
- Divided section / di 'vaɪdɪs 'seɪʃən /
- Widescreen / waɪsskri:n /
- Widespread / waɪsspri:d /
- Bad song / bæz sɔŋ /

The phoneme plosive /d/ is assimilated to the phoneme fricative /z/ when the phoneme /d/ is followed by a fricative /z/. Below are examples of the plosive-fricative assimilations.

- Bad zone / bæz zəʊn /
- Wild zoo / waɪz zu:/
- Good zone / gʊz zəʊn /
- Proud zealot / praʊz 'zelət /

Plosive-Nasal Assimilations

The phoneme plosive /**t**/ is assimilated to the phoneme nasal /**n**/ when the phoneme /**t**/ is followed by a nasal /**n**/ . Below are examples of the plosive-nasal assimilations.

- That night / ðæn naɪt /
- Great news / greɪn nju:z /

The phoneme plosive /**d**/ is assimilated to the phoneme nasal /**n**/ when the phoneme /**d**/ is followed by a nasal /**n**/ . Below are examples of the plosive-nasal assimilations.

- Good night / gʊn naɪt /
- Bad news / bæ nju:z /

Notice that /d (ð)/ follows a plosive or nasal at the end of a preceding word is assimilated to the plosive or nasal.

- Get them / get təm /
- In the / innə /

iii. Assimilations of Voicing

Assimilation of voicing refers to a cluster of the two consonants differentiating in voicing. When the two consonants are in coda they must agree in voicing either unvoiced or voiced. Assimilation of voicing is classified into two types, such as assimilation of voicing across morpheme boundaries and assimilation of voicing across word boundaries.

Assimilations of Voicing across Morpheme Boundaries

Assimilation of voicing across morpheme boundaries refers to the representation of the plural noun marker, the possessive cases, and singular present tense, which most commonly agree in voicing with the preceding regressive consonant. In assimilation of voicing across morpheme boundaries, the unvoiced /**s**/ of the English regular plural suffix is changed to /**z**/ after a voiced phoneme (sound). In addition, the voiced /**d**/ of the English regular past-tense suffix is changed to the /**t**/ after an unvoiced phoneme. For this situation, the value of the voicing feature goes from the voiced to the unvoiced or from the unvoiced to the voiced because of the assimilation of the unvoiced and voiced feature of the final consonant of a morpheme (stem). The plural suffix /**s**/ is alternated to /**s**/, /**z**/, or /**ɪz**/ based upon the surrounding phoneme.

Alternation of Plural Suffix /s/		
/s/ if preceded by the	/z/ if preceded by the	/ɪz/ if preceded by the
Unvoiced phoneme / p , t , k , f , θ /	Voiced phoneme / b , d , g , l , m , n , r , v , j /	Phoneme / s , z , ʃ , ʒ , tʃ , dʒ /

- Baths	/bɑ:θs /	- Ages	/eidʒiz /	- Brushes	/brʌʃiz /
- Books	/bʊks /	- Beds	/bedz /	- Buses	/bʌsɪz /
- Cats	/kæts /	- Dogs	/dɒgz /	- Buzzes	/bʌzɪz /
- Chiefs	/tʃi:fs /	- Doors	/dɔ:ɾz /	- Theses	/θi:sɪz /
- Cups	/kʌps /	- Pens	/penz /	- Watches	/wɒtʃɪz /
		- Lambs	/læmbz /		
		- Walls	/wɔlz /		
		- Wives	/waɪvz /		

Alternation of Regular Past-Tense Suffix /d/

/t/ if preceded by unvoiced		/d/ if preceded by voiced		/ɪd/ if preceded by	
Phoneme /p , k, f, s, ʃ, z, dʒ, tʃ/		Phoneme / b, l, m, n, r, v, /		Phoneme / d, t /	
- Dozed	/dəʊzt /	- Bothered	/ˈbʊðərd /	- Advertised	/ˈædvətəɪzt
- Judged	/dʒʌdʒt/	- Geared	/ɡiərd /	- Avoided	/əˈvɔɪdɪd /
- Knifed	/naɪft /	- Killed	/kɪld /	- Blamed	/bleɪmd /
- Parked	/pɑːkt /	- Moved	/muːvd /	- Studied	/ˈstʌdɪd /
- Passed	/pɑːst /	- Rubbed	/rʌbd /	- United	/jʊˈnaɪtɪd /
- Realized	/ˈrɪələɪzt /			- Wanted	/wɒntɪd /
- Voiced	/vɔɪst /				
- Watched	/wɒtʃt /				
- Washed	/wɒʃt /				

Assimilations of Voicing across Word Boundaries

In English linguistics, assimilation of voicing across word boundaries refers to a regressive assimilation that is found across word boundaries when a voiced final consonant (Cf) of a first word is followed by an unvoiced initial consonant (Ci) of a second word. In this case, the voiced final consonant of a first word becomes an unvoiced consonant. So that it is formed as Cf + Ci → Cf becomes unvoiced.

- Have to	/hæftu: /	- Bad tongue	/bættŋ /
- Big car	/bɪk kɑ: /	- good son	/gʊs sʌn /

3.2 Elisions

Elision refers to the deletion, loss, or omission of either vowels or consonants. Elision involves changes in which the phonemes (sounds) in connected speech are deleted, lost, or omitted. In English linguistics, the most common elisions are /t/ and /d/ phonemes within a consonant cluster, both within word boundaries (word internal) and across word boundaries. For example, eight tins /eɪtɪnz/, next day /neksdeɪ/, standby /stænbai/. Other consonants, such as /h/, /k/, or /p/ phonemes are lost or omitted. For example, did he do his homework? /dɪdɪz

dʊɪz hæʊmwɜ:k/, asked /ɑ:st/, temptation /tem'teɪn/. Within a word (word internal), the weak vowels /ə, i, ʊ/ between consonants in unstressed syllables, particularly when followed by lateral /r, l/ or nasal /m, n/ are deleted or disappeared. Across word boundaries, the vowel of the second word is omitted. For example, curtain /cɜ:tn/, peaceful /pi:sfl/, see it /si:t/. The unstressed functional words may also be deleted or elided. With the polysyllabic words, the vowels and consonants in unstressed syllables are most commonly deleted or disappeared. For example, probably / prɒbbli /. The complex consonant clusters are also reduced. For example, twelfths / twelθs / or / twelfs /.

Rules of Elisions

Elision is a phoneme (sound) change in which the vowels and consonants in both word internal (within word boundaries) and word boundaries (across word boundaries) are elided or deleted. There are several aspects of the vowel and consonant elisions. The details of the vowel and consonant elisions would be discussed as the following.

a. Consonant Elision

In English linguistics, the phonemes /t, d/ are the most common elisions when they are within a word cluster, both within the word boundaries (word internal) and across word boundaries.

i. With Word Internal

Within word internal, the alveolar-plosive consonants /t, d/ are omitted or elided when they appear between two consonants. The examples are given as follow:

- | | |
|-------------------------|--------------------------|
| - Handsome / 'hænsəm / | - Postpone / pə'spəʊn / |
| - Grandma / 'græmmɑ: / | - Postcard / 'pəʊskɑ:d / |
| - Sandwich / 'sænwɪdʒ / | - Standby / 'stænbai / |

ii. Across Word Boundaries

Across word boundaries, elision is the phoneme loss in which the final phonemes /t, d/ of a first word are deleted or elided. The examples are given as follow:

- | | |
|---------------------------|----------------------------|
| - Left back / lef bæk / | - Must go / mʌs gəʊ / |
| - Next turn / neks tɜ:n / | - Best joke / bes dʒəʊk / |
| - Send two / 'sen tu: / | - Rubbed down / rʌb dəʊn / |

In consonant elision, the complex consonant clusters are simplified or reduced in a word internal.

- | | |
|---------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| - Acts / æks / | - texts / teks / |
| - Sixth's throne / siks θrəʊn / | - twelfths / twelθs / or / twelfs / |

In consonant elision, the phonemic consonants /k, p/ within a word internal may also be elided or disappeared.

- | | |
|----------------------|----------------------------|
| - Asked / ɑ:st / | - Temptation / tem 'teɪn / |
| - Attempt / ə'tæmt / | - Prompt / prɒmt / |

Notice that in consonant elision, there are some fixed expressions with more dramatic changes.

- Want to → wanna
- Don't know → dunno
- Going to → gonna

iii. Exceptions and special cases

There are some exceptions in which the phonemes /t, d/ are not elided or disappeared.

- Moved here /mu:vd hɪə/
- Must have /mæst hæv/
- Doctor and patient /dɒktr əm peɪʃnt/
- You and I /ju: ən aɪ/
- Cold year /kəʊld jɪə/
- Loved ones /lʌvd wʌnz/
- Wouldn't hesitate /wʊdn heɪzɪteɪt/
- Can't tell /kɑ:n tel/
- Almost any /ɔ:lməʊst enɪ/
- Difficult aspect /dɪfɪklt æspæk/
- Two and a half /ən ə ha:f/
- Went by /went baɪ/
- Last will /lɑ:st wɪl/
- Shouldn't worry /ʃəʊdn wʌrɪ/
- Don't like /dəʊn laɪk/

b. Vowel Elision

In vowel elision, the weak, central vowels /ə, ɪ, ʊ/ are reduced or elided when they appear in unstressed syllables between two phonemic consonants with a word internal or when they are followed by the phonemic lateral /r, l/ or phonemic nasal /m, n/. The weak vowel /i/ is also deleted or reduced when the first word ending in vowel meet the second word beginning with the vowel /i/.

- Importance /ɪm'pɔ:tns/
- Impatient /ɪm'peɪʃnt/
- Nasal /'neɪzl/
- Wonderful /'wʌndəfl/
- See it /si:t/
- Certain /'sɜ:tn/
- Student /'stju:dnt/
- Peaceful /'pi:sfl/
- Problem /'prɒblm/

The schwa sound /ə/ combining with the stop consonant (weak vowel + stop consonant) is elided or disappeared within a word internal.

- Today /tdeɪ/
- Police /p'li:s/
- Forever /f'revə/
- Interesting /'ɪntrestɪŋ/
- Moderate /'mɒdreɪt/
- Potato /p'teɪtəʊ/
- Tonight /t'naɪt/
- Perhaps /p'hæps/
- Vegetable /'vedʒtəbl/

The schwa sound /ə/ is deleted or lost when it followed by the phonemic-lateral consonants /r, l/ or phonemic-nasal consonants /m, n/ within a word internal.

- Canal /k'næl/
- Connect /k'nekt/
- Caution /kə:ʃn/
- Correct /k'rekt/
- Internal /ɪn'tɜ:nl/
- Camel /'kæml/

- Column /'kɒlm /
- Principal /'printsɪpl /

The schwa sound /ə/ is elided or disappeared within a word ending in the spelling: -tary, -tory, -dary, -berry, or -ary.

- Factory /'fæktri /
- Secretary /'sekɹətri /
- Raspberry /'rɑ:zbri /
- Diary /'daɪri /
- Dromedary /'drɒmədri /
- Dictionary /'dɪkʃnri /
- secondary /'sekəndri /
- Temporary /'tempəri /
- Strawberry /'strɔ:bri /

The double vowel elisions may be elided or disappeared within the same word of a word internal.

- Liberal /'librl /
- Dictionary /'dɪkʃnri /
- Representation /reprɪzn'teɪʃn /
- Ordinary /'ɔ:dɹi /

Exceptions

The sequences /**dən**, **tən**/ are preceded by any of the nasal.

- London /'lʌndən /
- Camden /'kæmdən /
- Washington /'wɒʃɪŋtən /

Some nouns ending in /-ful/.

- Pocketful /'pɒkɪtful /
- Spoonful /'spu:nful /

Functional Word Elisions

Functional (structural) words can be used for the elisions in English. The functional words include articles, auxiliary verbs, prepositions, pronouns, and conjunctions, which are elided or disappeared in connected speech. The functional words may be elided in various features, such as deletion of the phoneme /h/ in pronouns and auxiliary verbs, usage of weak form for other functional words, syllabic contractions by using homophonic spelling, “To” reducing and linking, negatives in verb forms, and loss of /v/ in “of.”

i. /h/ Elision in Pronouns and Auxiliary Verbs

The initial phoneme /h/ in pronouns and auxiliary verbs may be deleted and is linked to the remaining phonemes (sounds) to the preceding word. Notice that when the phoneme /h/ beginning the phrase (after a pause), the phoneme /h/ may not be deleted or elided.

- I met her last week. /metə /
- Sokha wishes Sokharath had good luck. / -ðəd /
- Did he ask her to join his wedding? / dɪdɪ ɑ:skər /, / dʒɔɪnɪz /
- Den has been helpful. / denəz /
- Is that her new car? / ðætər /
- He should have told me about that. / ʃʊdəv /
- I saw him in the meeting room yesterday. / sɔ:ɪm /

ii. /v/ Elision in Preposition “of”

The phoneme /v/ in “of” may be disappeared before the consonant.

- Lots of them / lɒtsədəm /
- Waste of money / weɪstəmʌni /
- My birthday is one the fourth of June. / fɔːrθədʒuːn /
- It is a complete waste of time. / weɪstətʰaɪm /
- That is the least of my concerns. / liːstəmaɪ /

iii. Weak Form Usage for Other Functional Words

The schwa sound /ə/ is used in the weak forms for other functional words in the case of constructing the elisions in the normal speech.

- Take your time / jər /
- What do you want for your birthday? / də /
- There's no sugar in the jar. / z /
- She was there last Monday. / wɪz /
- He has to do this exercise. / tə /
- You and I are students. / n /
- She likes them much. / ðəm /
- I will talk to you later. / jə /
- He can come to meet you if he is free. / kən /
- Can you come to the party? / kən /

iv. Syllabic Contractions through Homophonic Spelling

In English elision, the syllabic contractions are appeared to smooth the transition from one word to the next word by using the homophonic spellings.

- How've you been? / haʊnjuː /
- Why're you so angry? / waɪəˈr / or / waɪr /
- Why'd she go there? / waɪd /
- We'll visit my daughter next month. / wiːl /
- She'd like pizza. / ʃiːd /
- I'd like a coke. / aɪ dlaɪk /
- He might've told her about love. / maɪtə /
- You should've explained this clearly and concisely. / ʃʊdə /
- He'd go if he could. / hiːd /
- She said she'd visited Angkor Wat temple. / ʃiːd /
- He should've come in early day. / ʃʊdəf /
- Sokha's gone. / sɒkəːz /

v. “To” Reducing and Linking

In English elision, “To” that is regarded as a preposition and a part of an infinitive should be reduced and linked to the preceding word.

- You have to wake up early. / hæf tə /
- He ought to know better about her. / ɔtə /
- She goes to school on eggs. / gəʊz tə /

vi. Negatives in Verb Forms

In English elision, negatives in verb forms should be shortened and linked to other words in the phrase.

- She shouldn't have done that. / ʃʊdənəv /
- You wouldn't have told her if you'd known how hurt she'd be. / wʊdənəv /
- I haven't had a drink. / hævənt / or / hævən /
- He hasn't given up smoking. / hæzənt / or / hæzən /
- She can't join your wedding because of her illness. / kənt /

3.3 Linking (Catenation)

Linking is a catenation in which the words or phonemes (sounds) are linked together. In English linking, the final consonant phoneme of the first word is connected to the initial vowel phoneme of the second word. For example, pick it up / pɪkɪtʌp /, what is it / wɒtɪzɪt /, run across / rʌnəkrɒs /. Linking, however, can be joined the final vowel phoneme of the first word to the initial vowel of the second word. For example, see it / si:yɪt /. In addition, the final consonant phoneme of the first word is connected to the initial consonant phoneme of the second word. For example, black cat / blækæt /. Notice that when the final vowel phonemes of a word are like /ə, ɑ:, ɔ:/, the letter /r/ is appeared. Most commonly, the semi-vowel phoneme /j/ is appeared when a word ends in /i:, ai, ɔi/ or a diphthong which ends in /i/. For example, they are, aren't they? / ðeɪjɑ: rɑ:nt /. When a word ends in /əʊ, ʊ, u:/, the phoneme /w/ is pronounced. For example, go on / gəʊwɒn /. Linking may be the consonant-vowel linking, vowel-vowel linking, and consonant-consonant linking.

Consonant-Vowel Linking

In the consonant-vowel linking, the final consonant phoneme of the first word is linked to the initial vowel phoneme of the second word when a word ends in a consonant phoneme and the next word is preceded by a vowel phoneme.

- Drive up in a / draɪvəpɪnə /
- Has a bad attitude / hæzə bætɪtʊd /
- Some orange juice / sʌmɔrɪndʒ dʒu:s/ or / sʌmɔrɪndʒu:s/
- Her office is big. / hərəʊfɪsɪz /
- Beautiful eyes / 'bju:tɪflaɪz/
- Clean up / kli:nəp /
- Job office / dʒɔbɔfɪs /

Notice that when a word ends in two consonant phonemes and the next begins with a vowel, the final consonant phoneme of a first word sounds like it is the initial consonant phoneme of the following word (second word). When a word ends in a single consonant phoneme and

the next word is with an initial vowel, the consonant is straddled as the two syllables of a word.

- | | | | |
|---------------------|---------------|-------------|--------------|
| - Send it | / sen dit / | - Camp out | / kæm pɑʊt / |
| - Push up | / pʊʃəp / | - Stop it | / stɒpɪt / |
| - Come in | / kʌmɪn / | - Take off | / teɪkɔf / |
| - Feel it/ fiəlit / | | - Peel off | / piəɔf / |
| - Find out | / faɪn daʊt / | - Switch on | / swɪtʃɒn / |
| - Run over | / rʌnəʊvə / | - Run-up | / rʌnʌp / |

Vowel-Vowel Linking

In the vowel-vowel linking, the phoneme /r/ is pronounced when a word ending with the vowel phoneme /ə/, /ɑ:/, or /ɔ:/ that exists /r, re/ or without /r/ is followed by another word beginning with the vowel phoneme.

- | | | | |
|---------------|-------------------|--------------|--------------|
| - Four eagles | / fɔ:ri:gl / | - Your eyes | / jɔ:raɪz / |
| - For ever | / fɔ:revə / | - Runner-on | / rʌnərɒn / |
| - For us | / fɔ:rəz / | - More ice | / mɔ:raɪz / |
| - Media event | / mi:diəri:vənt / | - Far enough | / fɑ:rɪnʌf / |

When a word ending with the vowel phoneme /i:/, /i/, /ei/, /ai/, or /ɔi/ is followed by another word beginning with the vowel phoneme, the phoneme /j/ is appeared in the vowel-vowel linking.

- | | | | |
|----------------|----------------|-------------------------|----------------|
| - Be a sport | / bi:jə / | - Play a game | / pleɪjə / |
| - Tie it up | / taɪjɪt / | - Employ a professional | / ɪmˈplɔɪjə / |
| - Pretty early | / prɪtɪjɜ:li / | - I agree | / aɪjəɡri: / |
| - The answer | / ðɪjænsə / | - May I ask | / meɪjaɪjæsk / |

When a word ends with the vowel phoneme /əʊ/, /ʊ/, /u:/, or /aʊ/ is followed by another word beginning with the vowel phoneme, the phoneme /w/ is pronounced in the vowel-vowel linking.

- | | | | |
|-------------------|-------------|----------------|-------------------------|
| - Go in | / gəʊwɪn / | - You are | / ju:wɑ: / or / ju:wə / |
| - Through it | / θru:wɪt / | - Show it | / ʃəʊwɪt / |
| - Slow and steady | / sləʊwən / | - How are you? | / həʊwə / |
| - Too old | / təʊwɔld / | - Yellow Audi | / jeləʊwɔdi / |

Consonant-Consonant Linking

In English consonant-consonant linking, the final consonant phoneme of the first word is linked to the initial consonant phoneme of the second word without releasing it when a word ends in a consonant phoneme and the next word begins with another consonant phoneme.

When the final consonant phoneme of the first word and the initial consonant phoneme of the second word are the same consonant phonemes, the final consonant phoneme of the first word is held and lengthened in the consonant-consonant linking.

- | | | | |
|--------------|-------------|--------------|--------------|
| - Black cats | / blækæts / | - Help Peter | / helpɪ:tə / |
|--------------|-------------|--------------|--------------|

- Good dog / gʊdɔg /
- With three / wiθri: /
- Some more / sʌmɔ: /
- Class starts / klɑ:stɑ:t /

In the identical-consonant linking, the consonant phoneme is somewhat lengthened when the consonant phonemes (whether stop or not) are identical. Therefore, the two consonant phonemes are not separately articulated.

- Less serious / les siəriəs /
- Keep practicing / ki:p præktisiŋ /
- Bad dog / bæddɔg /
- Big girl / biggz:l /
- This seat / ðissi:t /
- Hot tea / hɒt ti: /
- Common name / kɒmən neim /
- Stop pushing / stɒppʊʃiŋ /
- Good deal / gʊddi:l /
- Felt tired / felttaɪəd /

When the final consonant phoneme of the first word is different from the initial consonant phoneme of the second word, the final consonant phoneme of the first word is most often changed to be more like the initial consonant phoneme of the next word.

- Eat breakfast / i:p brekfəst /
- Get wage / gep weɪdʒ /
- Hot cake / hɒk keɪk /
- Want to / wɒnnə /
- Red pen / reb pen /
- Should work / ʃʊb wɜ:k /
- Bad cold / bæɡ kəʊld /
- In bed / im bed /
- Ten pens / tem penz /
- Bin waste / bim weɪst /
- Can keep / kænki:p /
- Nice shoes / naɪfʃu:z /
- That side / ðæs saɪd /
- Good song / gʊs sɔŋ /
- That night / ðæn naɪt /
- That pen / ðæb pen /
- Ate more / eɪp mɔ: /
- That girl / ðæk ɡɜ:l /
- Let see / les si: /
- Good book / gʊb bʊk /
- Could make / kʊb meɪk /
- Good girl / gʊɡ ɡɜ:l /
- Ten boys / tem bɔɪz /
- Ten men / tem men /
- Cone cup / wʌŋkʌp /
- Love me / lʌm mi: /
- These years / ði:z jɪəz /
- That zebra / ðæz zebrə /
- Bad zone / bæz zəʊn /
- Good night / gʊn naɪt /

When the final consonant-stop phoneme of a first word is followed by the initial consonant-stop or consonant-affricative phoneme of a second word, the final consonant-stop phoneme of the first word is not released or aspirated.

- Hot dog / hɒtdɒk /
- Bad judgment / bæddʒʌdʒmənt /
- Back door / bækdɔ: /
- Sick child / sɪktʃaɪld /

In the consonant-consonant linking, the final consonant phoneme /t, d/ of the first word is deleted or omitted when the second word begins with a consonant phoneme.

- East side / i:ssaɪd /
- Wild boar / waɪl bɔ: /
- blind page / blɑɪn peɪdʒ /
- Next door / neks dɔ: /

When the phoneme /t/ is the final consonant phoneme of a first word and the second word begins with the phoneme /j/, the phoneme /t/ and /j/ are integrated into the phoneme /tʃ/ in the consonant-consonant linking.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|----------------------------|
| - That you / ðætʃu: / | - Don't you / dɒntʃu: / |
| - Haven't you / hævəntʃu: / | - Can't you / kəntʃu: / |
| - Aren't you / ɑ:nʃu: / | - Didn't you / didəntʃu: / |

When the phoneme /d/ is the final consonant phoneme of a first word and the second word begins with the phoneme /j/, the phoneme /d/ and /j/ are integrated into the phoneme /dʒ/ in the consonant-consonant linking.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|-------------------------------|
| - Did you / didʒu: / | - Would you / wʊdʒu: / |
| - Made your bed / meɪdʒɔ: / | - Do you / dʒu: / or / dʒɔ: / |

3.4 Intrusions (Insertions)

Intrusion is an insertion that adds the extra phoneme (sound) into the spoken utterance. In English intrusion, the phonemes /r, j, w/ are inserted or added into the spoken utterance between the connection of final vowel phoneme of the first word and the initial vowel phoneme of the second word.

In the English intrusive linking, the phoneme /r/ is appeared when a word ending with the vowel phoneme /ə/, /ɑ:/, or /ɔ:/ is followed by another word beginning with the vowel phoneme.

- | | |
|---------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| - Idea of / aɪdɪərɔf / | - Vanilla ice cream / vənɪləreɪs / |
| - Saw it / sɔ:ɪt / | - Drawing / drɔ:ɪŋ / |
| - Sofa and chair / səʊfərən / | - Law and order / lɔ:rən / |
| - Media event / mi:diəri:vənt / | - Formula A / fɔ:mjələreɪ / |

When a word ending with the vowel phoneme /i:/, /ɪ/, /ei/, /ai/, or /ɔi/ is followed by another word beginning with the vowel phoneme, the phoneme /j/ is inserted in intrusive linking.

- | | |
|---------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| - The other / ðɪjəðə / | - My aunt / maɪjɑ:nt / |
| - See us / si:jəz / | - property of / prɒpətɪjɔf / |
| - Pretty ugly / prɪtɪjʌgli / | - I always / aɪjɔ:lweɪz / |
| - The announcer / ðɪjənəʊntsə / | - May ask / meɪjɑ:sk / or / meɪjæsk / |
| - Employ it / ɪmplɔɪjɪt / | - Annoy us / ənɔɪjəz / |

When a word ends with the vowel phoneme /ʊ/, /u:/, /əʊ/, or /aʊ/ is followed by another word beginning with the vowel phoneme, the phoneme /w/ is added into the connection of the intrusive linking.

- | | |
|--------------------------|---------------------------|
| - Go away / gəʊwəweɪ / | - Two others / tu:wʌðəz / |
| - Do it / dəʊɪt / | - You are / ju:wɑ: / |
| - Threw out / θru:wəʊt / | - How is she? / haʊwɪz / |
| - To eat / tu:wɪ:t / | - so often / səʊwɔftən / |

3.5 Contractions

In English linguistics, contraction refers to the combination of two words to the extent in which the two words are pronounced as one word or one syllable. Contraction majorly occurs with the personal pronouns, verb “to be,” auxiliary verb “have,” modal auxiliary verbs “will and would,” and particle “not.”

- I'm	/aɪm/	- She's (is/has)	/ʃɪz/ or /ʃi:z/
- I've	/aɪv/	- You're	/jɔ:ɾ/ or /jəɾ/
- We're	/wi:jə/ or /wijə/	- You'd (had/would)	/ju:d/
- You'll	/ju:l/	- She'd (had/would)	/ʃɪd/ or /ʃi:d/
- They'll	/ðeɪl/	- I'd (had/would)	/ɪd/
- Can't	/kɑ:nt/	- Wouldn't	/wʊðənt/
- Don't	/dɒnt/ or /dnt/	- Didn't	/dɪdʰn't/ or /dɪdn't/
- Shouldn't	/ʃʊdʰnt/ or /ʃʊdnt/	- Won't	/wəʊnt/ or /wɒnt/
- Do you	/D'you/	- How's (is/has)	/haʊz/
- They've	/ðeɪv/	- How'd (had/would)	/haʊd/
- Aren't	/ɑ:nt/	- Hasn't	/hæznt/ or /həznt/
- Isn't	/ɪznt/ or /znt/	- Haven't	/hævənt/
- Wasn't	/wɒzənt/	- Weren't	/wɜ:nt/
- It's (is/has)	/ɪtz/	- It'd (had/would)	/ɪtəd/
- He's (is/has)	/hɪz/	- Would've	/wʊdəv/
- Could've	/kʊdəv/	- Wouldn't've	/wʊdntəv/
- They're	/ðeɪjə/	- I'll	/aɪl/
- She'll've	/ʃi:ləv/	- Couldn't've	/kʊdntəv/
- She'd've	/ʃɪdəv/	- Shouldn't've	/ʃʊdntəv/

3.6 Geminate (Twin Phonemes)

Geminate refers to the twin phonemes (sounds) in which two same phonemes back-to-back are appeared. When a word ends with the same phoneme or letter as the initial phoneme or letter of the next word, the connection of the two words in speech is occurred or appeared.

- Social life	→ socialife	- Pet turtle	→ Peturtle
- Media app	→ mediapp	- Mild dog	→ mildog
- Good deed	→ goodeed	- Bad deed	→ badeed

3.7 Delayed Plosives

Delayed plosive refers to the articulation in which the phoneme is delayed in speech. Meanwhile, the consonant phonemes (sounds) where the vocal track stops all airflow are delayed or postponed between the two words. The articulation of two consonant phonemes is delayed when a word ends with the same consonant phoneme as the beginning of the next word. Therefore, delayed plosive is a pause before the consonant plosive or stop. Most commonly, the consonant phonemes /b, d, g, p, t, k/ are often delayed or postponed between the two words.

- Red dye - Right tie - Pill spill - Till still - Kill skill

3.8 Junctures

In English linguistics, juncture is a transition (manner of moving) between two phonemes or to successive syllables in speech. Juncture is a pause or slight delay of articulation in a progressive flow of speech. The phoneme (sound) transitions characterize the movement from phoneme to phoneme within a word or phrase. The importance of the juncture is the phonemic suprasegmental cue by the means of which the listeners can distinguish between the identical sequent phonemes that have varied meaning.

Juncture refers to the specific phonemes in the structures of the phrases at the initial, in the middle, and at the final of the words, phrases, clauses, and/or sentences, that is, it changes the meaning of the utterance. Juncture is a pause in speech, which shows the representation of the words or other grammatical units – the phonemes that change the meaning of the utterance.

Juncture is one of the suprasegmental phoneme types and signifies the phonemic movement (transition) between the segmental phonemes of words, phrases, and sentences. Junctures are classified into types, such as close juncture and open juncture. Close juncture is a transition of the two phonemes (movement from phoneme to phoneme), which is has no intervening pauses or delay. Open juncture is a transition of two phonemes, which is not progressive and slightly delays of the final phoneme until it blends with the next phoneme. In the phrase “*my turn and might earn*,” the close juncture is “*m+ai*,” and open juncture is “*m, n*.” to. Notice that the word boundary, which is preceded or followed by a pause, may require an open juncture.

- *I scream* for *ice cream*.
- The watch *keeps ticking*. The children *keep sticking* pictures on the wall.
- That is *my train*. It *might rain*.
- These are the *great apes*. These are the *grey tapes*.
- Could you give me some *more ice*? Could you give me some *more rice*?
- Peace talks. Pea stalks.
- Fetch me the *paper, boy*! Fetch me the *paper boy*.
- I have *a name*. I have *an aim*.
- There is a *night rate*. There is *a nitrate*.
- It is a *shore train*. It is *short rain*.
- It is a *new deal*. It is a *nude eel*.
- Dr. THAN has *four met*. The *form ate* is past tense of the verb eat.
- *It swings* now, the bird. The bird stretches *its swings*.
- The *dogs tail* their tails when seeing the bones. The *dog's tail* is moving.

Chapter Two

Cognizance of English Lexicology

Objectives

This chapter helps learners recognize the vital aspects of lexicology in English linguistics, as would be discussed as follow:

- Categories of Lexicons
- Lexical Sophistication
- Homonyms, homographs, homophones, and allophones
- Anaphora and cataphora
- Vernacular and dialects

Introduction to Lexicological Cognizance in English Linguistics

In English linguistics, lexicology refers to a study of the form, meaning, and use of lexicons (words). Lexicology is a branch of linguistics in which it analyzes the lexicons of a specific language. Lexicon is the smallest meaningful unit of a language in which it can stand on its own, and it is made up of morphemes (small components) and phonemes (small elements). Lexicology, in other word, involves the relations between lexicons in which it may involve semantics, inflection, derivation, usage, and any other issues involved in analyzing the whole lexicon of a language. Lexicology deals not only with simple lexicons (words) but also with complex and compound lexicons (meaningful units of a language).

Unit 1

Lexicons

Lexicon is a vocabulary of a language or a branch of knowledge, such as humanistic, subjective, scientific, nautical, technical, educational, medical, dialectic, etc. In English linguistics, a lexicon is an inventory of lexemes in a language. The term “lexicon” is derived from the Greek word “lexikon” and neuter of “lexokos” meaning “of or for word.” In accordance with the English linguistic theories, human language consists of two parts, including lexicon (a catalogue of words in a language) and grammar (a systematic rule that allows for the combination of those words into meaningful sentences).

Lexicon, in addition, is organized according to two categories, such as content lexicons (content/lexical words) and functional lexicons (grammatical/structural words). Content lexicons, including nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs have highly active generation, and their lexemes are more meaningful and semantic in nature. Content lexicons are also called open categorized lexicons or words. Functional lexicons, such as pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, articles, determiners, auxiliary verbs, and modal verbs are rarely given new lexemes, and their function is primarily and grammatical syntactic. Functional lexicons are also called close categorized lexicons or words.

Lexicons are classified into several types, including academic lexicons, technical lexicons, lexical family, content lexicons, functional lexicons, phrasal-verbal lexicons, idiomatic lexicons, lexical variety, lexical density, lexical compositionality, lexical choices, lexical chunks, and colloquialism.

1.1 Academic Lexicons

Academic lexicon refers to a lexicon (word) in which the humans understand and use in speaking or writing. Academic lexicon is also called active lexicon (word/vocabulary). In English linguistics, academic lexicon is a set of lexicons, in which a person, group, or profession is familiar with using in speech and writing. Most commonly, academic lexicons are the general and academic lexicons in which those lexicons are correctly used speech and writing with the fully understandable meaning by a human. Here are examples of the academic lexicons, as follow: *weather, cloud, snow, smart, advisor, professor, great*, etc.

1.2 Technical Lexicons

Technical lexicon refers to the lexicon (word) in which the humans understand but are not able to use. Technical lexicon is also called passive lexicon (word/vocabulary). In English linguistics, it is a list of all of the lexicons and definitions of a language, profession, subject, field of knowledge, and specialized group of individuals or from a specific person. Understanding technical lexicon is essential for professional success. Here are examples of

the technical lexicons, as follow: *tsunami, anthropologist, photosynthesis, lexicology, phonology, morphology, hazard, laser beams, teleconference, amputate, biotechnology, oxymoron, telepathy, cookie, gravity, electroplating, hypernym*, etc.

1.3 Lexical Family

Lexical family is a base form of a lexicon plus its inflectional forms and derivational forms that are made with prefixes and suffixes plus its cognates (original root-lexicons). For example, *read, reread, reading, readable, readably*, etc. Lexical family, however, refers to a group of lexicons, in which it has a common pattern or group of letters with the same phoneme (sound). Here are examples as follow: *brain, gain, train, chain, pain, rain, stain, grain, strain*, etc. As shown example above, the phoneme /*ain*/ is a group of letters that is considered as the feature of lexical family.

1.4 Content Lexicons

In English linguistics, content lexicon (lexical or content word) is a lexicon that possesses semantic content and contributes to the meaning of a sentence. Typically, this covers the graphic makeup of word and its meaning and syntactic properties. In theoretical linguistics, content lexicon is reviewed as the grammatical component about the words in a language, in which it is as the passive module of grammar and generative components. With linguistic theories, content lexicon can also be called lexical item. The content lexicons include nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. Thus, content lexicon is a dynamic module of grammar in a language, incorporating the important components of syntactic and semantic interpretation.

1.5 Functional Lexicons

In linguistics, functional lexicon is a lexicon that has the substantive meaning and primarily denotes grammatical relationship between content lexicons, and it is a word expressed a grammatical or structural relationship with other words in a sentence. However, function lexicon has no meaningful content in a sentence. Function lexicons can also be known as, structure lexicons, grammatical lexicons or functors, grammatical or functional morphemes, form lexicons, or empty lexicons. The functional lexicons include prepositions, pronouns, conjunctions, determiners, auxiliary verbs, modal verbs, qualifiers, and question words. Without functional lexicons, sentence would make a lot less sense.

Determiners

Determiners are lexicons that are used to modify the nouns in a sentence, including articles, possessive pronouns, quantifiers, demonstratives, and numbers. Determiners are functioned as adjectives to modify nouns and place before a noun to let the reader know whether the noun is specific or general, for example, “*this* cat” (specific) vs. “*a* cat” (general). Below are the functional-lexicon determiners:

- **Articles:** a, an, the
- **Demonstratives:** that, this, those, these
- **Possessive pronouns:** mine, yours, theirs, ours, his, hers, its, whose, which

- **Quantifiers:** some, both, most, many, a few, a lot of, any, much, a little, enough, several, none, all, less
- **Demonstratives:** that, those, this, these
- **Numbers:** one, two, three, four

Conjunctions

Conjunction is one of functional lexicons, which is used to connect the parts of a sentence, two separate sentences, or clauses and phrases to a sentence. Conjunctions are subdivided into two types, such as coordinating conjunctions (*and, but, for, yet, neither, or, so*) and subordinating conjunctions (*when, although, however, as, because, before, etc.*). In this case, conjunctions are defined as the functional lexicons.

Prepositions

Preposition is one of functional lexicons, which begins prepositional phrase containing the nouns and modifiers. Prepositions are functioned to provide more information about nouns. For example, in the phrase "A boy gets through the window." The prepositional phrase is "through the window," and the preposition is "through." Prepositions include "*in, of, between, on, with, by, at, without, through, over, across, around, into, within, etc.*" Hence, preposition is reviewed as the functional lexicon.

Pronouns

Pronoun is a word of functional lexicons, which replaces the noun. The antecedent noun of pronoun needs to be clear in avoidance of confusion to reader. Take "It's so difficult" as an example. Without context, pronoun is not allowed to apply in making the reader has no idea what. In context of having the antecedent noun, pronoun is allowed to apply in making the reader easily recognizes what refers. Pronouns include "*she, they, he, it, him, her, you, me, anybody, somebody, someone, anyone, etc.*" Thus, pronoun is reviewed as the functional lexicon.

Auxiliary Verbs

Auxiliary verb is also called helping verbs, which is reviewed as one of the functional lexicons. It is used as a pair with a main verb to change tense when expressing something in present continuous tense (e.g., He *is* teaching), past perfect tense (e.g., He *had* taught), or future tense (e.g., He *is* going to teach the syntax to the students). Auxiliary verbs include "*be, is, am, are, have, has, do, does, did, get, got, was, were.*" Hence, auxiliary verb is defined as the functional lexicon.

Modal Verbs

Modal verb is a type of functional lexicons, which expresses the condition or possibility. Modal verb is assigned to help the main verbs in a sentence with the meaning in condition or possibility. Modal verbs mentioning the condition or possibility include "*may, might, can, could, will, would, shall, should.*" Thus, modal verbs are centralized as the functional lexicons.

Qualifiers

Qualifier is one of the functional lexicons, which is functioned as the adverb and is used to indicate the degree of an adjective or a verb, but no actual meaning itself. In this sense, qualifier just provides the addition of information to the content lexicons in a sentence, but it does not give the real meaning to the content in a sentence. Qualifiers include “*very, really, quite, somewhat, rather, too, pretty (much).*” Hence, qualifier is reviewed as the functional lexicon.

Question Words

Question word is reviewed as one of functional lexicons, which is to guess what function in English. Besides forming questions, question word can also appear in statements, for example, in a sentence, “He does not know why to go there,” the question word is *why*. Question words include “*how, where, what, when, why, who.*” Meanwhile, question word is reviewed as the functional lexicon.

1.6 Phrasal verbal-Lexicons

Phrasal verbal-lexicon is a fixed expression that consists of a verb followed by an adverb or a preposition. Phrasal verbal-lexicons have their own special meaning that is different from the meaning of the main verb from which they are formed. For example, abstain from, get up, get through, pass away, run across, etc. Phrasal verbal-lexicons have two forms, such as phrasal verbs and phrasal prepositional-verbs.

Phrasal Verbs

Phrasal verb refers to a verb that is followed by an adverb, preposition, or both, and it has the literal and specific meaning. Here are examples of the phrasal verbs, as follow: *get up, get out, get over, pick up, put in, put off, put on, put out, put up, take down, run down*, etc.

- My daughter ***gets up*** at seven every morning.
- He could not ***get out*** of the well.
- Sokha is ***getting over*** her illness.
- She ***picked up*** the child and kissed it.
- He has ***put in*** a great effort.
- The university was forced to ***put off*** the exam.
- Why does not she ***put on*** her best clothes?
- ***Put out*** the light before you go to sleep.
- As it was too late, they ***put up*** in a hotel.
- She looks ***run down*** these days.
- The students should ***take down*** lecture notes.

Phrasal preposition verbs

There are a few verbal-lexicons, which consist of three parts, a base verb, an adverb particle, and a preposition. Even though they may appear to be complicated at first sight, they are

easy and are used like prepositional verbs. Here are examples as follow: *get on with*, *put up with*, *check up on*, *put up with*, *go on with*, etc.

- It is difficult to **put up with** proud people.
- He **gets on well with** his stepchildren.
- It is difficult to **put up with** him.
- In spite of his difficulties, he **goes on with** his job.

1.7 Idiomatic Lexicons

Idiomatic lexicon is a combination of the lexicons (words). In English linguistics, idiomatic lexicon refers to a phrase or expression in which it typically presents a figurative (non-literal) meaning attached to the phrase. Some phrases seem to be the figurative idiomatic-lexicons, whereas other phrases retain the literal meaning. Figurative meaning of idiomatic lexicon is different from the literal meaning of phrasal verbal-lexicon. Hence, an idiomatic lexicon is a phrase, saying, or group of lexicons with a metaphorical (non-literal) meaning, which has become accepted in most common usage. Here are examples as follow:

Get going (= start working, start doing something)

- When the machine **gets going**, children come to see it.

Spill the beans (= tell everything)

- When the police questioned, the thief **spilled the beans**.

Come in handy (= be useful)

- Take a torch with you; it often **comes in handy** to you.

Bad blood (= unfriendly feelings)

- The **bad blood** between the friends, made some problems.

Fly at some one's throat (= attack some)

- When the police saw the thief, they **flew at his throat**.

On one's last legs (= extremely exhausted or tired)

- After a week's continuous duty, one is generally on one's last legs.

Maiden speech (= first speech)

- In her **maiden speech**, she appeared nervous.

Keep one's head above the water (= managing to stay with difficulty)

- Although she has no money, she **keeps her head above the water**.

Piece of cake (= something that is easy to do)

- Learning English is a **piece of cake** as long as you do it with our website.

Once in a blue moon (= very rarely)

- I, **once in a blue moon**, go to visit my grandmother; she lives in a remote farm house.

1.8. Variations of Lexicons

Lexical Variety

Lexical variety (also called lexical variation or lexical diversity) refers to a measurement of how many different content lexicons (lexical words) that are used in a text. Content lexicons are the lexicons, including nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs that convey meaning in a

text. The lexical variety may be calculated in several varied ways, for example, total number of lexicons in a text, the number of clauses in each sentence.

Lexical Density

Lexical density refers to the proportion of the content lexicons (lexical items) in the text. It indicates the ratio of lexical items to grammatical items. Lexical items consist of nouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs; whereas grammatical items consist of determiners, pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, finite verbs (auxiliary verbs and modal verbs), and qualifiers. Meanwhile, lexical density can be measured either as the ratio of content lexicons (lexical items) to total number of lexicons (words), or as the ratio of lexical items to the number of higher functional lexicons (structural items) in the sentences (e.g., clauses).

In computational linguistics, lexical density is a concept that measures the structure and complexity of a language in human's speech and writing text. In English linguistics, lexical density estimates the linguistic complexity (lexical, grammatical, and syntactic complexity) in a spoken or written composition from the functional lexicons and content lexicons.

The written English consists of a higher lexical density than spoken English does when the lexical density is defined as the number of content lexicons (content/lexical words) in a clause. For example, the written text: Obviously, the government is frightened of union reaction to its move to impose proper behavior on unions.

Lexical Compositionality

Lexical compositionality refers to the complex expression or complex lexicon that states in a meaningful sentence. In English linguistics, lexical compositionality is a complex lexicon that is used to provide the complete and meaningful to a sentence. If the lexical items or parts are taken out of a sentence, a sentence may not consist of the meaningful. Hence, lexical compositionality is the proportion or description of what the connection is between content lexicons (lexical/content words) in a sentence. For example, Socrates was a man. The lexicons "Socrates" and "man" have shown the relationship (connection) to each other, so that the lexicons "Socrates" and "man" are considered as the lexical compositionality.

Lexical Choices

Lexical choice is a subtask of selecting lexicons to express an input meaning representation. In English linguistics, lexical choice refers to the subtask of the natural language generation in which it involves selecting the content lexicons (nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs) in a text generation. Function lexicons (articles, determiners) are most commonly selected during realization. For example, a semantic field of *love* may be created with lexical choices, such as *care*, *admire*, and *adore*.

Lexical Chunks

Lexical chunk refers to a group of lexicons that are most commonly found together. Lexical chunks may include collocations but these often involve content lexicons, not functional

lexicons (grammatical words). For example, in a sentence “She stays along at the party,” there are two lexical chunks, such as “**stay along**” and “**at the party**.”

Lexical chunk is a unit of language in which it is made up of two or more words. Lexical chunks may also include phrasal verbs, idioms, collocations, and so on. Lexical chunks are the common English coinage. Phrasal verb is a combination of a verb with an adverb or preposition, in which it has the literal meaning. An idiom is a phrase in which it consists of a non-literal meaning (figurative meaning) that differs from the literal meaning. Collocation is a familiar grouping of lexicons, in which it appears together because of their habitual use and producing the same meaning. Below are examples of the lexical chunks, including idiom, phrasal verb, and collocation.

- The king Norodom Sinhanouk **sleeps with the fishes**.
- Yesterday, I tried to call Sokha, but it did not **get through**.
- You have to **make the bed** clean.

Colloquialism

Colloquialism (colloquial language) refers to a lexicon (word) or phrase in which it is not formal or literary and is used in the ordinary or familiar conversation. In English linguistics, colloquialism is the linguistic style that is used for casual communication, and it is most common functional styles in speech. Colloquialism, however, is a lexicon or expression in which it is commonplace with a specific language, geographic region, or historical era. Therefore, colloquialism is a region-specific lexicon and phrase to add a casual tone to the speech or writing, and it is an informal expression in which it is used more often in relaxed dialogue than in formal speech or writing. Colloquialism can be lexicons (words), phrases, or aphorism. Below are examples of the colloquialism in lexicons, phrases, and aphorism.

a. Lexical (Words)

Colloquialism can be reviewed as the lexical colloquialism. Lexical colloquialisms can be regional differences, contractions, and profanity. For this situation, lexical colloquialism is a type of lexicons, which shows the colloquialism of English language in speaking. Here are the details of lexical colloquialism, as follows:

- **Regional Differences:** Colloquial difference is a way a person in the United States refers to a carbonated beverage. For example, *soda, pop, soft drink, coke*, etc.
- **Contractions:** The contracted lexicons are not widely used throughout English-speaking populations. For example, *ain't, gonna, wanna*, etc.
- **Profanity:** Some lexicons are considered profane in some dialects of English. For example, *bloody, fucking, freaking, bally, bleeding, bleep*, etc.

b. Phrases

Colloquialism can be reviewed as the phrasal colloquialism. Phrasal colloquialisms can be constructed in differentiated conditions. In this sense, phrasal colloquialism is a phrase,

which indicates the colloquialism of English language in speaking. Here are the details of phrasal colloquialism, as follow:

- Old as the hills
- Penny-pincher
- Shell be right
- Pass the buck
- Eat my dust
- Watcha doin’
- A cuppa
- Bits and bobs
- Take the Mickey
- A quid

c. Aphorism

Colloquialism can be reviewed as the aphorism-colloquialism. Aphorism-colloquialisms can be reviewed as a consice statement or short-clever saying, which expresses a (general) truth or sentiment. For this case, aphorism-colloquialisiom is an aphorism, which expresses the colloquialism of English language in speech statement of a truth. Here are the details of aphorism-colloquialism, as follow:

- I wasn’t born yesterday.
- There’s more than one way to skin a cat.
- Put your money where your mouth is.
- You’re driving me up the wall.
- A bad penny always turns up.

Unit 2

Lexical Sophistication

Lexical sophistication refers to the usage of sophisticated or advanced lexicons (words) in a text. In English linguistics, lexical sophistication is most commonly used as an indicator of language proficiency in second language assessment of speech and writing, and it can be a tool to characterize the relative lexical complexity of clear speech. Lexical sophistication is often described a number of the usual lexicons, lexical frequency, lexical range, semantic network of lexicons, and lexical neighbor. Therefore, lexical sophistication is an essential component of writing proficiency. Lexical sophistication can be subcategorized into several types, including lexical collocation, lexical polysemy, lexical simile, lexical metaphor, lexical synonym, lexical antonym, lexical acronym, lexical abbreviation, lexical eponym, and lexical substitution.

2.1 Lexical Collocations

Lexical collocation is a group of lexicons that are used together with the same meaning. In English linguistics, lexical collocation is a series of lexicons in which they are co-occurred together in speech and writing. Lexical collocations are broken down into many types, such as nominal-verb collocation, verb-nominal collocation, phrasal-verb collocation, nominal-preposition collocation, adjective-preposition collocation, verb-verb collocation, verb-preposition collocation, adverb-verb collocation, adverb-adverb collocation, adverb-adjective collocation, adjective-nominal collocation, adjective-adjective collocation, adjective-adverb collocation, verb-adverb collocation, nominal-nominal collocation, business collocation, and time collocation.

Nominal-Verb Collocations

Nominal-verb can be used as the collocation, in a way sounded correct to people speaking the language in lives. Nominal-verbs are combined together in a way sounded adequate and in a way being difficult to guess. Nominal-verb collocation is formed with a nominal followed by a verb to show the spoken language. Here are examples as followed: *dog bark, plane take off, lion roar, car engineer*, etc.

Verb-Nominal Collocations

Verb-nominal can be used as the collocation, in a way sounded correct to people speaking the language in lives. Verb-nominals are combined together in a way sounded adequate and being difficult to guess. Verb-nominal collocation is constructed with a verb followed by a nominal. Here are examples as follow: *commit murder, make bed, give present, do exercise, take advice*, etc.

Phrasal-Verb Collocations

Phrasal verb is reviewed as the collocation, in a way sounded correct to people having the spoken language in all their lives, but might be unexpected from the meaning of the spoken language. Phrasal verbs are used in combining the verb with particles, in a way that sounds adequate and in a way that is difficult to guess or infer the meaning of the spoken language. Phrasal-verb collocation is constructed with a verb followed by a particle (an adverb or a preposition). Here are examples as follow: *ask out, put on, take off, get through, break down, run on, run across, put out, take over*, etc.

Nominal-Preposition Collocations

Nominal-preposition can be as the collocation, in a way sounded correct to people speaking the language, but might be unexpected from the meaning of spoken language. Nominal-prepositions are the combination of noun with preposition in a way sounded adequate and in a way being difficult to guess. Nominal-preposition collocation is formed with a nominal followed by a preposition. Here are examples as follow: *approach to, concern to, dedication to, reference to, date with, credit for, response to, transition to, connection with, reputation for, quarrel with, approval for, exhibition of, habit of, possibility of, cause of*, etc.

Adjective-Preposition Collocations

Adjective-preposition can be used as the collocation in a way that sounds correct to people who have the spoken oflanguage in all their lives. Adjective-prepositions are combined together with the adjective and preposition in a way sounded adequate and in a way being difficult to guess or infer. Adjective-preposition collocation is constructed with an adjective followed by a preposition. Here are examples as follow: *certain about, excellent at, rude to, attached to, nice of, busy with, clever with, fed up with, gentle with, unkind of, late to, eager to, good to*, etc.

Verb-Preposition Collocations

Verb-preposition can be reviewed as the collocation, in a way that sounds correct to people speaking the language in all their lives. Verb-prepositions are the combination of verb and preposition in a way that sounds adequate and in a way that is difficult to guess. Verb-preposition collocation is a type of collocations, which is formed with a verb followed by a preposition. Jere are examples as follow: *depend on, pride on, commit to, care for, object to, par for, comply with, distinguish from, result in, trust in*, etc.

Adverb-Verb Collocations

Adverb-verb collocation is constructed with a verb preceded by an adverb. Here are examples as follow: *badly damage, deeply root (in), never know, quite agree, strongly argue, strongly deny, strongly condemn, strongly dislike, strongly recommend, strongly object, strongly suggest, strongly support*, etc.

Adverb-Adverb Collocations

Adverb-adverb collocation is constructed with an adverb preceded by an adverb. Here are examples as follow: *all alone, all along, all over, almost certainly, any more, dead ahead, not necessarily (so), nowhere near, only just, pretty well, quite a lot, quite enough*, etc.

Adverb-Adjective Collocations

Adverb-adjective collocation is formed with an adjective preceded by an adverb. Here are examples as follow: *utterly alone, absolutely appalled, utterly convinced, actively involved, badly hurt, barely able (to do something), blissfully unaware, bitterly cold, completely amazed, dead tired, deeply affected, drop-dead gorgeous, fiercely competitive, fully aware, happily married, highly successful, openly gay, painfully shy, perfectly normal, pretty good, quietly confident, quite sure, readily available, reasonably priced, ridiculously cheap*, etc.

Adjective-Nominative Collocations

Adjective-nominative collocation is formed with a nominative preceded by an adjective. Here are examples as follow: *absolute agony, active ingredient, alphabetical order, back pay, alternative energy, bad breath, balanced diet, bare essential, basic right, best friend, big deal, blind faith, blond hair, brief chat, bright idea, broken home, casual clothes, certain amount, chilly day, clear message, clean energy, wrong way, young child, zero tolerance, wild animal, vital role*, etc.

Adjective-Adjective Collocations

Adjective-adjective can be reviewed as the collocation, in a way sounded correct to people who have the spoken of language in their lives, but might be unexpected from the meaning of spoken language. Adjective-adjectives are combined together in a way sounded adequate and being difficult to guess. Adjective-adjective collocation is formed with an adjective preceded by an adjective. Here are examples as follow: *best possible, neat and tidy, real live, safe and sound*, etc.

Adjective-Adverb Collocations

Adjective-adverbs can be used as the collocation, in a way that sounds correct to people speaking the language in all their lives. Adjective-adverbs are combined together in a way sounded adequate and being difficult to guess. Adjective-adverb collocation is formed with an adjective followed by an adverb. Here are examples as follow: *best ever, close together, good enough*, etc.

Verb-Verb Collocations

Verb-verb can be reviewed as the collocation, in a way sounded correct to people speaking the language in their lives. Verb-verbs are combined together in a way sounded adequate and being difficult to guess. Verb-verb collocation is constructed with a verb followed by a verb. Here are examples as follow: *can't afford, can't help, can't stand, come to expect, cut and paste, copy and paste, come close, help check*, etc.

Verb-Adverb Collocations

Verb-adverb collocation is formed with a verb followed by an adverb. Here are examples as follow: *act naturally, apologize profusely, arrive on time, become increasingly, behave properly, bleed profusely, come alive, come last, deal directly, divide equally, fall sharply, fail miserably, fight hard, go badly, perform live, run fast, solve easily*, etc.

Nominal-Nominal Collocations

Nominal-nominal collocation is formed with a nominal followed by a nominative. Here are examples as follow: *account executive, absentee ballot, action movie, air attack, altar boy, antitrust case, auto maker, bank draft, beauty salon, birth certificate*, etc.

Business Collocations

Business collocation is a combination of lexicons that co-occur together, and it describes the business terms. Here are examples as follow: *annual turnover, bear in mind, break off negotiations, cease trading, chair a meeting, close a deal, come to the point, dismiss an offer, draw a conclusion, draw your attention to, go bankrupt, go into partnership*, etc.

Time Collocations

Time collocation is a type of collocations, in which it describes the time of doing action and the term “time” is used with other lexicons together. Here are examples as follow: *dead on time, free time, from dawn till dusk, make time for, great deal of time, past few weeks, right on time, run out of time, save time, spare time, spend some time, take your time, time goes by, time passes, waste time*, etc.

2.2 Lexical Polysemy

Polysemy is a lexicon or phrase in which it has two or more distinct meanings. In English linguistics, polysemy refers to the coexistence of several possible meanings of a lexicon or phrase, and it is distinguished from the lexical homonyms by etymology. Polysemy, further, is the capacity for a lexicon or phrase that has the multiple related meanings. Here are examples of polysemy as follow: the verb “**get**” can be meant to “*procure, become, or understand*” and verb “**bank**” can be meant to “*money, river, mass, machine, or medical.*”

2.3 Lexical Hypernyms

Lexical hypernym is a lexicon with a broad meaning constituting a category into which lexicons with more specific meanings fall. Lexical hypernym is also called lexical superordinate. In English linguistics, hypernym refers to a lexicon in which it names a broad category included other lexicons, and it is a lexicon whose meaning includes a group of other lexicons. In addition, hypernym is a group of hyponyms. For example, **color** is a hypernym of the hyponyms “*red, blue, yellow, green, black, white,*” **look** is a hypernym of the hyponyms “*stare, gaze, view, peer,*” **primate** is a hypernym of hyponyms “*chimpanzee, human,*” and **flower** is a hypernym of hyponyms “*daisy, rose, daffodil, sunflower.*” Therefore, lexical

hypernym is a generic term that names a broad category of other lexicons. Notice that hyponyms refer to the lexicons that are the specific meaning and instances of a hypernym (generic meaning and lexicon).

2.4 Lexical Similes

Lexical simile refers to a lexicon or phrase that expresses a comparison of one thing with another, and it most commonly includes the lexicon “*as*” or “*like*.” In English linguistics, lexical simile is a figure of speech that involves the comparison of one thing with another of a varied type to make a description more emphasis. Below are examples.

- She walks in beauty like *the night*.
- You were as brave as *a lion*.
- They fought like *cats and dogs*.
- He is as strong as *an ox*.

2.5 Lexical Metaphors

Lexical metaphor refers to an expression that describes an object or idea in literary way by referring to something that has similar characteristics to the object or idea that is described. In English linguistics, lexical metaphor is a figure of speech in which a lexicon or phrase literally denoting one type of object or idea is used in place of another thing to suggest a likeness or analogy between them broadly. Here are examples as follow:

- The mind is *an ocean*.
- The city is *a juggle*.
- America has tossed its cap over the *wall of space*.
- Sokha is *a rose*.

2.6 Lexical Synonyms

Lexical synonym is a lexicon or that has almost the same meaning as another lexicon or expression. The origin of “synonym” is from the Greek lexicon “syn + onym,” which means “together + name.” For example, “*watch, observe, notice, envisage*” are the synonyms of “*see*,” and “*enormous, huge, massive, giant, immense*” are synonyms of “*big*.”

2.7 Lexical Antonyms

Lexical antonym is a lexicon opposite in meaning to another lexicon. Lexical antonyms, sometimes, are formed by removing the prefix to get the lexicon opposite in meaning. Here are examples as follow: *sharp # blunt, lock # unlock, ignoble # noble, infallible # fallible, impotent # potent, introvert # extrovert, exculpate # inculpate, consistent # inconsistent, enviable # unenviable, disposed # indisposed, internal # external, stable # unstable, legible # illegible, illegitimate # legitimate, pessimistic # optimistic*, etc.

2.8 Lexical Acronyms

Lexical acronym is a lexicon in which it is constructed by abbreviating a phrase and by combining certain initial letters of the lexicons in the phrase into a single lexicon. In English

linguistics, lexical acronym is an abbreviation that is formed from the initial letters of other lexicons in a phrase and is pronounced as a lexicon. Here are examples as follow: *ASCII* (*American standard code for information interchange*), *NASA* (*national aeronautics and space*), *FBI* (*federal bureau of investigation*), *LOL* (*laugh out loud*), *OMG* (*oh my god*), *WTF* (*world taekwondo federation*), *ATM* (*automated teller machine*), *BRB* (*be right back*), *USB* (*universal serial bus*), etc.

2.9 Lexical Abbreviations

Lexical abbreviation refers to the abbreviation or a short form of a lexicon or phrase. In English linguistics, lexical abbreviation is usually called lexical acronym, but there is a more specific term in which it is used by linguists and people who like being precise about initialism. Initialism is an abbreviation that is formed from the initial letters of a lexicon or phrase. Here are examples as follow: *ROFL* (*rolling on floor laughing*), *STFU* (*shut the swear world up*), *ICYMI* (*in case you miss it*), *TL;DR* (*too long, didn't read*), *LMK* (*let me know*), *NVM* (*never mind*), *TGIF* (*thank goodness it's Friday*), *TBH* (*to be honest*), *THX* (*thanks*), etc.

2.10 Lexical Eponyms

Eponym refers to the term or name in which it is given to a particular place, tribe, era, discovery, or situation. Eponym is most commonly connected with a person of historical importance, mythological character, legendry, or fictional character. Below are examples of eponyms.

- ***Machiavellian*** means cunning, crafty, and deceitful, e.g., Machiavellian villain (a dramatic character)
- ***Malapropism*** means wrong use of lexicons, often creating a humorous effect. It is derived from Mrs. Malaprop, a humorous character in literature.
- ***Herculean task*** means a never-ending labor or a task, (full of tedious and Drudgery). The legend derived from the story of Sisyphus, who was punished for his misdeeds to carry a huge stone uphill.

2.11 Lexical Substitution

One lexical substitution is most simply meant to using a specific lexicon to replace a wordy phrase and make it shorter, concise, and clearer to understand. In this case, the lexicon becomes identical with the sentence, in which it provides the same meaning as the wordy sentence. Here are examples of one lexical substitution as follow:

- Lexicographer = Someone who compiles a dictionary
- Feminist = Someone who is interested in the welfare of women
- Eccentric = A person with strange and particular habits
- Spinster = A women who never gets married
- Circumlocution = Saying things in roundabout way
- Patricide = Killing one's father
- Sadist = One who takes pleasure in torturing others
- Nepotism = A tendency to favor one's relative

- Stub = The short remaining part of a cigarette
- Allegory = A story in which ideas are symbolized as character
- Philatelist = Someone who loves collecting stamps
- Epic = A long narrative poem written in a grand style
- Fable = An animal story with a moral
- Magnum opus = An artist's most outstanding and memorable artistic creation
- Coquette = A women who displays tantrums to attract men's attention
- Dandy = One who pays too much attention to personal appearance

Unit 3

Characteristics of Lexicons

Characteristic of lexicons is a typical of noticeable quality of the lexicons, including sounds, spelling, meanings, and uses of the lexicons in a language. In this case, characteristic of lexicons refers to the study of homonyms, homophones, homographs, allophones, anaphora, cataphora, vernacular, and dialects in a language.

3.1 Homonyms

Homonym is a lexicon that has the same pronunciation or spelling to another lexicon but has a different meaning. In English linguistics, homonym is broadly defined as a lexicon in which it is also known as homograph or homophone or both. Here are some examples of homonyms as follow:

- Last week, Sokharath walked to the **bank** of the river.
- Chanthy is going to the **bank** to deposit the money.
- I have **no** money to buy a new car.
- I do not **know** where to go for my Bachelor's degree.

3.2 Homophones

Homophone is lexicon that is sounded the same as another lexicon but differs in meaning or spelling. In English linguistics, homophones are two or more lexicons in which they have the same pronunciation but have different meaning or spelling. Here are examples as follow: *cell - sell, write - right, weak – week, sea - see, knew - new, peace - piece, die - dye*, etc.

Notice that these lexicons most often confused, as follow:

1. Urban (not rural)
Urbane (sophisticated)
2. Imaginary (Unreal)
Imaginative (Creative)
3. Honorary (Without pay)
Honorable (Respected)
4. Industrious (Laborious)
Industrial (Relating to industry)
5. Childish (Silly)
Childlike (Innocent)
6. Lovable (Worth of love)
Lovely (Nice)
7. Exceed (surplus)
Accede (agree)
8. Dual (double)
Duel (fight)

9. Eminent (Prominent)
Imminent (about to happen)
10. Fare (travel charges)
Fair (Just)
11. Collision (clash)
Collusion (secret agreement)
12. Complimentary (regards)
Complement (something that completes the other)
13. Pray (A form of worship)
Prey (victim)
14. Hoard (accumulate)
Horde (group)
15. Prescribe (To direct)
Proscribe (To prohibit)
16. Diseased (Ill and Sick)
Deceased (dead)
17. Draught (small quantity)
Drought (want of rain)

3.3 Homographs

Homograph is a lexicon in which it has the same spelling and may be the same or different pronunciation to another lexicon but differs in meaning. Homograph can also be called heteronym or heterophone. Here are examples of homographs as follow:

- I can't **bear** with your words.
- I saw a **bear** in the farm yesterday.
- Sok is my **close** friend.
- The door is **close**.
- **Lean** you head back a bit.
- She looks **lean**.
- A boy stood on the **bow** of the ship.
- Pass me the **bow**, please.

3.4 Allophones

In phonology, allophone refers to one of a set of multiple possible spoken phones or signs in which they are used to pronounce a single phoneme in a particular language. In English linguistics, allophone is a type of phoneme in which it changes its phone based upon how a lexicon is spelled. For example, **mat** and **mad**, **pit** and **keep**, **sip** and **seep**, **top** and **stop**, etc. In English, several allophonic processes deal with lengthening and shortening consonants and vowels, devoicing consonants, and quality of a consonant. Here are the main details that illustrate the rules of consonant allophones as follow:

- i. Devoiced plosives **/p, t, k/** is aspirated when they are at the initial of the first or a stressed syllable in a lexicon. For example, [p] in **pin** and [p] in **spin**, [t] in **test** and

- [t] in *stop*, and [k] in *kick* and [k] in *skate* are allophones for the phoneme /p, t, k/ because they cannot distinguish lexicons.
- ii. Plosives /p, t, k, b, d, g/ become the nasal plosives when they are followed by a nasal /m, n, ŋ/, whether within a lexicon or across a lexicon boundary.
 - iii. Sonorants, including approximant /j, w/, lateral /l, r, m/, and nasal /m, n, ŋ/ are partially or completely devoiced when they are preceded by a devoiced plosive-phoneme /p, t, k/ and a devoiced fricative-phoneme /f/ of the initial syllable or in the same syllable in a lexicon. For example, play, clay, fly, twin, tune, cure, cry, crack, know, king, time, flay, etc.
 - iv. Voiced obstruents, including plosives /b, d, g/ and fricatives /v, z, ð, ʒ/ are partially devoiced at the end of a lexicon or before a devoiced phoneme /p, t, k/ within a lexicon or across a lexicon boundary. For example, remove, climb, end, analyze, bag pen, add two, fifth, revise, etc.
 - v. Voiced plosives /b, d, g/ and affricative /dʒ/ are commonly devoiced when they are at the beginning of a syllable unless immediately preceded by a voiced phoneme. For example, book, dog, go, judge, jade, glory, draw, block, etc.
 - vi. Devoiced plosives /p, t, k/ are not aspirated when they are preceded by a syllable initial-fricative /s/. For example, spew, stew, skew, step, spoon, skit, etc.
 - vii. Devoiced plosives /p, t, k/ and fricative /tʃ/ are sounded longer than their voiced counterparts /b, d, g, dʒ/ when situated at the end of a syllable. For example, cap, back, book, etc.
 - viii. A consonant is often shortened when it is followed by an identical consonant. For example, big game, top post, etc.
 - ix. Velar plosives /k, g/ become more front when the followed vowel phoneme in the same syllable becomes more front. For example, key, geese, etc.
 - x. The lateral /l/ is velarized at the end of a lexicon when it comes after a vowel as well as before a consonant. For example, file, feel, etc.
 - xi. In English, the phoneme /t, d, n, l/ are retracted before phoneme /r/.

3.5 Anaphora

Anaphora refers to the repetition of lexicons or phrases in a group of clauses or sentences. In rhetoric, anaphora is a rhetorical device in which it repeats a sequence of lexicons at the beginnings of neighboring clauses or sentences, thereby lending them emphasis. In English linguistics, anaphora is a figure of speech or writing in which the lexicons repeat at the beginning of succeeded clauses, phrases, or sentences. Anaphora can include variations of repeating a sequence of lexicons or phrases. Here are examples as follow:

- *In every cry of* every man, *in every infant's cry of* fear, *in every* voice, *in every* ban, the mind-forged manacles I hear.
- *It rained on* his lousy tombstone, and *it rained on* the grass on his stomach. *It rained* all over the place.
- *It was the* best time, *it was the* worst time, *it was the* age of wisdom, *it was the* age of foolishness, *it was the* epoch of belief, *it was the* epoch of incredulity, *it was the*

season of Light, *it was the* season of Darkness, *it was the* spring of hope, and *it was the* winter of despair.

- *We had* everything before us, *we had* nothing before us, *we were all going direct* to Heaven, and *we were all going direct* the other way.

3.6 Cataphora

Cataphora is the use of a lexicon or phrase that refers to a later lexicon or phrase. Cataphora is a type of anaphora, even though the terms anaphora and anaphor are sometimes used in a stricter sense, denoting only cases where the order of the expressions is the reverse of that found in cataphora. In English linguistics, cataphora is the use of lexicon or expression that co-refers or stands for a later or more specific lexicon or expression in the discourse. Here are examples of cataphora as follow:

- When *he* arrived home, *John* went to sleep.
- *He* may be approaching 37, but *Jeff* has no plans to retire from the sport yet.
- If you want *them*, there are *cookies* in the kitchen.

3.7 Vernacular

Vernacular is the common language or dialect that is spoken by ordinary people or average citizens in a particular place, area, or country, and it is language that is used within a particular field or industry. Vernacular is meant to using the native language of a country or place. For example, From Zora Neale Hurston's *Their Eyes Were Watching God*: *Hand me dat wash-rag on dat chair by you, honey.*

3.8 Dialects

Dialect is a particular form of a language in which it is peculiar to a specific region or social group. In English linguistics, dialect refers to a variety of a language in which it has varied pronunciation, grammar, or lexicon than the standardized language of the culture. Dialect is a variety of a language in which it is often spoken by people of a particular area, community, or social group. Dialect, however, is the language in which it is peculiar to the members of a group, especially in an occupation. Cockney to the English language is centralized as dialect like *fink* (means “*think*”).

Chapter Three

Recognition of English Morphology

Objectives

This chapter helps learners learn and understand the English morphology, as would be discussed as the following:

- Lexemes, lexicon (word) forms, grammatical lexicons, stems, inflectional suffixes, derivational prefixes and suffixes, and root
- Analysis of morphemes, morphs, and allomorphs
- Vital aspects of morphemes (root, affixes, and stems)
- Free morphemes, bound morphemes, lexical morphemes, grammatical morphemes, inflectional morphemes, derivational morphemes, and lexicon formation processes
- Lexicon-structure rules and phrase-structure rules
- Lexicon schema and back-formation
- Lexical compounds
- Pattern loss, coalescence, analogical change, reanalysis, morphological pattern, and semantic change
- Compounding lexemes, hierarchical in compounds, and hierarchical structure in derived lexemes

Introduction to Cognizance in English Linguistics

In English linguistics, learners should learn and understand English morphology. Talking about the English morphology, learners have to understand the essential aspects of English lexical morphology, such as lexicon formation, morphemes, morpheme categories, morpheme-based models, lexicon-based models, and changes and trees of morphology. This chapter lets learners recognize how to form English lexicons.

UNIT 1

Morphemes

Morpheme refers to the smallest unit of a language in which it has its own meaning, either a lexicon (word) or a part of a lexicon. Morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit of lexicon in a language. In English linguistics, morpheme is the smallest grammatical unit of lexicon in a language, in which it may be a lexicon or a part of a lexicon. Morpheme can be defined as a minimal unit that has more or less consonant meaning and more or less consonant form. Morpheme, however, refers to the smallest distinctive unit of a language in which it has definite grammatical function. For example, read, reread, readiness. Notice that variations of a morpheme are called allomorphs. For example, allomorphs ending **-s**, **-es**, **-en** for plural morpheme like “pens, brush**es**, ox**en**” and allomorph ending **-ed** for past tense morpheme like “studied**ed**.”

Morphemes are categorized into six main types, such as free morpheme, lexical morpheme, functional/structural morpheme, bound morpheme, derivational morpheme, and inflectional morpheme.

1.1 Free Morphemes

Free morpheme refers to a morpheme that can stand alone as a lexicon (word) with the specific meaning. For example, **book, pen, angry, well, fast, quite, very, at, and, on, in**, etc. free morphemes may be called lexical morpheme (content lexicon) or functional morpheme (functional/grammatical lexicon). Notice that the free morphemes can be changed their parts of speech, such as changing from nouns to verbs and changing from adjectives to adverbs. For example, **book** (noun) is changed to **book** (verb) and **well** (adjective) is changed to **well** (adverb).

1.2 Lexical Morphemes

Lexical morpheme is a morpheme in which it has its own meaning and sense accurately. Lexical morpheme can also be called content lexicon (lexical or content word). The lexical morphemes include nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. For example, nouns (**cow, book, door, table**, etc.), verbs (**open, shut, buy, bite**, etc.), adjectives (**good, bad, ill, sick**, etc.), and adverbs (**so, much, very, quite, very**, etc.).

1.3 Functional Morphemes

Functional morpheme refers to the morpheme in which it specifies a relationship between other morphemes. The functional morpheme can also be called grammatical or functional lexicon. The functional morpheme includes prepositions, articles, conjunctions, pronouns, determiners, etc. For example, prepositions (**at, in, on, under, for**, etc.), articles (**a, an, the**),

conjunctions (*and, but, because, however*, etc.), pronouns (*him, her, our, their*, etc.), and determiners (*that, this, some, several*, etc.).

1.4 Bound Morphemes

Bound morpheme is a morpheme, which does not have independent meaning and cannot stand alone, and it can be constructed with the help of free morpheme. Bound morpheme refers to a morpheme in which it occurs only in a combination of roots with affixes. Root is a morpheme in a lexicon, in which it gives the lexicon with its own and principle meaning. Affix refers to the bound morpheme in which it can be occurred before, after, inside, or both before and after a root (base) lexicon. For example, *cleverer, cleverness, cleverly*, etc. Bound morphemes are subcategorized into four types, including bound-lexical (bound-root) morpheme, and affixes.

Bound-Lexical Morphemes

Bound-lexical morpheme refers to the bound morpheme in which it has the lexical meaning when it is included in other bound morpheme to form the content lexicon (lexical or content word). Bound-lexical morpheme can also be called bound-root morpheme. For example, *perceive, receive, deceive, retain, contain, maintain, certain, subvert, invert, convert*, etc. Notice that lexical compounds, including nominal-lexical compounds, adjectival-lexical compounds, adverbial-lexical compounds, and verbal-lexical compounds can be considered the bound-lexical morpheme (bound-root morpheme). For example, *bookstore, take-off, come in, input, handcuff, waterproof, handmaiden, sugar-free, forward, sometimes, overall, over-large, homeward*, etc.

Affixes

Affix is a bound morpheme that is used to add more morphemes or syllables to a lexicon in terms to create new lexicon, and it naturally attaches the varied types of lexicons and changes the meaning or function of a lexicon. Affix can be placed before, after, in(ter), or both before and after a root-lexicon. For example, *reread, ready, readiness, readily*, etc. Affixes are sub-classified into four types, including prefixes, suffixes, infixes, and circumfixes.

a. Prefixes

Prefix is a type of bound morpheme that is included at the beginning of the root-lexicon. The prefixes include un-, im-, in-, dis-, mis-, under-, il-, ir-, sub, up-, a-, anti-, be-, out-, re-, de-, ex-, etc. For example, *unable, uneducated, incomplete, injustice, dislike, dismiss, mislead, mislay, impolite, improper, underworld, understand, illegal, illiterate, irregular, irrelevant, subway, subtitle, away, among, atypical, anti-body, below, beyond, outside, rewrite, reread, resubmit, devoiced, except*, etc. The prefixes can be used in negative and positive meaning. The negative prefixes include in-, un-, im-, dis-, mis-, il-, ir-, anti-, de-, out-, non-. The positive prefixes include under-, sub, up-, a-, be-, ex-, re-.

The negative prefix like “**un-**” is used for forming adjectival-lexicons, adverbial-lexicons, verbal-lexicons, and nominal-lexicons. For example, unrealistic, unsafe, unable, unhappily, unfairness, unacceptably, unanimity, unjust, uncalled-for, uncertain, uncommon, undated, undecided, undelete, unearned, uneducated, unemployed, unfounded, unfair, ungainly, ungrateful, unhand, unheard, unhealthy, unimpressed, uninformed, uninstall, uninterested, unintelligible, unkind, unjustified, unknown, unlawful, unlearn, unless, unlock, unmarked, unmade, unnamed, unnatural, unofficial, unoriginal, unpaid, unplaced, unquoted, unquiet, unreal, unrelated, unsaid, untold, untrained, unusual, unused, unwanted, unwell, unwitting, unzip, etc. Remember that the negative prefix “**un-**” is most often preceded the lexicons beginning with the consonant phonemes /**b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, w, z**/ and vowel phonemes /**a, e, i, o, u**/.

The negative prefix like “**in-**” is used for constructing the adjectival-lexicons, adverbial-lexicons, verbal-lexicons, and nominal-lexicons. Here are examples as follow: incomplete, intemperate, incompletely, indirect, intemperately, inlay, indecent, indefensibly, indirectly, indefensibility, inlet, inaccessibility, inadequacy, inoculate, inactivity, inability, inaction, inaccuracy, innate, innards, innovate, incense, include, inexact, inexpert, infant, infallibility, infirm, indecently, etc. Notice that the prefix “**in-**” is most commonly used to precede the lexicons (words) beginning with the consonant phoneme /**c, f, l, n, t, d**/ and the vowel phonemes /**a, e, o**/.

The negative prefix “**im-**” is used for forming the adjectival-lexicons, adverbial-lexicons, and nominal-lexicons. Here are examples as follow: imbalance, immeasurably, immaterial, immature, immigrant, immoderately, immorality, imbed, impossibly, impart, impassively, imperfect, impersonal, impossible, impolitely, impersonality, etc. Notice that the prefix “**im-**” is often used to precede the lexicons (words) beginning with the consonant phoneme /**b, p, m**/.

The negative prefix “**dis-**” is generally used for forming the adjectival-lexicons, adverbial-lexicons, verbal-lexicons, and nominal-lexicons. Here are examples as follow: dishonest, disagree, disagreement, disfigure, disability, disagreeably, disbelieve, discharge, discard, disconnect, disestablish, disfavor, disgorge, disgrace, disgraceful, disgracefully, dishearten, dishonor, dislike, dismiss, display, disuse, disillusion, disintegrate, disjointed, dismount, disorder, disorganize, disparity, disqualify, disrepair, disrobe, disrespectfully, disruption, dissatisfied, distaste, distinguish, distressed, disunite, disrespected, etc. Notice that prefix “**dis-**” is commonly used to precede the lexicons (words) beginning with the consonant phoneme /**b, c, f, g, h, j, l, m, p, q, r, s, t**/ and vowel phonemes /**a, e, i, o, u**/.

The negative prefix “**de-**” is used for forming the adjectival-lexicons, adverbial-lexicons, verbal-lexicons, and nominal-lexicons. Here are examples as follow: deceive, deforestation, defuse, denationalization, deactivate, deactivation, debar, defame, default, degenerate, delighted, devoice, degeneration, degrade, de-ice, deindustrialization, delay, deliberate,

deliberately, delightedly, etc. Notice that the prefix “*de-*” is commonly used to precede the lexicons (words) beginning with the consonant phoneme /*b, c, f, g, n, l, v*/ and vowel phonemes /*a, i*/.

The negative prefix “*mis-*” is used for forming the verbal-lexicons and nominal-lexicons. Here are examples as follow: mislay, mislaid, mislead, misuse, misunderstand, misaddress, misadventure, misalignment, misdeed, misapplication, misbehavior, miscalculate, miscarry, mischance, misdirect, misfire, misfortune, misgiving, misgovern, mishandle, misheard, mishear, misfit, misinform, misinformation, misinterpret, misjudge, mismanage, mismatch, misplace, misprint, mispronounce, misquote, misread, misreport, misrule, misstate, misspell, mistake, mistakable, etc. Notice that the prefix “*mis-*” is usually used to precede the lexicons (words) beginning with the consonant phoneme /*b, c, d, f, g, h, j, l, m, p, q, r, s, t*/ and vowel phonemes /*a, i, u*/.

The negative prefix “*il-*” is used for constructing the adjectival-lexicons. Here are examples as follow: illegal, illogical, illiquid, illiterate, illegible, etc. Notice that the prefix “*il-*” or is often used to precede the lexicons (words) beginning with the consonant phoneme /*l*/ . In other word, the prefix “*ill-*” is used to form the adjectival-lexicons, verbal-lexicons, and nominative-lexicons. For example, ill-advise, ill-advised, ill-assorted, ill-bred, ill-conceive, ill-disposed, ill-equipped, ill-fated, ill-fitting, ill-gotten, ill-informed, ill-starred, ill-tempered, ill-timed, ill-treat, ill-will, ill-omened, etc.

The negative prefix “*ir-*” is used for forming the adjectival-lexicons, adverbial-lexicons, verbal-lexicons, and nominal-lexicons. Here are examples as follow: irregular, irrelevant, irrational, irrecoverable, irreconcilable, irradiated, irreducible, irredeemably, irradiate, irregularly, irrefutably, irrationality, irradiation, irresponsibility, irritation, irritability, irritate, etc. Notice that the prefix “*ir-*” is most commonly used to precede the lexicons beginning with the consonant phoneme /*r*/.

The negative prefix “*anti-*” is used for forming adjectival-lexicons and nominal-lexicons. Here are examples as follow: anti-abortion, anti-aging, anti-aircraft, anti-choice, anti-clerical, anti-clericalism, anti-body, anti-clockwise, anti-consumerist, anti-depressant, anti-federalist, anti-hero, anti-inflammatory, anti-life, anti-lock, anti-noise, anti-nuclear, anti-personnel, anti-racist, anti-retroviral, anti-semantics, anti-Semite, anti-Semitic, anti-social, anti-spam, anti-tank, anti-terrorist, anti-viral, anti-virus, anti-war, etc. Notice that the prefix “*anti-*” is generally used to precede the lexicons beginning with the consonant phoneme /*b, c, d, f, h, l, n, p, r, s, t, v, w*/ and vowel phonemes /*a, i*/.

The negative prefix “*non-*” is used for forming adjectival-lexicons and nominal-lexicons. Here are examples as follow: non-addictive, non-aggression, non-alcoholic, non-align, non-alignment, non-believer, nonagenarian, non-bio, nonchalance, nonchalant, non-combatant, noncommittal, nonconformist, nondescript, nonconformity, non-contributory, non-diary, nondenominational, nonentity, non-drip, nonetheless, non-event, nonfat, non-fiction, non-

judgmental, non-negotiable, nonsense, non-payment, nonplussed, non-profit, non-racist, nonsensical, non-slip, non-stop, non-U, nonunion, non-verbal, non-violent, non-violence, non-white, etc. Notice that the prefix “**non-**” is generally used to precede the lexicons beginning with the consonant phoneme /**b, c, d, f, j, n, p, r, s, v, w**/ and the vowel phonemes /**a, e, u**/.

The negative prefix “**out-**” is used for forming the adjectival-lexicons, verbal-lexicons, and nominal-lexicons. Here are examples as follow: outskirt, outlive, outstretched, outage, out-and-out, outback, outbid, outboard, outbound, outcast, outclass, outcome, outdate, outdistance, outdo, outdoor, outfield, outfight, outfit, outgoing, outgrow, outgun, outhouse, outlandish, outlast, outlaw, outmoded, outmaneuver, outdated, outpatient, outperform, outrage, outrageous, outscore, outsell, outset, out-take, out-tray, outvote, outward, outweigh, outworn, etc. Notice that the prefix “**out-**” is most commonly used to precede the lexicons beginning with the consonant phoneme /**b, c, d, f, g, h, l, m, p, r, s, t, v, w**/.

The prefixes like “**re-**” are commonly used for forming the adjectival-lexicons, verbal-lexicons, and nominal-lexicons. For example, rethink, rebuild, republish, re-elect, re-election, revision, re-enact, re-enactment, re-release, re-count, react, reactivate, readjust, reaffirm, reassure, reusable, etc.

The negative prefix “**under-**” is used for forming the adjectival-lexicons, verbal-lexicons, and nominal-lexicons. Here are examples as follow: undercooked, undercook, understand, under-secretary, underway, underwear, underpass, underachieve, underage, underarm, underbrush, underbelly, undercharge, underclass, etc.

The negative prefix “**sub-**” is usually used to form the adjectival-lexicons, verbal-lexicons, and nominal-lexicons. Here are examples as follow: sub judice, subscription, substitute, subtitle, subordinate, sub-lieutenant, subcontinent, subvert, subcommittee, subdivide, sub-classify, subcategorize, subarid, etc.

The negative prefix “**up-**” is used for forming the adjectival-lexicons, verbal-lexicons, and nominal-lexicons. Here are examples as follow: update, upgrade, upkeep, uphill, uplift, upset, up-and-coming, up-and-down, up-and-over, upbeat, upbraid, upbringing, upcoming, up-country, upend, upfront, upheaval, uphold, upholster, upholstered, upland, upload, uplighter, upright, upmarket, etc.

The negative prefix “**a-**” is used to form the prepositional-lexicons or adverbial-lexicons. Here are examples as follow: away, about, among, across, above, along, amongst, around, amidst, etc.

The negative prefix “**be-**” is used to form the prepositional-lexicons or adverbial-lexicons. Here are examples as follow: before, below, behind, beneath, beside, between, beyond, etc.

The negative prefix “**ex-**” is used to form the adjectival-lexicons, adverbial-lexicons, verbal-lexicons, and nominal-lexicons. Here are examples as follow: ex-husband, ex-wife, ex-girlfriend, exception, explain, exclude, ex-directory, ex-officio, ex-gratia, ex-cathedra, exact, exasperate, excellence, excite, exchange, excuse, etc.

b. Suffixes

In English linguistics, suffix refers to the bound morpheme in which it is included at the final part or syllable of a lexicon. Suffixes include -ity, -ty, -y, -less, -ness, -en, -ful, -ise/ze, -ic, -ical, -ly, -dom, -ive, -ion, -tion, -ment, -er, -or, -ar, ed, -th, -s, -es, -'s, -ing, -ism, -ist, -ship, -hood, -self/selves, -ous, -uous, -ious, -eous, -ant, -ent/ient, -al, ally, -ial, -ual, -able, -ible, -ia, -ian, -ee, -ish, -est, age, -like, -fy, etc. For example, correctness, careless, helpful, shorten, freedom, safety, reality, accuracy, nationalism, emphasize, advertise, logic, logical, friendly, active, visitor, interviewee, worker, vision, presentation, employment, length, beggar, visited, writing, friendship, books, dog's tail, boxes, boyhood, childish, scientist, herself, themselves, jealous, continuous, curious, courteous, important, patient, confident, formal, financial, crucially, spiritual, possible, probable, earliest, media, musician, advantage, wavelike, classify etc.

c. Infixes

Infix refers to the bound morpheme in which it is included within a lexicon. Infix is a lexicon element, which can be inserted within the root form of a lexicon rather than at its beginning or end to create a new lexicon with intensified meaning. Infixes include -in-, -st-, -flaming-, -bloody-, -freaking-, -s-, -iz-, -izn-, -ma-, fucking-, -awful-, -bally-, -bleeding-, -bleep-, -blessed-, -blooming-, -damn-, -goddamn-, -jolly-, -posi-, etc. For example, fan-bloody-tastic, fan-flaming-tastic, me-bloody-self, good e-bloody-nough, cupsful, spoonsful, passersby, unstable, mother-in-law, fan-freaking-tastic, hizouse, sh-izn-it, edu-ma-cation, abso-fucking-lutely, be-awful-ware, abso-bally-lutely, abso-bleeding-lutely, five-bleep-mile, abso-blessed-lutely, etc.

d. Circumfixes

Circumfix is a bound morpheme in which it is placed around another morpheme. Circumfix is a combination, attaching to both the beginning and the end of a word. For example, enlighten, embolden, rewriting, reconsidering, etc.

1.5 Inflectional Morphemes

Inflectional morpheme is the bound-grammatical morpheme that expresses the aspects of the grammatical function of a lexicon, and it is a bound morpheme, which does not change either meaning or part of speech of the lexicon. Inflectional morpheme is a morpheme that gives extra grammatical information to the existing meaning of a lexicon, such as indicating the nominal plurality (**-s**, **-es**), verb tenses (**-s**, **-es**, **-ed**, **-ing**, **-en**), nominal possessives (**-'s**, **of**), and comparatives (**-er**) or superlatives (**-est**).

Nominal-Plurality Inflectional Morphemes

Nominal-plurality inflectional morpheme refers to the inflectional morpheme that adds the suffix “-s” or “-es” into the singular nominal-lexicon by remaining its meaning, just changing the number of a nominal-lexicon. For example, pens, ages, houses, classes, taxes, buses, dishes, watches, boxes, buzzes, potatoes, ladies, boys, calves, hoofs, proofs, clothes, bowls, sons-in-law, hangers-on, boyfriends, break-ins, VIPs, etc. Notice that some nominal-lexicons change their middle vowels or do not change the vowels when the nominal-plurality inflectional morphemes are made up. For example, foot → feet, goose → geese, man → men, mouse → mice, child → children, staff → staff, woman → women, tooth → teeth, louse → lice, ox → oxen, sheep → sheep, fish → fish, dozen → dozen, deer → deer, grapefruit → grapefruit, etc.

Nominal-Possessive Inflectional Morphemes

Nominal-possessive inflectional morpheme is the inflectional morpheme that adds the suffix “-’s” or “of” to the nominal-lexicon by indicating the possession. For example, Sok’s book, eagles’ nest, dog’s tail, brother-in-law’s guitar, MP’s secretary, today’s paper, a week’s holiday, two hours’ delay, in two’s time, \$10’s worth of stamps, ten dollars’ worth of ice cream, for goodness’ sake, a stone’s throw, journey’s end, a winter’s day, baker’s, house agent’s, Sotheby’s, advice of a couple, walls of the town, children’s toys, etc.

Verbal-Singular Inflectional Morphemes

Verbal-singular inflectional morpheme refers to the inflectional morpheme in which it adds the suffix “-s” or “-es” to the present verbal-lexicon form when a present verbal-lexicon is used with the third person singular. Here are some examples, as follow:

- Dr. THAN lectures the Applied Linguistics.
- She receives a diamond ring as a birthday present.
- He goes to schools by motorbike every day.

Present-Participle/Gerund Inflectional Morphemes

Present-participle/gerund inflectional morpheme is the inflectional morpheme that adds the suffix “-ing” to the present verbal-lexicon form to create the present participle or gerund form. Here are examples as follow: **giving** a present, **writing**, **forgiving**, **learning**, **receiving** a doctoral degree, **forgetting**, **passing** away, **driving** a car, etc.

Past Participle Inflectional Morphemes

Past participle inflectional morpheme is the inflectional morpheme in which it adds the suffixes “-ed, -en” to the present verbal-lexicon form to produce the past participle form of a verbal-lexicon. Here are examples as follow: **studied**, **written**, **given**, **driven**, **forgotten**, **passed**, **taken**, etc. Notice that past participle inflectional morpheme, sometimes, just adds the suffix phonemes /t, d/ to the present verbal-lexicon. For example, **spent**, **learnt**, **received**, **perceived**, **excluded**, **included**, **examined**, **completed**, etc.

Adjectival/Adverbial-Comparative Inflectional Morpheme

Adjectival/adverbial-comparative inflectional morpheme is the inflectional morpheme that adds the suffix “-er” to the adjective or adverb to form comparative degree. For example, better, cleverer, slimmer, easier, smaller, earlier, calmer, harder, faster, longer, sooner, etc.

Adjectival/Adverbial-Superlative Inflectional Morpheme

Adjectival/adverbial-superlative inflectional morpheme is the inflectional morpheme that adds the suffix “-est” to the adjective or adverb to form superlative degree. Here are examples as follow: smartest, cleverest, slimmest, easiest, smallest, hardest, fastest, soonest, earliest, longest, etc.

1.6 Derivational Morphemes

Derivational morpheme is the bound morpheme that derives or creates a new lexicon by either changing the meaning or part of speech. In English linguistics, the derivational morphemes are either prefixes or suffixes that are used to combine with the root-lexicons in terms to create the new lexicons with the changes of meaning and part of speech. Suffixes include -ly, -ity, -ty, -y, -ate, -ise, -ize, -ct, -en, -ism, -dom, -age, -ic, -ics, -ical, -ically, -al, ally, ual, ually, -ial, -ially, -ia, -ian, -cian, -osis, -ible, -able, -ery, -ous, -ious, -eous, -uous, -ant, -ent, -ient, -er, -or, -ee, -ess, -ness, -less, -ful, -hood, etc. Prefixes include a-, be-, in-, im-, un-, non-, under-, dis-, mis-, re-, il-, ir-, multi-, ex-, sub-, de-, out, anti-, by-, etc. The derivational morphemes are sub-classified into five types, such as nominal-derivational morpheme, verbal-derivational morpheme, adjectival-derivational morpheme, adverbial-derivational morpheme, and prepositional-derivational morpheme.

Nominal-Derivational Morphemes

Nominal-derivational morpheme is the derivational morpheme in which it is a combination of nominal-suffixes with the root-lexicon to create the new nominal-lexicon. The nominal-derivational suffixes: -ee, -er, -or, -ar, -ment, -ion, -tion, -ation, -ition, -cy, -ism, -dom, -ess, -ness, -ance, -ence, -ience, -ant, -ent, -ient, -y, -ary, -ory, -orary, -ist, -ship, -ity, -ty, -age, -hood, -zen, -ia, -ian, -cian, -ade, -ice, -cracy, -crat, -graph, -graphy, -meter, -logy, -ics, -aire, -ique, -eer, -oon, -ette, -osis, -bery. For example, employee, teacher, actor, involvement, permission, dictation, classification, repetition, fluency, parallelism, freedom, actress, helpfulness, importance, balance, audience, participant, resident, patient, melody, dictionary, factory, contemporary, journalist, scholarship, capacity, difficulty, shortage, boyhood, citizen, media, Cambodian, politician, barricade, practice, democracy, autocrat, photograph, geography, parameter, lexicology, mathematics, billionaire, physique, pioneer, balloon, gazette, hypnosis, robbery, bakery, etc.

Nominal-derivational morpheme, however, is a combination of the nominal-prefixes with the root-lexicon to create the new nominal-lexicon. Nominal-prefixes include in-, im-, un-, non-, under-, dis-, de-, mis-, il-, ir-, anti-, out-, re-, up-, ex-, sub-, multi-, etc. Here are examples as follow: unfairness, unanimity, incense, inability, imbalance, nonsense, underwear,

disagreement, deforestation, misfortune, ill will, irritation, antibody, outhouse, re-enactment, upkeep, subtitle, ex-wife, multimillionaire, multimedia, etc.

Verbal-Derivational Morphemes

Verbal-derivational morpheme is a combination of a verbal-suffix with the root-lexicon to derive a new verbal-lexicon. Verbal-suffixes include -ate, -ise, -ize, -ct, -en, -ee, -are, -ice, -ish, -fy, etc, etc. Here are examples as follow: purify, terrify, classify, criticize, advertise, project, lengthen, fasten, agree, declare, sacrifice, punish, motivate, delete, complete, etc.

Verb-derivational morpheme, in other word, is a derivational morpheme that combines a verb-prefix with the root-lexicon. Verbal-prefixes include in-, un-, under-, dis-, mis-, re-, sub-, de-, ir-, out-, be-, etc. Here are examples as follow: unlock, unzip, include, infirm, dislike, dismiss, device, deceive, understand, mislead, misunderstand, rewrite, reorder, submit, subcategorize, irrigate, outlive, outnumber, undercook, undercut, belittle, belie, etc.

Adjectival-Derivational Morphemes

Adjectival-derivational morpheme refers to the bound morpheme in which it derives a new adjectival-lexicon by combining an adjectival-suffix with the root-lexicon. The adjectival-suffixes include -ant, -ent, -ient, -less, -ful, -ive, -ish, -ic, -ical, -al, -ty, -y, -ental, -ential, -escent, -esque, -ique, -ete, -ese, -ual, -ial, -ible, -able, -ous/uous, -ious, -eous, -ary, -orary, etc. Here are examples as follow: important, confident, patient, useful, active, childish, syntactic, political, general, faulty, safety, dizzy, sunny, existential, essential, accidental, adolescent, grotesque, unique, replete, Chinese, Japanese, Siamese, Vietnamese, usual, provincial, sensible, readable, reliable, considerable, understandable, famous, continuous, previous, advantageous, sentimental, contemporary, contrary, etc.

Adjectival-derivational morpheme, however, is a combination of an adjectival-prefix with the root-lexicon morpheme to derive or create a new adjectival-lexicon. Adjectival-prefixes include in-, im-, un-, non-, under-, dis-, re-, il-, ir-, multi-, sub-, de-, out-, anti-, up-, ex-, etc. Here are examples as follow: unfair, unheard, incomplete, imperfect, disjoined, delighted, illegal, irregular, multicultural, anti-clerical, non-addictive, outbound, undercooked, underage, sub judice, subordinate, upfront, ex-directory, etc.

Adverbial-Derivational Morphemes

Adverbial-derivational morpheme is the derivational morpheme in which it derives a new adverbial-lexicon by combining an adverbial-suffix with the root-lexicon. The adverbial-suffixes include -ly, -ically, -ally, -ually, -ially, -y, etc. Here are examples as follow: speedily, loudly, practically, usually, generally, essentially, officially, pretty, very, etc.

Adverbial-derivational morpheme, however, refers to a combination of an adverbial-prefix with the root-lexicon to derive or create a new adverbial-lexicon. The adverbial-prefixes include un-, in-, im-, dis-, de-, il-, ir-, ex-, a-, be-, etc. Here are examples as follow: unhappily,

ungratefully, incompletely, impossibly, disagreeably, delightedly, illiberally, irrecoverably, exactly, along, again, away, before, besides, etc.

Prepositional-Derivational Morphemes

Prepositional-derivational morpheme refers to the derivational morpheme that derives or creates a new prepositional-lexicon by combining a prepositional-prefix with the root-lexicon. The prepositional-prefixes include a-, be-, under-, in-, on-, out-, with-, etc. Here are examples as follow: among, about, along, beside, below, behind, beyond, underneath, inside, into, onto, outside, out of, within, without, etc.

Unit 2

Lexical Compounds

A lexical compound refers to the construction that puts two or more words together. In English linguistics, there are several compound lexicons, for example, *bookstall*, *manmade*, *in-house breakfast*, *bad-tempered*, *handcuff*, *waterproof*, *upward*, etc. Lexical compound can be written as one word, separated-words, or hyphenated-words.

2.1 Types of Lexical Compounds

In English linguistics, the lexical compounds are classified into five types, as follow.

- Nominal-lexical Compounds
- Verbal-lexical Compounds
- Adjectival-lexical Compounds
- Adverbial-lexical Compounds
- Prepositional-lexical Compounds

Nominal-Lexical Compounds

A nominal-lexical compound refers to the construction, which has two or more nouns or words. In English linguistics, nominal-lexical compounds can be written as one word, separated-words, or hyphenated-words. However, compound nominals are constructed with a noun, verb, preposition, participle, adverb, or adjective. Below are examples that highlight the nominal-lexical compounds.

Nominal-Lexical Compounds		
Run-off, pick-up, hang-up	Bus stop, bookstall, X-ray,	Touch football, full moon,
Software, update, also-ran	Blackball, input, eye-opener	Open classroom, fast food,
Mother-in-law, close-out	Breakfast, underwear, cupful	Cut-throat razor
Underworld, breakage	Swimming pool, upholder	Running water
Breakaway, sight-reader	Closed season, table painted	Closed book, closed shop
Whitewash, small-talk	Mushroom cloud	Open book, close call
Overlook, undergraduate	Sightseeing, sight-reader	White-water rafting
Runner-up, hanger-on	White water, white wedding	Door open/opened
Bookshop, Whitehouse	Postman, spokesman	Run-down, run-in
Runabout, runaway	Police officer, care repair	Run-off, takeaway

Verbal-Lexical Compounds

A verbal-lexical compound is a construction that has two or more verbs or words. The verbal-lexical compounds can be written like one word, separated-words, or hyphenated-words. In English linguistics, the verbal-lexical compounds are constructed with a noun, verb, preposition, adjective, or adverb. Below are examples that demonstrate the verbal-lexical compounds.

Verbal-Lexical Compounds		
Rewrite , input, go up	Waterproof, handcuff, go out	Back engineer, back door
Understand, rethink	Believe in, rely upon, take off	Ask for, laugh at, wait for
Be done, pick up	House-sit, lip-read, lip-synch	Reverse engineer, go around
Have been eaten,	Tiptoe, touch-type	Underscore, underline, upstage
Be love, do love	Type-write, run and look	under-report, underlie, outgrow
Babysit, weed-whack	Downsize, under-report	Wash and dry, get over, go up

Adjectival-Lexical Compounds

An adjectival-lexical compound refers to the construction that has two or more adjectives or words. The adjectival-lexical compound modifies the noun or adjective. In English linguistics, adjectival-lexical compounds are formed with the noun, verb, adjective, adverb, preposition, or participle. The adjectival-lexical compounds may be written like one word, separated-words, or hyphenated-words. Here are examples that elaborate on the adjectival-lexical compounds.

Adjectival-Lexical Compounds		
Time-consuming, walk-in	Handmaiden, Smokeless	Sugar-free, ice-cold
Critical thinking, downscale	Handyman, forward-looking	Middle-class, long-term
Wellspring, record-breaking	Waterproof, childproof	Part-time, full-frontal
Interested in, born-again	Half-decent, big-blue	Fat-free, man-made
Made-up, mouth-watering,	Narrow-minded, sun-baked	Bad-tempered, middle-aged
Hand-to-hand, step-by-step	Brightly-lit, handmade	Hard-bitten, well-preserved
Wide-ranging, good-looking	Run-down, hacked off	Middle-aged, child-wanted,
Well-meaning, upcoming	Hands-off, hands-on	Thought-provoking
Handmade, runaway	Built-in, built-up, homeless	Hopeful, thankful

Adverbial-Lexical Compounds

An adverbial-lexical compound is formed by an adverb paired with a noun, an adjective, a verb, a preposition or an adverb itself. The adverbial-lexical compounds are constructed to modify the verb, adjective, adverb, or entire clause. In English linguistics, the adverbial-lexical compounds can be written as one word, separated-words, or hyphenated-words. The adverbial-lexical compounds are all compounds without concern for spelling patterns. Here are examples that indicate the adverbial-lexical compounds.

Adverbial-Lexical Compounds		
Too boldly, self-consciously	Afterwards, forward	Without, early on, hereafter
Self-confidently, far enough	Sometimes, beforehand	In-bed, inside, today, outside
Fully employed,	Somewhat, someday	In-house, tonight, upstairs
All too complacent attitude	Somehow, therefore	Overall, very well, moreover
Equally productive means	Homeward, skyward	Over-large, fast-talking
well-fed cattle, well known	Yesterday, near enough	Right of certainty, indoors

Prepositional-Lexical Compounds

Prepositional-lexical compound is generally formed by the prefixing a preposition (usually: a = on, or be = by) to a noun, an adjective, or an adverb, such as *about, above, across, along, amidst, among, amongst, around, before, behind, below, beneath, beside, between, beyond, inside, outside, underneath, within, without*, etc.

2.2 Rules of Lexical Compounds

In English linguistics, the lexical compounds are constructed based upon the grammatical rules. There are different rules of compounding the nominal-lexicons, verbal-lexicons, adjective-lexicons, and adverbial-lexicons. These are grammatically ruled as follow.

Rules of Nominal-Lexical Compounds

The nominal-lexical compounds are constructed depending upon the grammatical rules. In English linguistics, nominal-lexical compounds may be written like one word, separated-words, or hyphenated-words. Below are some examples of constructing nominal-lexical compounds.

The nominal-lexical compounds can be grammatically formed with a noun plus noun. Nominal-lexical compounds are formed as follow: *bus stop, bookstall, X-ray, football, touch football, cutthroat razor, earthquake, post office, potbelly, eye-opener*, etc.

Nominal-lexical compounds can be grammatically formed with an adjective plus noun. The compound nominal-lexicons are constructed as follow: *software, blackball, full moon, greenhouse, middle class, redhead, top hat, bluebird*, etc.

Sometimes, the nominal-lexical compounds can be formed with a verb plus noun. Here are examples of forming the compound nominal-lexicons, as follow: *breakfast, breakage, chopstick, swimsuit, open classroom, open book, close call*, etc.

Nominal-lexical compounds can be grammatically formed with the participle plus noun. The compound nominal-lexicons are formed as follow: *swimming pool, running water, washing machine, closed season, closed book, closed shop*, etc.

Compound nominal-lexicons, however, are grammatically constructed with a noun plus verb. Here are examples of the compound nominal-lexicons, as follow: *mushroom cloud, haircut, snowfall, photo shoot*, etc.

In some case, the compound nominal-lexicons can be grammatically formed with a noun plus participle. These compound nominal-lexicons are constructed as follow: *sightseeing, sight-reading, white-water rafting, table-painted, door opened, garden watering, table dining, room elaborating*, etc.

In addition, the compound nominal-lexicons are grammatically constructed with a verb plus adverb or preposition. Here are examples of compound nominal-lexicons as follow: *run-off, pick-up, hang-up, run-on, touchdown, check-in, checkout, drawback*, etc.

Compound nominal-lexicons are grammatically formed with an adverb or preposition plus verb. The compound nominal-lexicons are constructed as follow: *input, output, income, outcome, underwear, also-run overlook, undergraduate, backbone, overthrow, backbite*, etc.

The compound nominal-lexicons, sometimes, are formed with a noun plus adjective. Here are examples of the compound nominal-lexicons, as follow: *breakfast, cupful, door open, spoonful, truckload, wireless*, etc.

Notably, compound nominal-lexicons can be constructed with a preposition or an adverb plus noun. Compound nominal-lexicons are constructed as follow: *underworld, update, upholder, bystander, afterlife, online*, etc.

In English linguistics, the compound nominal-lexicons are grammatically formed with a noun plus adverb or preposition. These compound nominal-lexicons are constructed as follow: *closeout, runner-up, hanger-on, passer-by, ten-year-old, mother-in-law, lady-in-waiting*, etc. Compound nominal-lexicons, additionally, are grammatically constructed with an adjective plus verb or participle. Here are examples of the compound nominal-lexicons, as follow:

whitewash, small talk, white water, white wedding, dry-cleaning, public speaking, wet standing, etc.

Importantly, compound nominal-lexicons can be grammatically formed with an adjective plus adjective. These compound nominal-lexicons are constructed as follow: *turquoise blue, golden yellow, etc.*

Rules of Verbal-Lexical Compounds

A verbal-lexical compound is constructed by joining two or more verbs or words together to do action of the noun depending upon the grammatical rules. In English linguistics, the verbal-lexical compounds can be written as one word, separated-words, or hyphenated-words, and they are ruled differently.

The verbal-lexical compounds are constructed with a noun plus noun. Below are examples of grammatically forming the compound verbal-lexicons, as follow: *waterproof, handcuff, back engineer, back door, etc.*

In some case, compound verbal-lexicons are formed with a verb plus preposition (phrase), and they are called prepositional verbs. Below are examples of forming the compound verbal-lexicons, as follow: *believe in, ask for, rely upon, laugh at, wait for, etc.*

Compound verbal-lexicons are constructed with a noun plus verb, a verb plus noun, or a verb plus verb. Here are examples of grammatically ruling the compound verbal-lexicons, as follow: *housesit, lip-read, lip-synch, waterproof, touch-type, tiptoe, typewrite, reverse engineer, etc.*

Compound verbal-lexicons, however, are constructed by using the serial verbs. Compound verbal-lexicons are grammatically formed as follow: *run and look, wash and dry, etc.*

In addition to this, the compound verbal-lexicons are formed with a preposition or an adverb plus noun. Below are examples of grammatically forming the compound verbal-lexicons, as follow: *under-report, downsize, underscore, underline, upstage, etc.*

The compound verbal-lexicons are formed with a preposition or an adverb plus verb. The compound verbal-lexicons are grammatically formed as follow: *input, outgrow, etc.*

Compound verbal-lexicons, sometimes, are formed with a verb plus adverb, and they are called phrasal verbs. Below are examples of forming the compound verbal-lexicons, as follow: *take off, pick up, run across, meet by chance, go up, go around, take over, etc.*

Some compound verbal-lexicons are constructed by using an auxiliary verb plus verb. The compound verbal-lexicons are grammatically constructed as follow: *do love, be done, have been eaten, etc.*

Especially, compound verbal-lexicons are formed by the prefix “re-” plus verb. Here are examples of constructing the compound verbal-lexicons, as follow: *rebuild, redo, republish, rewrite, reconsider, rethink*, etc.

Notice that the compound verbal-lexicons are the verbs that are made up of multiple verbs or words. The compound verbal-lexicons can take on forms as follow:

- A serial verb
- A prepositional verb
- A phrasal verb
- A verb with auxiliary verbs (be, do, have)
- A compound single-word verb

Rules of Adjectival-Lexical Compounds

An adjectival-lexical compound is a construction that has two or more adjectives or words, and it is functioned to modify the noun or adjective itself. In English linguistics, compound adjectival-lexicons may be written like one word, separated-words, or hyphenated-words. There are many ways of constructing the compound adjectival-lexicons based upon the grammatical rules. Here are some examples of forming the compound adjectival-lexicons.

In English linguistics, the compound adjectival-lexicons are constructed with a noun plus adjective. Here are examples of grammatically forming the compound adjectival-lexicons, as follow: *handmaiden, smokeless, sugar-free, ice-cold*, etc.

Compound adjectival-lexicons are grammatically formed with an adjective plus noun. Here are examples of forming the compound adjectival-lexicons, as follow: *long-term, middle-class, downscale, long-distance, long-life, long-haul, long-range, handyman*, etc.

Compound adjectival-lexicons, in some case, are constructed with a noun plus noun. The compound adjectival-lexicons are formed as follow: *waterproof, childproof, part-time*, etc.

The compound adjectival-lexicons are formed with an adjective plus adjective. Here are examples of grammatically forming the compound adjectival-lexicons, as follow: *fat-free, full frontal, half-decent, big-blue*, etc.

In addition, the compound adjectival-lexicons are formed with an adjective plus participle. Here are examples of forming the compound adjectival-lexicons, as follow: *narrow-minded, bad-tempered, middle-aged, critical thinking, forward-looking, wide-ranging, good-looking, long-awaited, long-lost, long-lasting, long-running, long-sighted, long-standing*, etc.

The compound adjectival-lexicons, however, are formed with an adverb plus participle. The compound adjectival-lexicons are grammatically formed as follow: *upcoming, well-doing*,

well-meaning, well-being, well-adjusted, well-appointed, brightly-lit, hard-bitten, well-preserved, well-argued, well-balanced, never-ending, well-done, etc.

Some compound adjectival-lexicons are constructed by using a noun plus participle or a noun plus adverb or preposition. Here are examples of forming the compound adjectival-lexicons, as follow: *sunbaked, middle-aged, child-wanted, manmade, time-consuming, mouth-watering, record-breaking, hands-off, hands-on, hand-to-hand, step-by-step, etc.*

Notably, some compound adjectival-lexicons are formed with a verb or participle plus adverb. Compound adjectival-lexicons are grammatically constructed as follow: *walk-in, made-up, born-again, un-down, hacked off, etc.*

Rules of Adverbial-Lexical Compounds

In English linguistics, adverbial-lexical compounds are variously constructed depending on the grammatical rules, and they modify the verb, adjective, adverb, or entire clause. The adverbial-lexical compounds can be written as one word, separated-words, or hyphenated-words. Here are examples of constructing the adverbial-lexical compounds.

The compound adverbial-lexicons are constructed by combining an adverb or preposition plus adverb or preposition. Here are examples of constructing the compound adverbial-lexicons, as follow: *afterward, forward, without, early on, hereafter, offhandedly, etc.*

The compound adverbial-lexicons, however, are formed with the combination of an adverb plus noun or adjective. Here are examples of forming the compound adverbial-lexicons, as follow: *sometimes, beforehand, inside, outside, indoors, somewhat, someday, in-house, upstairs, off-line, offhand, equally productive means, all too complacent attitudes etc.*

Some compound adverbial-lexicons are constructed by combining an adverb plus noun or adverb or a noun plus adverb or noun. These compound adverbial-lexicons are formed as follow: *somehow, therefore, hereafter, thereafter, overall, very well, moreover, furthermore, homeward, skyward, nearby, meanwhile, somewhere, sky-high, thereby, thereof, hereby, hereabouts, hereto, herein, hereinafter, heretofore, hereupon, herewith, etc.*

In some case, compound adverbial-lexicons are formed with the combination of a noun plus noun/adjective or self plus adverb. Here are examples of forming the compound adverbial-lexicons, as follow: *yesterday, right of certainty, self-confidently, self-consciously, etc.*

The compound adverbial-lexicons are usually constructed by combining an adverb or preposition plus adverb. These compound adverbial-lexicons are grammatically formed as follow: *over-large, near enough, too boldly, far enough, etc.*

The compound adverbial-lexicons, on the other hand, are formed with the combination of an adverb plus participle. Here are examples of constructing the compound adverbial-lexicons, as follow: *well known, fast-talking, fully employed, well-fed cattle*, etc.

Rules of Prepositional-Lexical Compounds

A prepositional-lexical compound is commonly constructed with the prefixes “*a-, be-, under-, in-, with-, out-*” to a noun, an adjective, or an adverb. The examples are given as follow:

Rules of Prepositional-Lexical Compounds					
A + Root	Be + Root	Under + Root	In + Root	With + Root	Out + Root
About	Below	Underneath	Inside	Within	Outside
Above	Before		Into	Without	
Across	Behind				
Along	Beneath				
Amidst	Beside				
Against	Between				
Among	Beyond				
Amongst					
Around					

Unit 3

Lexical Morphology

Lexicon is a group of lexemes, lexical items, or lexicon (word) forms. Lexical morphology refers to a branch of morphology in which it deals with the lexicon that, morphologically conceived, is the collection of lexemes in a language. Meanwhile, lexical morphology concerns itself primarily with lexicon formation: inflection, derivation, and compound.

3.1 Lexemes

Lexeme is a basic unit of lexical meaning in a language, in which it consists of one lexicon (word) or several lexicons, regarding as a combination of lexicons are necessary to convey the intended meaning. In English linguistics, a lexeme is a group of lexicon forms that are all related to the same root lexicon through inflection. Lexemes are represented or named by a single lexicon that is called the lemma or citation form. Lexemes consist of both phonological and morphological components, and they are grouped into lemmas. Lemma is a bunch of lexemes that are generated by inflectional morphology. Commonly, lemmas are represented in dictionaries by headwords that list the cited forms and irregular forms. New lemmas are the lexemes that are inflected and derived from a lexicon by inflectional and derivational morphology. Lexemes can be formed as a single lexicon, compound lexicon, phrasal verb, and idiom.

Single Lexical-Lexemes

Single lexical-lexeme is a type of lexemes, in which it can be formed as a single lexicon or single inflectional-suffix lexicon. Single lexical-lexeme is a lexicon that can stand alone with its own meaning in a language. Here are examples as follow: *walk, runs, running, ran, worked, knives, leafs, go, went, gone*, etc.

Compound Lexical-Lexemes

Compound lexical-lexeme is a type of lexemes, in which it compounds lexicons together. Compound lexical-lexeme is a group of lexicons, which has the meaning in a language. Here are examples as follow: *fire station, change of heart, fire engine, sister-in-law, student attendance, couch potato*, etc.

Phrasal Verbal-Lexemes

Phrasal verbal-lexeme is a sort of lexemes, which can be from a verb plus particle (adverb or preposition). Phrasal verbal-lexeme is a group of lexicons, which is a combination of verb and particle and has the meaning in a language. Here are examples as follow: *speak up, pull through, take off, run across, cook over, put on, get through*, etc.

Idiomatic Lexical-Lexemes

Idiomatic lexical-lexeme is a type of lexemes, in which it is grouped by combining many lexicons together, consisting of idiomatic (metaphorical or non-literal) meaning. Idiomatic lexical-lexeme is a group of the lexicons, which has a non-literal meaning in a language. Here are examples as follow: *throw in the towel, give up the ghost, go on egg, piece of cake*, etc.

3.2 Lexicon (Word) Formation

Lexicon formation refers to a way of forming a lexicon by using the prefixes and suffixes through inflectional and derivational morphology, part of speech change, or combination of initial letters of other lexicons to form a new lexicon through acronym or abbreviation. The prefixes and suffixes that are used in forming English lexicons provide clues as to the meaning or function of lexicons. Suffixes typically indicate the function of a lexicon in a sentence. Lexicon forms can be formed as nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, and so on. Some lexicons have more than one form for the same part of speech. Here are examples of lexicon forms as follow: *bore, bored, boring, interested, interesting, anger, angry, angrily, fairness, careless, classify, discussion, readable, understand, away*, etc. In English linguistics, there are several ways of forming the lexicons, such as *conversion, acronym, borrowing, compounding, coinage, eponym, blending, backformation, clipping, suppletion, umlaut, ablaut, calquing, abbreviation, and derivation*.

Lexical Conversion

Lexical conversion is a way of forming a lexicon of a grammatical form from a lexicon of a grammatical form without any change of the pronunciation or spelling. Lexical conversion is also called zero (null) derivation. In English linguistics, lexical conversion is a type of lexicon formation that involves the creation of a new lexicon class from an existing lexicon of a different lexicon class without any change in form. Meanwhile, lexical conversion is a process of lexicon formation that is to change the part of speech of free content-lexicons or free functional-lexicons. Lexical conversion of lexicon formation may be the noun-to-verb conversion, verb-to-noun conversion, adjective-to-verb conversion, adjective-to-noun conversion, adjective-to-adverb conversion, preposition-to-noun conversion, conjunction-to-noun conversion, and interjection-to-noun conversion.

a. Noun-to-Verb Conversion

Noun-to-verb conversion is the most productive form of English conversion. Hence, the verbal-lexicons are converted from the nominative-lexicons. Here are examples of the verbs that are converted from the nouns, as follow: *access → to access, bottle → to bottle, can → to can, closet → to closet, email → to email, host → to host, eye → to eye, fiddle → to fiddle, fool → to fool, google → to google, knife → to knife, name → to name, salt → to salt*, etc.

b. Verb-to-Noun Conversion

Most commonly, verb-to-noun conversion is the productive form of English conversion, in which it is the process of converting the nominative-lexicons from the verbal-lexicons. The

following examples provide the illustration of converting the nominative-lexicons for the verbal-lexicons: to alert → alert, to attack → attack, to call → call, to clone → clone, to cover → cover, to command → command, to cry → cry, to experience → experience, etc.

c. Adjective-to-Verb Conversion

Adjective-to-verb conversion is another form of English conversion, which is the process of lexicon formation by converting the verbal-lexicons from the adjectival-lexicons. Here are examples as follow: correct → to correct, perfect → to perfect, green → to green, etc.

d. Adjective-to-Noun Conversion

Adjective-to-noun conversion is a lexical form of English conversion, in which it converts the nominative-lexicons from the adjectival-lexicons. Here are some examples as follow: expert → expert, general → general, present → present, etc.

e. Adjective-to-Adverb Conversion

Adjective-to-adverb conversion is a lexicon form that converts the adverbial-lexicons from the adjectival-lexicons. Adjective-to-adverb conversion consists of the same meaning when the adverb is conversed from the adjective. For example, wrong → wrong, fast → fast, right → right, etc.

f. Preposition-to-Noun Conversion

Preposition-to-noun conversion is a process of converting the nominative-lexicons from the prepositional-lexicons. Preposition-to-noun conversion has the same meaning when the noun is conversed from the preposition. For example, up → ups, down → downs (e.g., The ups and downs of life).

g. Conjunction-to-Noun Conversion

Conjunction-to-noun conversion is a form of English lexical conversion, which converts the nominative-lexicons from the conjunction-lexicons. It has the same meaning when the noun is conversed from the conjunction. For example, if, and, but → no ifs, ands, buts, etc.

h. Interjection-to-Noun Conversion

Interjection-to-noun conversion can be a form of English lexicon conversion, in which it converts the nominative-lexicons from the interjection-lexicons like ho ho ho → ho ho hos. For example, I love the ho ho hos of Christmastime.

Lexical Acronyms

Lexical acronym is a type of lexicon formation, which is an abbreviation that consists of the initial letters of each lexicon. Lexical acronym can be pronounced as a lexicon. Here are examples as follow: *AIDS* (acquired immune deficiency syndrome), *NATO* (North Atlantic Treaty Organization), *radar* (Daio detecting and ranging), *NGO* (non-government organization), etc.

Borrowing Lexicons

Borrowing lexicon is a way of constructing a lexicon, in which it is borrowed from another lexical language. Borrowing lexicon has its own meaning based upon the word or lexicon, which is borrowed. The following are the examples given: *alcohol (Arabic)*, *essay (French)*, *kindergarten (German)*, *yogurt (Turkish)*, *loot (Hindi)*, *cliché (French)*, etc.

Compounding Lexicons

Compounding lexicon is a way of forming lexicons by combining those lexicons together. Meanwhile, it consists of head-lexicon and other element functions like a modifier of the head. Here are examples: armchair, skinhead, seasick, afternoon, undergo, handout, pain-free, word stress, pickpocket, run-on, etc.

Lexical Coinage

Lexical coinage is a way of creating a new lexicon or phrase in a language. Lexical coinage refers to the process of creating a new word or lexicon with its own meaning in a language. The following are the examples given, as follow: boy band, chirrup, blatant, glance, governance, etc.

Lexical Eponyms

Lexical eponym is another way of forming a lexicon, which refers to the term or name of an object or activity that is given to a particular place, tribe, era, discovery, situation, or person who first produced the object or did the activity. Here are examples as follow: malapropism, sandwich, Pentium, Kodak, Xerox, Honda, etc.

Onomatopoeic Lexicons

Onomatopoeic Lexicon is a word that imitates the actual sound of something. Typically, it affords human movements, animal sounds, or sound and motion being a word. In writing style, onomatopoeic lexicon is often determined as a proof of voice or speaker's expression explained sound with words. Also, onomatopoeic lexicon is a unique linguistic expression due to its phonological form appeared without delay associated with that meaning, and it is the imitation of words from herbal sounds, defined a common phenomenon in all languages. Therefore, onomatopoeic lexicon is the way of forming a lexicon that is imitated by using the natural sounds, for example, cuckoo, pop, boom, squelch, etc.

Blending Lexicons

Blending lexicon is a word that is coined through the fusion of lexical parts (parts of words), and it is the creative process through blends of two or more words. In linguistics, blending lexicon is a type of word formation in which it merges two or more words into one, for example, the term "*brunch*" is blended from the word "*breakfast*" and the word "*lunch*." Blended lexicon can be called as "clipped or overlap." Blending lexicon is a way of forming lexicons, in which it blends the two lexicons together to create a new lexicon. Here are examples, as follow: smoke + fog > smog, motor + hotel > motel, breakfast + lunch > brunch,

channel + tunnel > chunnel, web + seminar > webinar, spoon + fork > spork, chuckle + snort > chortle, hazardous + material > hazmat, biography + picture > biopic, breath + analyzer > breathalyzer, clap + crash > clash, documentary + drama > docudrama, Cambodia + English > Camblish, etc.

Clipping Lexicons

Clipping lexicon is a way of constructing lexicons by clipping syllables of the polysyllabic lexicon to make a shortening syllabic lexicon. Here are examples: bicycle > bike, gasoline > gas, telephone > phone, advertisement > ad, memorandum > memo, teenager > teen, etc. Notice that clipping of a way new words that are created may consist of five varied types, including initial clipping, final clipping, initial-final clipping, medial clipping, and complex clipping. For example, initial clipping: bot (robot), final clipping: fax (facsimile), initial-final clipping: flu (influenza), medial clipping: fancy (fantasy), and complex clipping: org-man (organization man), navicert (navigation certificate), etc.

Back-formation Lexicons

In English linguistics, back-formation lexicon is the forming process of a neologism (a new lexicon) by removing an affix from another lexicon. Simply, back-formation lexicon is a shortened lexicon that is created or back-formed from a longer lexicon. Here are examples as follow: back-form (back-formation), edit (editor), babysit (babysitter), pea (pease), print (printer), etc.

Lexical Suppletion, Umlaut, and Ablaut

a. Lexical Suppletion

In English linguistics, lexical suppletion refers to the use of the two or more phonetically differentiated lexical roots for distinct forms of the same lexicons. Lexical suppletion is implied as a gap in paradigm filled by a form supplied with a different paradigm. Typically, lexical suppletion is restricted to the often-used lexical items in a language, and it is used to indicate unpredictable encoding of regular semantic or grammatical relations. Thus, lexical suppletion is defined as a linguistic phenomenon in which various forms of the same word are derived from various etymological roots. Here are the examples, *bad – worse, go – went, good – better/well, we – us, he – him, am – is, was – were*, etc.

b. Lexical Umlaut

Lexical umlaut is a change of vowel sound in lexicon formation of a language, in which it shows that the pronunciation of the vowel is changed in the lexicons. It is a changed vowel in language, which indicates the way of the vowel pronounced in a lexicon. Lexical umlaut is a form of assimilation in which the process of a speech-sound becoming similar to a nearby sound. In linguistics, lexical umlaut is literally called as changed sound in which the the sound shift phenomenon is also known as i-mutation. Here are examples as follow: foot – feet, mouse – mice, tooth – teeth, goose – geese, man – men, woman –women, louse – lice, etc.

c. Lexical Ablaut

Lexical ablaut refers to the morphological vowel change generally. In English linguistics, lexical ablaut is a systematic variation of vowels in the same root-lexicon or affix or in related root-lexicons or affixes that is most usually paralleled by differences in use or meaning. Here are examples as follow: sing – sang – sung – song, swim – swam – swum, run – ran – run, become – became – become, begin – began – begun, ring – rang – rung, etc.

Calquing Lexicons or Loan Translation-Lexicons

In English linguistics, calquing lexicon (loan translation-lexicon) is the lexicon formation process, in which a lexicon or phrase is borrowed from another language by literal lexicon-for-lexicon or root-for-root lexical translation. Here are examples as follow:

Calquing or Loan Translation			
<i>English Lexicon</i>	<i>Translation</i>	<i>From Language</i>	<i>Original Lexicon</i>
Brainwashing	Calques	Chinese	xǐ nǎo
Running dog	Calques	Chinese	zǒu gǒu
Skyscraper	Calques	French	gratte-ciel
Governor-general	Calques	French	Gouverneur Général
Pineapple	Calques	Dutch	pijnappel
Antibody	Calques	German	Antikörper
Passover	Calques	Hebrew	Pesah
Commonplace	Calques	Latin	locus commūnis
Blue-blood	Calques	Spanish	sangre azul
Gospel	Calques	Greek	evangelion
Air conditioned	Calques	Italian	aria condizionata
Highway	Calques	Swedish	motorväg

Lexical Abbreviation

Lexical abbreviation is a way of forming lexicon in which a lexicon or phrase is shortened. In English linguistics, abbreviation is a shortened form of written lexicon or phrase, and it may be used to save space and time in the case of avoiding repetition of long lexicons or phrases. Even if abbreviation is a convention of written language, abbreviations carry over into spoken language. Here are examples as follow: Apr (April), cm (centimeter), d (die in), Dr. (doctor), Sun (Sunday), A.M (ante meridiem), B.C.E (before common era), GOP (grand old party), i.e. (id est), PMS (premenstrual syndrome), VIP (very important person), etc.

Lexical Derivation

In English linguistics, morphological lexical-derivation is a way of creating a new lexicon from an existing lexicon, in which it most often adds a prefix or suffix to the root-lexicon. Morphological lexical-derivation consists of two types, including derivational prefixes and derivational suffixes.

a. Derivational Prefix-Lexicons

Derivational prefix-lexicon is the way of forming lexicons, in which it derives lexicons by adding the prefix into the root, root lexicon, or base lexicon. Prefixes are used to aid in determining the meaning of lexicons. While some prefixes consist of only one meaning, other prefixes may have more than one meaning or there may be several prefixes with the same meaning of lexicons. The prefixes include a-, an-, anti-, be-, de-, dis-, ex-, il-, im-, in-, ir-, mis-, non-, out-, re-, sub-, un-, under-, with-. Other prefixes have like ad-, ante-, bene-, bi-, by-, circum-, co-, col-, com-, con-, cor-, contra-, dia-, epi-, hyper-, hypo-, inter-, intra-, intro-, mal-, micro-, mono-, multi-, ob-, over-, peri-, poly-, post-, pre-, pro-, retro-, semi-, suc, suf-, sup-, sus-, super-, syl-, sym-, syn-, tri-, trains-, ultr-, uni-. Meanwhile, derivational prefix is a situation that helps lead to the richness of lexicon (vocabulary) in English language. Here are examples of derivational prefix-lexicons: *away, below, anarchy, antibody, devoice, dismiss, exhale, illegal, impossible, inactive, irregular, misunderstand, non-addictive, outcome, redo, subcategory, undo, underneath, withdraw*, etc. Other examples of derivational prefix-lexicons are given: *adhere, antecedent, benefactor, bipolar, bystander, circumpolar, co-author, collaborate, combine, conspire, correspond, contraband, diagonal, epilogue, hyperbole, hypodermic, intercede, intramural, introvert, malformed, microscope, monotone, multiply, objection, overdraft, perimeter, polygon, postdated, precaution, prognosis, retrospective, semiconscious, succumb, suffocate, support, syllable, sympathy, synapse, tricycle, transfuse, ultramarine, unicorn*, etc.

b. Derivational Suffix-Lexicons

Derivational suffix-lexicon is the way of forming lexicons, in which it derives the lexicons by adding the suffix into the root, root lexicon, or base lexicon. The suffixes can be the nominative suffixes, verbal suffixes, adjectival suffixes, or adverbial suffix. Suffix “-ly” is considered as adjective or adverbial suffix. The nominative suffixes include -age, -aire, -al, -ance/-ancy/-ant, -bery, -cracy, -ence/-ency/-ent, -ar, -ary, -ation, -ee, -er, -ery, -ess, -graph/-graphy, -crat, -hood, -ice, -ics, -ia, -ian, -ing, -ion (-sion/-tion), -ism, -ist, -ition, -ity/-ty, -ization, -ment, -ness, -logy/-ogy, -oid, -oon, -ory, -orary, ship, etc. Verbal suffixes consist of -ate, -en, -er, -ice, -ify/-fy, -se/-ize, -ish, , etc. Adjectival suffixes include -ant, -ent, -ient, -less, -ful, -ive, -ish, -ic, -ical, -al, -ty, -y, -ental, -ential, -escent, -esque, -ique, -ete, -ese, -ual, -ial, -ible, -able, -ous/uous, -ious, -eous, -ary, -orary, etc. Therefore, derivational suffix is the process of the lexicon formation through variations of morphologically derivational suffixes. Here are examples of derivational suffix-lexicons: *useful, importance, resident, fasten, generalize, essential, employment, lexicology, graphic, visitor, beggar, childish, active, dictionary, physics, friendly, completely* etc.

3.3 Inflectional Suffix-Lexicons

Inflectional Regular-Suffixes

Inflectional suffix-lexicon is the way of forming lexicons, in which it inflects lexicons by using the regular suffixes (-s, -es, -’s, -ed, -en, -ing, -er, -est) to create the new lexicons with the same meaning. The suffixes “-s, -es” are employed to indicate the nominative plural-form

and verb singular-form with third person singular, and the suffix “-’s” is also used to show the generative (possessive) case. The suffixes “-ed, -en” are used to express the past tenses and past participles of verbs, and the suffix “-ing” is used to show the present participle and gerund forms. In addition, the suffix “-er” is used to express the comparative of adjectives or adverbs, and the suffix “-est” is employed to indicate the superlative of adjectives or adverbs. Here are examples: *walks, books, passes, boxes, dishes, visited, given, writing, easier, earlier, earliest, busiest*, etc.

Inflectional Irregular-Suffixes

In linguistics, inflectional irregular-suffix is a word, which is unusual in its declension in the English language. In English, inflectional irregular-system displays irregular inflected forms. For example, English past tense formation where we find irregular forms inflected with irregular one that is idiosyncratic and largely unpredictable, such as *sing–sang*. The irregular suffixes “-(r)en, -i, -ae/-a” may be used to inflect the plural lexicons. Here are examples: *oxen, children, brethren, cacti, formula/formulae, phenomena*, etc.

Unit 4

Aspects of English Morphology

In English linguistics, morphology is the study of the lexicons (words), the study on how the lexicons are formed, and the study on the lexicons' relationship to other lexicons in the same language. Most commonly, morphology analyzes the structure of lexicons and parts of lexicons, such as stems, root lexicons, prefixes, and suffixes. In addition, morphology analyzes the morphemes, morphs, and allomorphs.

4.1 Morphemes

Morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit of lexical item in a language. Morpheme consists of its own meaning, either a lexicon or a part of a lexicon. Sometimes, morpheme cannot stand alone. In English morphology, when a morpheme can stand alone, it is considered a root because it has its own meaning like the morpheme *cat*. When it depends on another morpheme to express an idea, morpheme is an affix because it has a grammatical function like “-s” in the lexicon “cats” to indicate plurality of the nominative-lexicon. In English linguistics, morpheme is a meaningful morphological unit of a language in which it cannot be further divided, for example, *in-*, *come*, *-ing*, forming like *incoming*. In other word, morpheme is the smallest meaningfully linguistic part of a lexicon in which it can have a meaning. Examples of morphemes would be the parts like *un-*, *break*, *-able* in the lexicon *unbreakable*. Therefore, morphemes like prefixes, suffixes, and root lexicon or base word are considered the smallest meaningful units of meaning. Morphemes are important for phonics in both reading and spelling, as well as in lexicon (vocabulary) and comprehension. In English linguistics, morphemes are classified into two types, such free morpheme and bound morpheme.

Free Morphemes

Free morphemes are the morphemes in which they can occur alone as lexicons and have a meaning or fulfill a grammatical function. For example, man, run, for, and, in, on, go, write, teach. Free morphemes are subcategorized into two types, including lexical morpheme and functional morpheme.

Lexical (content) morphemes are free morphemes in which they have semantic content (or meaning) and commonly refer to a thing, quality, state, or action. In English linguistics, lexical morphemes most commonly take the forms of nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. For example, dog, John, house, build, stay, happy, intelligent, fast, always. Actually, lexical morphemes constitute the larger class of morphemes, and they form the content lexicons in a language, likely to grow due to the incorporation of new members into it.

Functional (grammatical/structural) morphemes are free morphemes in which they have little or no meaning on their own, but in which they show grammatical relationships in and

between sentences. In English linguistics, functional (grammatical/structural) morphemes are represented by prepositions, conjunctions, articles, determiners, auxiliary verbs, modal verbs, demonstratives, and pronouns. For example, with, but, the, this, can, who, and, me. It should be said that functional lexicons are usually used in their unstressed form.

Bound Morphemes

Bound morphemes are the morphemes in which they cannot stand alone as lexicons but as parts of words, and they must be attached to another morpheme (free morpheme) in order to have a distinct meaning. For example, -er in worker, -er in taller; -s in walks, comes; -ed in passed, talked; re- as in reappear, redo, repair; un- in unhappy, undo; -ness in readiness, correctness, -able in adjustable; -ceive in conceive, receive; -tain in contain, obtain, etc. Bound morphemes are broken down into two types, such as bound roots and affixes.

Bound roots are the bound morphemes in which they have lexical meaning when they are attached to other bound morphemes to form content lexicons. For example, -tain in retain, contain; -ceive in receive, conceive; plac- in implacable, placate; cran- in cranberry, etc. Notice that bound roots can be prefixed or suffixed to other affixes.

Affixes are bound morphemes in which, most commonly, they are marginally attached to lexicons and in which they change the meaning or grammatical function of those lexicons. For example, -ment in development, government; en- in enlarge, encourage; 's in John's; -s in claps, -ing in studying, etc. Affixes can be classified into two varied ways: based on their position in the lexicon and based on their grammatical function in a phrase or sentence.

Based on their position in the lexicon (or side of the lexicon they are attached to), affixes are subcategorized into three types, such as prefixes, suffixes infixes, and circumfixes.

1. Prefixes are bound morphemes in which they are added to the initial of lexicons. For example, un- in unnoticed, a- in amoral, sub- in subway, etc. Notice that prefixes are represented by the morphemes followed by a hyphen (-).
2. Suffixes are bound morphemes in which they are attached to the final of lexicons. For example, -able in noticeable, -less in careless, -s in seeks, -en in shorten, etc. Notice that suffixes are represented by the morphemes preceded by a hyphen.
3. Infixes are bound morphemes in which they are inserted within the lexicons. Infixes include -in-, -st-, -bloody-, -s-, -iz-, -izn-, -awful-, etc. For example, fan-bloody-tastic, cupsful, spoonsful, unstable, mother-in-law, hizouse, be-awful-ware, etc. notice that infixes are represented by the morphemes preceded and followed by a hyphen (-in-)
4. Circumfixes are the bound morphemes that are placed around another morpheme. Circumfix is a combination, attaching to both the initial and the final of a lexicon. For example, enlighten, embolden, rewriting, reconsidering, reworked, rewritten, innumeros, etc. Notice that the circumfixes are represented by the morphemes preceded and followed a lexicon by a *prefix-root/bas-suffix*.

Based on the grammatical function affixes fulfilled in the language, affixes are classified into two sorts, including derivational affixes (derivational morphemes or derivations) and inflectional affixes (inflectional morphemes or inflections).

1. Derivational affixes are morphemes in which they create new lexicons by either changing the meaning or the part of speech, or both of the lexicons they are attached to. In English linguistics, derivational affixes (morphemes) can be either prefixes or suffixes. For example, *unhappy*, *reclassify*, *by-product*, *acceptance*, *capacity*, etc.
2. Inflectional affixes are the morphemes in which they serve a purely grammatical function, including referring to and giving extra linguistic information about the existing meaning of a lexicon (e.g., number, person, gender, case, verb-form, etc.), expressing the syntactic relations between lexicons (e.g., possession, comparison), and among others. For instance, *books*, *pens*, *buses*, *talked*, *visited*, *speaks*, *spoken*, *speaking*, *stronger*, *earliest*, *oxen*, etc. In English linguistics, inflectional affixes (morphemes) consist of only eight morphs, such as *-s/-es* (plurality of nominative form and singularity of present tense verbs with third person), *-ed* (regular past tense), *-ing* (present participle), *-en* (past participle and plurality of the irregular nominative), *-er* (comparative), *-est* (superlative), *'s* (possessive case), and *-i/-a/-ae* (irregularity of the nominative).

4.2 Morphs

Morph is a phonological string of phonemes, in which it cannot be broken down into the smaller constituents, having a lexicogrammatical function. Morph is a formal unit with physical shape, and it, in some sense, corresponds to a lexicon-form. In English linguistics, morph is a lexicon segment that represents one morpheme (the smallest unit of language in which it has meaning) in speech or writing. Morph is a written or pronounced portion of a lexicon, such as an affix (a prefix or suffix). For example, the word “*irregularity*” is made up of three morphs: *ir-*, *regular*, *-ity* – each of which represents one morpheme. Hence, the lexicon has two affixes, both a prefix (*ir-*) and a suffix (*-ity*) attached to a root lexicon (*regular*). Morphs are the portion of a lexicon, such as affixes. Morph-affixes consist of morph-prefixes and morph-suffixes. Morph-prefixes include *un-*, *in-*, *im-*, *ir-*, *il-*, *ig-*, etc. Morph-suffixes consist of *-s*, *-en*, *-ed*, *-ing*, *-ful*, *-ness*, *-ion*, *-ment*, *-ly*, *-ic*, *-al*, *ial*, *-ish*, etc. Morphs are categorized into four types, such as *free morph*, *root lexicon (root word)*, *zero morph*, and *bound morph*.

Free Morphs

In linguistics, free morph is a whole word with the phonological string of phonemes, which cannot be broken down into smaller constituents in the lexicogrammatical function of a language. Free morph is a morph in which it can stand alone, having its own meaning, for example, *big*, *cat*, *walk*, *home*, etc. Hence, free morph is reviewed as a morph that indicates a whole word in a language.

Root Lexicons

Root lexicon refers to a lexicon that may or may not be free morph. Root lexicon (word) is a word that has no prefix or suffix, and it is the basic part of a lexicon. In linguistics, root lexicon holds the basic meaning of any lexicon. Most root lexicons cannot be stand-alone lexicons in English in which they need to employ a prefix and/or a suffix in creating a meaningful lexicon. Some root lexicons can be stand-alone lexicons or be combined with prefix, suffix, and/or other root words (Latin or Greek root words) to create the lexicons, for example, *aud* + *io* > *audio*, *aud* + *ible* > *audible*, *micro* + *scope* > *microscope*, *tele* + *scope* > *telescope*, etc. Meanwhile, root lexicon is reviewed as a word that is used to combine with other root words, prefix, and/or suffix in creating new lexicon, for example, the root in the lexicon “*construction*” is ***struct***, which is meant to build. The prefix “*con-*” and suffix “*-ion*” are the bound morphs that are used to combine with the root “*struct*” (to show that the lexicon is a noun).

Bound Morphs

Bound morph is a morph that cannot stand alone as a lexicon. In linguistics, bound morph refers to a prefix or suffix that is used in creating a new lexicon by combining the root word with a prefix and/or a suffix, represented in sound and writing by the word segments. For example, in lexicons like *smaller*, *studied*, and *pens*, *co-author*, *away*, the endings (suffixes): *-er*, *-ed*, *-s* and beginnings (prefixes): *co-* *a-* are the bound morphs.

Zero Morphs

Zero morph ($\emptyset$) is a null morph in which there is no change in the shape of a lexicon for the plurality of the nominative form, for example, *sheep* + $\emptyset$. However, the vowel change in a lexicon is considered as zero morph. For example, lexicons “*men*” and “*women*” are the plurality of the singular lexicons “*man*” and “*woman*.”

4.3 Allomorphs

Allomorph is a morph that has a unique set of grammatical or lexical features. Allomorph represents the way in which the morpheme might sound when pronounced in a specific language. Allomorph is a different unit of a language (morpheme) with the same meaning. In English linguistics, allomorph is a variation of morpheme that differs in pronunciation but is semantically identical. For example, in the lexicons *books*, *toys*, *buses*, *oxen*, *bugs*, the “*-s*,” “*-es*,” and “*-en*” are allomorphs of the plural morpheme because the “*s*,” “*-es*,” and “*-en*” are pronounced like “*s*,” “*z*,” “*iz*,” and “*ən*” based upon the final sound of the nominative-plural form.

Allomorphs can be the past tense allomorph, plural allomorph, and negative allomorph. The past tense allomorphs are subcategorized into two subtypes, such as past tense regular-allomorph and past tense irregular-allomorph (also called past tense suppletion-allomorph). Past tense regular-allomorphs are the allomorphs that are used to form the past tense verbs regularly, including the phonemes /*t*/, /*d*/, and /*id* or *əd*/ (e.g., *stopped*, *buzzed*, and *visited*). Past tense irregular-allomorph are the allomorphs that are completely changed the vowel in

a lexicon for the past tense verb. For example, **went** is the past tense of go, **gave** is the past tense of give, and **drank** is the past tense of drink. Plural allomorphs consist of two types, including plural regular and irregular allomorphs. Plural regular-allomorphs are the plural morphemes that are used to form the plurality of regular nominatives by adding the “-s” or “-es” to the end of the nominative. Plural morpheme has three varied allomorphs like /s/, /z/, and /iz/ or **az**/. For example, dogs, cats, keys, buses, dishes, etc. Plural irregular-allomorphs are the irregular morphemes that are used to form the irregular nominatives by adding the irregular morpheme to the end of the nominative, for example, ox**en**, child**ren**, **mice**, **geese**, **lice**, etc. Negative allomorphs are the negative morphemes that are used to create the lexicons by adding negative prefix to the beginning of the lexicon, for example, **nonsense**, **impossible**, **dislike**, **dismiss**, etc. Notice that negative prefix “in-” has three allomorphs: in-, in-, im- (e.g., **intolerant**, **incorrect**, **improper**). Allomorph consists of three types, such as *zero allomorph*, *regular allomorph*, and *irregular allomorph*.

Zero Allomorphs

Zero allomorph (∅) is a way in which there is no change in the shape of a lexicon for the plurality of nominative and past tense of verb through some variation in meaning is identical. For example, cut → cut + ∅ (past tense), deer → deer + ∅ (plural), moose → moose + ∅ (plural), etc.

Regular Allomorphs

Regular allomorph is a morpheme in which its variation can be described in terms of regular rules. For example, in the lexicons blocks, watches, doors, dresses, kills, speaks, talked, graduated, and generalized, the phonemes /s, z, iz/ are the regular allomorphs of the nominative plural-form and verb single-form and the phonemes /t, d, id/ are the regular allomorphs of the past tense of verbs.

Irregular Allomorphs

In linguistics, irregular allomorph is a morpheme in which its variation-form is not derived from one another by regular rules. It is an allomorph, which shows the certain allomorphs appear in the certain contexts to create new lexicon in a language. Irregular allomorph is a morpheme in which the form is not derived from another by regular rules. For example, ox → oxen, child → children, sing → sang, bite → bit, mouse → mice, etc.

4.4 Roots and Root Lexicons

Roots

Root is the basis of a new lexicon, but cannot typically form a stand-alone lexicon on its own. Root can be any part of a lexicon in which it carries meaning: the initial, medial or final. Prefixes, bases, and suffixes are considered the types of roots. The prefix may appear at the initial of a lexicon, the base appears in the medial of a lexicon, and the suffix may appear at the final of a lexicon. For example, the lexicon **construction** consists of the prefix **con-**, the base (root) **struct**, and the suffix **-ion**. In English linguistics, root is a complete lexicon, in which

it cannot be broken down any further. Most commonly, English roots came from the Greek and Latin languages. Notice that root, sometimes, can stand alone as a lexicon or as part of other common lexicon in English language, for example, *change, do, help, come, side, act, arbor, crypt, ego, form, legal, meter, norm, phobia*, etc.

Root Lexicons

Root lexicon is the basis of a lexicon that can or cannot be used as a stand-alone word. In English linguistics, root lexicon is a basic lexicon to which affixes (prefixes and suffixes) are added because it forms the basis of a new lexicon. Root lexicons are the lexicons from other language that are the origins of many English lexicons. For example, the lexicon *careless* consists of the lexicon *care* and the suffix *-less*. Most English root lexicons came from the Latin and Greek languages, and they cannot be the stand-alone lexicons. For example, in the lexicons "*biology, automatic, phonology, telecom, geography, photograph, vacation, transcript, transcribe, visit, vivid, report, sensory, sentence*," the root lexicons include "*bio-, auto-, phon-, tele-, geo-, photo-, vac-, -script, -scribe, vis-, -vid, -port, sens-, sent-*" in which they come from the Latin or Greek languages.

Every root lexicon has a meaning, and that meaning corresponds to the new lexicon that is made from it. Root lexicon has no affixes (prefixes or suffixes), that is, it is the basic part of a lexicon. For example, the root word of the lexicon "*conformity*" is "*form*." In linguistics, root lexicon holds the basic meaning of any lexicon. Sometimes, root lexicons can create new lexicons by making up of two root lexicons together, for example, *earwig, armrest, schoolhouse, girlfriend, boyfriend, armpit, earthworm, earring, armchair*, etc. Therefore, root lexicon is a lexicon or lexicon part that forms the basis of new lexicons through the addition of affixes (prefixes and suffixes).

4.5 Bases and Stems

Bases or Base Lexicons

In English linguistics, base word is a stand-alone English lexicon in which it can also form other lexicons with affixes (prefixes and suffixes). The terms "**root lexicons**" and "**base lexicons**" are most commonly used interchangeably, and these two terms are related but not exactly the same thing. Base lexicon (or base) may contain affixes (prefixes and suffixes).

Base or base lexicon is a form to which an affix (prefix or suffix) may be added or adjoined. Base lexicons (or bases) are similar to stem lexicon (or stems) but have no lexical meaning. All roots are bases, but not all bases are roots because roots are monomorphemic. For several lexicons in English, root = base = stem, for example, *cat, dog, see, happy, run, hope, over, gray, up, that, if, under*, etc.

In the lexicon "*refrigerator*," it can be broken down into several morphs (many parts of a lexicon): *re-frig-er-at-or*, and the root of base is "*frig*." When the suffix "*-er*" is added to the root "*frig*," it becomes a base "*friger*." When the prefix "*re-*" is added to the base "*friger*," it

is not a lexicon nor has lexical meaning, so that it is still a base “refriger.” When the suffix “-ate” is added to the base “refriger,” it becomes a lexicon and is a verb stem “refrigerate,” but it is also a base because an affix can be added to a base, for example, *refrigerator*, *refrigerated*, *refrigerates*, *refrigerating*.

Stems or Stem Lexicons

Stem differs partially from root in that stem must have lexical meaning and root has no lexical meaning. Stem may contain derivational affixes. For example, the lexicons “prefer, defer, infer, differ, offer, rebel, delay” are the stems or stem lexicons because these lexicons are composed of the prefixes (*pre-*, *de-*, *in-*, *dif-*, *of-*, *re-*, *de-*) and the roots (*fer*, *bel*, *lay*). Sometimes, each lexicon from in the same set is also called a stem, for example, *car*, *book*, *buy*, *sell*, *eat*, *type*, *run*, *play*, *dog*, *pen*, *mouse*, *cow*, etc. A root, sometimes, may occur with one or more prefixes or suffixes to form the stems, for example, *defer*, *infer*, *offer*, *stupid*, *stupor*, *stupendous*, *stupefy*, *rigid*, *rigor*, *frigid*, *frigate*, *refrigerate*, *comic*, *comedy*, etc.

Key Features of Roots, Bases, and Stems

- Root = base = stem: hand, see, radio, window, finger, house
- Base + derivational affix or stem extender = base: frig-er, re-friger
- Base + derivational affix or stem extender = base = lexeme (stem): stup-id, frig-id, lion-ess, duck-ling, room-ette, refriger-ate,
- Stem + inflectional affix = lexicon form: hand+s, see+s, radio+s, finger+s, house+s, lion+ess+es, town+ship+s, wash+er+s
- Stem + derivational affix = lexicon form: refrigerat-or, stupendous-ness, sturdy-ness, construct-ion, destruct-ion, infer-ence, differ-ent

4.6 Affixes

Affix is a group of letters that are added to the initial or final of a Latin or Greek root, a root/base lexicon, or stem lexicon to create a new lexicon. For example, *receive*, *unhappy*, *happiness*, *unhappiness*, *deceive*, *impossible*, etc. The affixes are subcategorized into two kinds, such as prefix and suffix.

Prefixes

Prefix is a group of letters that are added to the initial of a Latin or Greek root, a root/base lexicon, or stem lexicon to form a new lexicon. For example, *incorrect*, *reconsider*, *illiberal*, *non-literal*, *destroy*, *irregular*, etc. The common prefixes include *dis-*, *il-*, *ir-*, *im-*, *in-*, *mis-*, *non-*, *un-*, *de-*, *re-*, *anti-*, *en-*, *em-*, *fore-*, *inter-*, *mid-*, *pre-*, *-over-*, *sub-*, *trains-*, *co-*, etc.

Suffixes

Suffix is a group of letters that are added to the final of a Latin or Greek root, a root/base lexicon, or stem lexicon to create a lexicon. For example, *changeable*, *readable*, *sensibility*, *sensitive*, *understandable*, *facial*, *golden*, *helpful*, *motion*, etc. The common suffixes include *-able/-ible*, *-al/ial*, *-ed*, *-en*, *-ing*, *-er/-or/-ar*, *-est*, *-ful*, *-ic/-ical*, *-ive/-ative/-itive*, *-ion/-sion/-*

tion/-ation, -ity/-ty, -ly, -less, -ness, -ment, -ous/-ious/-eous, -s/-es, -y, -ology/-logy, -ish, -ist, -hood, -dom, -ice, -ify/-fy, -graph/-graphy, -crat, -ate, -ique, -ette, etc.

4.7 Lexical Formation Processes

Lexicon formation process is the way of creating new lexicons by adding affixes (prefixes and suffixes) and using the existing lexicons. In English linguistics, lexicon formation is the process of English morphology. The lexicon formation consists of several processes to create new lexicons, including compounding, blending, derivation, inflection, borrowing, clipping, initialism, calquing, converting, suppletion/umlaut/ablaut, invention, eponym, back lexicon deriving, cliticization, reanalysis, analogy, etymology, novel creation, and creative respelling.

Compounding

Compounding process is a way of lexicon formation, in which it creates new lexicon by joining of two separate lexicons into a single form to indicate something new, having different meaning from the two separate lexicons. For example, email, wallpaper, mailman, fireplace, fireplug, e-ticket, cupcake, talking-to, clockwork, dry run, cup holder, etc. Notice that rhyming compound is a subtype of compounding process, which compounds two rhyming lexicons. For example, lovely-dovey, chiller-killer, pitter-patter, zigzag, tick-tock, riffraff, flip-flop, etc.

Blending

Blending process is a way of forming new lexicons by blending the two separate forms of lexicons to create a single new term. Blending process is typically accomplished by taking only the initial of one lexicon (first lexicon) and joining it to the initial or final of the other lexicon (second lexicon). For example, breakfast + lunch > brunch, swoosh + swastika > swooshtika, modulator + demodulator > modem, glitter + literati > glitterati, smoke + fog > smog, formula + translation > FORTRAN, moter + hotel > motel, spam + blog > splog, etc.

Derivation

Derivational process is a way of creating lexicons by using an affix (prefix or suffix) to build a lexicon with a meaning or category, in which it is distinct from its root or base. In morphological derivation, a lexicon that is attached to an affix (prefix or suffix) will change the lexical meaning or lexical category. For example, advertisement, construction, devoice, rebuild, impolite, incredible, noticeable, readable, classify, nonsense, beforehand, etc.

Inflection

Inflectional process is the morphological process in which it adds grammatical information to existing lexicons. It means that inflection is a process of adding grammatical information to existing lexicon by placing the suffix (-s, -es, 's, -ed, -en, -ing) at the end of a lexicon to express the plurality of nominative-lexicon form, verbal singularity of present tense with third person singular, past tense of verb, past participle, possessive, and present participle or gerund. Noticeably, inflectional process is a way of adding a suffix to a lexicon without any

change of lexical class and meaning. Here are examples as follow: cows, matches, lectured, wives, provided, children, coming, classes, kisses, Dr. THAN's car, etc.

Borrowing

Borrowing process is a way of forming lexicons by adopting or borrowing lexicons from other language with the ideas or concepts they stand for. Borrowing is also called loan-lexicon. For example, borrowing from Spanish: tango, mango; French: fiancé, very; Italian: pizza, mafia; German: ozone, boxer; Turkish: jacket, yogurt, kiosk; Czech: robot, and so on.

Clipping

Clipping process is a way of forming lexicon, in which it consists in reduction of a lexicon to one of its part. Clipping process is also called shorting process of creating lexicon by reducing the part of a lexicon. Clipping process mainly consists of five types, such initial clipping, final clipping, medial clipping, initial-final clipping, and complex clipping. For example, coon (raccoon), pub (public), fancy (fantasy), tec (detective), op art (optical art), linocut (linoleum cut), cap (captain), vet (veteran), lab (laboratory), tick (ticket), etc.

Initialism

Initialism is a process of creating lexicon, in which it is an abbreviation in form by taking the initial letters of a lexicon or phrase. Initialism process is also called acronym process to form a lexicon by abbreviating the initial letters of a lexicon or phrase. Generally, initialism is written without spaces or periods between them (initial letters). Initialism is pronounced as a lexicon or a series of letters. For example, UV (ultraviolet), WiFi (wireless fidelity), CNN (cable news network), DVD (digital versatile disc), NATO (North Atlantic Treaty Organization), USAID (United States Agency for International Development), etc.

Calquing

Calquing is a lexicon or phrase that is borrowed from another language by literal lexicon-for-lexicon or root-for-root translation. In linguistics, a calquing is also known as loan translation, which is a word or phrase borrowed from another language, and it can be reviewed as a lexicon-for-lexicon translation from one language into another. The term "calquing" is borrowed lexicon and derives from French verb "calquer," meaning "copy." Typically, borrowing a word or phrase from another language refers to the process of translating its components to create a new lexeme in the target language, for example, skyscraper (French: grate-ciel), etc.

Back lexicon deriving

Back lexicon deriving is a process of creating a new lexicon by back-forming (removing) actual or supposed prefixes or suffixes from a derivational lexicon. Back lexicon deriving is also called back-formation or back-derivation. For example, resurrect (from resurrection), burgle (from burglar), opine (from opinion), insert (from insertion), project (from projection), etc.

Converting

Converting is the process of lexicon formation, in which it changes the function or part of speech of a lexicon without the addition of an affix (prefix or suffix). Converting is also called null derivation or functional shift that consists of the functional change of a lexicon without supplement of an affix. Converting typically is made from **noun to verb** and from **verb to noun**, and it, less frequently, is done from **adjective to verb**, **adjective to noun**, **adjective to adverb**, and **preposition to adverb**. For example, noun to verb: access, name, shape; verb to noun: alert, cover, hope; adjective to verb: slow, correct, black; adjective to noun: crazy, nasty; adjective to adverb: wrong, fast, right, and preposition to adverb: below, about, above, etc.

Suppletion, Umlaut, and Ablaut

Suppletion is a lexicon formation process in which the use of two or more phonologically varied root/base lexicons is distinct in form of the same lexicon. For example, *good – better, she – her, am – is, they – them, do – did, make – made*, etc. In contrast to suppletion, umlaut is a process of creating lexicon, in which it indicates a change of vowel sound in a lexicon of a language. For example, *louse – lice, tooth – teeth, goose – geese*, etc. However, ablaut is a process of forming lexicon, in which it shows the morpheme internal change of the same lexicon. For example, *sink – sank – sunk, ring – rang – rung*, etc.

12 Invention

Invention is a morphological process of inventing new lexicon. Invention is also called coinage. The trademark-names of certain commercial-products are adopted by the people become the everyday lexicon of a language. Here are examples as follow: Honda, Apple, iPad, Heroin, Aspirin, Nylon, Band-Aid, Videotape, Vaseline, Kerosene, Aqua, etc.

Eponyms

Eponym is a process of forming lexicon, in which a proper noun becomes commonly used for an idea that it is associated with, by changing its part of speech. In linguistics, eponym is a word that is created by using the name of person, place, or thing, for example, *Achilles, Queen Victoria, Amerigo Vespucci, Xerox, Orwellian, stentorian*, etc.

Reanalysis

Reanalysis is a process of creating lexicon, in which it refers to changing the morphological boundaries of a lexicon, creating a new morph, or making an old one unrecognizable. For example, hamburger steak → hamburger → hamburger + er → ham + burger, passer by → passerby, etc.

Analogy

Analogy is a process of creating lexicon, in which it takes an existing lexicon as a model and form other lexicons by using some of its morphemes as a fixed part, and changing one of them to something new, with an analogically similar meaning. For example, cheeseburger

(analogy of hamburger is Cheeseburger because a perceived morpheme “ham” is replaced with “cheese”), carjack, skyjack, etc.

Folk Etymology

Folk etymology is a popular idea of a lexicon’s origin, in which it is not in accordance with its real origin. Folk etymology is also called popular etymology. Several etymologies are the cases of reanalysis in which the lexicon is not only reanalysis, but it changes under the influence of new understanding of its morphemes. In English linguistics, etymology is the study of the lexicons’ origin and the way in which their meanings have changed and developed throughout history. For example, in the lexicon *Hamburger*, the origin of a lexicon is *Hamburg*.

However, folk etymology refers to a change in a lexicon or phrase that is resulted from the replacement of an unfamiliar form by a more familiar one. The form or the meaning of an archaic, foreign, or unfamiliar lexicon is reinterpreted as resembling more familiar lexicons or morphemes. For example, sparrowgrass (Greek: asparagus), hamburger (ham + burger), destruct (de + struct), crayfish, etc.

Novel Creation

Novel creation refers to the process of creating lexicons, in which a writer forms a lexicon without starting from other morphemes. Here are examples of novel creations as follow: blimp, googol (mathematical term), bling, and possibly slang. Novel creations, sometimes, seem to display sound symbolism, in which the phonological form of a lexicon suggests its meaning in some way. For example, the sound of the lexicon *bling* seems to evoke heavy jewelry making noise. Another novel creation in which the sound seems to relate to its meaning is badonkadonk (means the female rear end), a reduplicated lexicon that can remind English speakers of the repetitive movement of the rear end while walking. The possibly slang of novel creation like hooters refers to the North American slang for women’s breasts.

Creative Respelling

Creative respelling is the process of lexicon formation, in which a lexicon is formed by simply changing the spelling that the speaker wants to relate to the new lexicon. In English linguistics, creative respelling is a lexicon formation in which it alters letter(s) of a lexicon. Product names most commonly involve creative respelling, such as Mr. Kleen (clean).

4.8 Morphological Processes

Morphological process is the lexicon formation that affects roots and stems and which leads to the creation of new lexicons. In English linguistics, morphological process refers to the change of a stem to adjust its meaning to fit its syntactic and communicational context in the case of deriving new lexicon, and it may change the lexical meaning (derivational) or grammatical function (inflectional). There are various types of morphological processes,

such as affixation, compounding, shorting, modification (or symbolization), reduplication, cliticization, neologism, language borrowing, morphological misanalysis, and functional shift.

Affixation

Affixation is a morphological process, in which the lexicon is formed by adding an affix (prefix or suffix) to the root/base lexicon. Root/base lexicon refers to the free morpheme that can be a stand-alone lexicon. Affix refers to the bound morpheme that can appear by itself, but cannot be attached to the free morpheme, and it may be either inflectional affix or derivational affix. Inflectional affix is used to modify the grammatical category of a lexicon, that is, it modifies the number, person, tense, gender, case, etc. For example, *phones*, *works*, *determined*, *Ben's book*, etc. Conversely, derivational affix is used to modify the part of speech of the root/base lexicon by attaching an affix (prefix or suffix) to the root/base lexicon while leaving the functional or grammatical category unchanged. Here are examples: *worker*, *accountant*, *presentation*, *useful*, *correctness*, *practice*, *committee*, etc.

Affixations subcategorized into four types, such as *prefixation*, *suffixation*, *infixation*, and *circumfixation*. Prefixation is a morphological process, in which the lexicons are created by attaching a prefix to the initial of a lexicon, for example, *undo*, *redo*, *dislike*, *impossible*, *beyond*, etc. Suffixation is a morphological process, in which the lexicons are constructed by attaching a suffix to the final of a lexicon, for example, *fairness*, *placement*, *centralize*, *useless*, *sacrifice*, etc. Circumfixation is a morphological process, in which the lexicon is formed by adding a prefix to the initial of the root/base lexicon or stem and a suffix to the final of root/base lexicon or stem, for example, *impossibly*, *rewriting*, *disability*, *dislikeable*, *disconnected*, etc. Infixation is a morphological process, in which the lexicon is made up by inserting an affix within a root/base lexicon or stem, for example, *spoonsful*, *abso-bally-lutely*, *h-iz-ouse*, *edu-ma-cation*, *mother-in-law*, etc.

Compounding

Compounding is a morphological process, in which the lexicon is formed by compounding two or more stems. Compounding may have similar or different meaning of its component in isolation. The component of compounding may be the same or different part of speech. For example, *football*, *blackbird*, *shopping mall*, *a singing girl*, *press conference*, etc.

Shorting

Shorting is a morphological process of forming the lexicons, in which it creates new lexicons by shorting the lexicons. Shorting process can be considered as blending, clipping, acronym, abbreviation, and back lexicon deriving. For example, **clipping**: *advertisement* > *ad*, **blending**: *mock* + *cocktail* > *mocktail*, **acronym**: *UNICEF* (*United Nations Children's Fund*), **back lexicon deriving**: *destruct* (*destruction*), **abbreviation**: *ITV* (*independent television*), etc.

Modification or Symbolization

Modification is a morphological process, in which the new lexicon is formed by changing the morpheme-internal alternation or replacing lexicon-internal segments (two consonants or vowels). Modification is also called symbolization or morpheme-internal alternation, in which it indicates the grammatical function of a lexicon. As a result, it focuses on the inflection: singular / plural, present / past or past participle, verb / noun. For example, *man* → *men*, *ring* → *rang* → *rung*, *tooth* → *teeth*, *proof* → *prove*, *breath* → *breathe*, *am* → *is*, etc. Modifications are subcategorized into four main types, including morpheme-vowel modification (umlaut and ablaut), morpheme-consonant modification, mixed modification, and suppletion (total modification).

a. Morpheme-Vowel Modification

Morpheme-vowel modification is a morphological process of modification, in which the internal vowel(s) of a morpheme is altered to indicate the grammatical function of a lexicon. For example, *goose* → *geese*, *ox* → *oxen*, *louse* → *lice*, *swim* → *swam* → *swum*, etc. Morpheme-vowel modification is also called internal-vowel alternation, and it can be umlaut or ablaut. Umlaut is a morphological process of vowel-internal modification, which shows the alternation of vowel in a lexicon or addition of ending “-(r)en” to a lexicon, for example, *foot* → *feet*, *child* → *children*, *woman* → *women*, etc. Ablaut is a morphological process of vowel-internal modification or alternation, in which it indicates the variation of vowel change in the same root/base lexicon, for example, *begin* → *began* → *begun*, etc.

b. Morpheme-Consonant Modification

Morpheme-consonant modification is a morphological process of modification, in which it changes the final consonant of a lexicon while creating a new verbal lexicon from the nominative-lexicon. Meanwhile, it changes the phoneme /θ/ to /ð/, /f/ to /v/, /s/ to /z/, /s/ to /d/, and /t/ to /d/. For example, *mouth* → *mouth*, *sheath* → *sheathe*, *wreath* → *wreathe*, *belief* → *believe*, *grief* → *grieve*, *proof* → *prove*, *advice* → *advise*, *device* → *dives*, *house* → *house*, *use* → *use*, *defence* (defense) → *defend*, *offence* → *offend*, *bent* → *bend*, *ascent* → *ascend*, *descent* → *descend*, etc.

c. Mixed Modification

Mixed modification is a morphological process of modification, consisting in replacing more than one segment of a lexicon. For example, present – past: *seek* → *sought*, *catch* → *caught*, *teach* → *taught*; verb – noun: *live* → *life*, *both* → *bathe*, *breath* → *breathe*, *cloth* → *clothe*, etc.

d. Suppletion

Suppletion is a morphological process of modification, in which it refers to the use of two or more phonetically varied root/base lexicons for various forms of the same lexicons. Suppletion is also called total modification. In English linguistics, suppletion refers to the

complete alternation in the form of a root/base lexicon or in the replacement of a root/base lexicon by another irrelevant root/base lexicon with the same component of meaning in differentiated grammatical functions or contents. For example, good → better → best, go → went → gone, am → is, was → were, this → these, she → her, that → those, etc.

Notice that it is essential to point out that the new lexicon that are created by the process of morpheme-internal modification (symbolization) are commonly centralized as the irregular forms and have become as a result of historical alternation of the language development.

Reduplication

Reduplication is a morphological process, in which new lexicon is formed with repetition of all or part of a root/base lexicon or stem. Reduplications are broken down into two types, such as complete reduplication and partial reduplication. Complete reduplication refers to the process of forming the new lexicon with the repetition of the entire root/base lexicon or stem, and the new lexicon is considered as the repetitive compound like bye-bye. Partial reduplication refers to the process of creating new lexicon by repeating a part of a root/base lexicon or stem like walkie-talkie or criss-cross. Notice that the constituents of partial reduplication may differ in the initial consonant or in the medial vowel.

There are four features of reduplication in English linguistics, as the following:

- To imitate sounds, for example, ha-ha (of laughter), bow-wow (of dog), etc.
- To suggest changing movements, for example, see saw, ping-pong, flip-flop, etc.
- To disparage by suggesting instability, nonsense, etc., for example, dilly-dally, willy-nilly, wishy-washy, higgledy-piggledy, silly-shally, etc.
- To intensify, for example, teeny-weeny, tip-top, etc.

Cliticization

Cliticization is a morphological process, in which the new lexicon is formed with the clitic. Clitic is a type of bound morpheme that may be appended to a stand-alone lexicon. In English linguistics, clitic is a lexicon or lexicon part that is structurally dependent on the surrounding lexicon (its host or neighboring lexicon), and it cannot stand alone by itself. Clitics are subcategorized into four types, such as enclitic, proclitic, mesoclitic, and endoclititic. Enclitic is a clitic that is attached to the end/final of its host or base lexicon. For example, I'm (I am), she's (she is/has), don't (do not), we've (we have), we'll (we will), she'd (she would/had), etc. Proclitic is a clitic that is attached to the initial/beginning of its host or base lexicon. For example, d'you (do you) 'tis (it is), y'all (you all), etc. Mesoclitic is a clitic that appears in the medial of its host. For example, I'll give it, he'd kill her, she'll give it to me, etc. Endoclititic is a clitic of morphological process to form new lexicon, in which it and is inserted between the two pieces or occurs within a lexicon. For example, it'sn't yours, they didn't leave yet, he'sn't a student, etc.

Neologism

Neologism is a morphological process, in which it creates new lexicon with new meaning of existing lexicon. In linguistics, neologism is about the newly coined lexicon/expression or the coining/use of new lexicon. Neologisms can be subclassified into several types, such as *new coinage*, *lexical derivation*, *collocation*, *eponym*, *phrasal lexicon*, *internationalism*, and *transferred lexicon*.

a. Coinages

New coinage is a neologism of morphological process, in which it refers to a brand new lexicon created by commercial trade names. Here are examples: Honda, iPad, Laundromat, iPhone, Galaxy, Toyota, Kubota, Mitsubishi, etc.

b. Lexical Derivations

Lexical derivation is a neologism of morphological process, in which the new lexicon is derived from another pre-existing lexicon by attaching an affix (prefix or suffix). For example, advertiser, billionaire, receive, etc. Blending is centralized as lexical derivation, for example, oillionnaire (oil billionaire), steellionnaire (steel billionaire), etc.

c. Collocations

Collocation is considered the morphological process, in which it is a lexicon combination or a series of lexicons that co-occurs with the natural sound English. For example, bright idea, talk freely, fast food, the fast train, a quick meal, a quick shower, heavy rain, etc.

d. Eponyms

Eponym is neologism of morphological process, in which a new lexicon is formed from the proper noun. The eponyms can be a person, place, or thing that is named. For example, boycott, Columbia, stentorian, sandwich, Victorian, Alzheimer's disease, Xerox, etc.

e. Phrasal Lexicons

Phrasal lexicon is a morphological process, in which it is restricted to English facility in converting verb to nominative, for example, workout, trade-off, checkout, etc.

f. Transferred Lexicons

Transferred lexicon is a morphological process, in which it keeps only one sense of its foreign nationality, and it the lexicon whose meaning is dependent on its context. In English linguistics, transferred lexicon is a neologism of morphological process, in which a new lexicon is derived from other languages. For example, herbs (French: herbes), kiosk (French: kiosque), cliché, fiancé, résumé, etc.

g. Internationalism

Internationalism is a neologism of morphological process, in which a new lexicon is created with the international lexicon sound, for example, physics: quark, computer term: byte or

bite, etc. Sometimes, acronym is characterized as the internationalism, for example, UN, OPEC, IMF, UNICEF, USAID, etc.

Language Borrowing

Language borrowing is a morphological process, borrowing from other source language. In linguistics, language borrowing refers to the word originated in one language to be used in another language. Typically, language borrowing is the process of adopting lexicons (words) from a source language into the native language. Language borrowing (loan), of course, is the metaphor, being illiteral lending process, being no transferred from one language to another, and having no returning lexicons to the source language. There are four subtypes of language borrowing, such as *loan-lexicon*, *loan-shift*, *loan translation*, and *loan-blend*.

a. Loan-Lexicon

Loan-lexicon refers to the language borrowing, which create a new lexicon by adopting or borrowing from another language. Loan-lexicon can also be called loanword, borrowed term, or borrowing. For example, tango, taco (from Spanish), very café, garage (from French), pizza (from Italian), bazaar (from Persian), kindergarten (from German), etc.

b. Loan-Shift

Loan-shift are the alternation or extension of the lexical meaning of a lexicon through the influence of a foreign lexicon or another language. For example, pedal extremely (12- inch unit of length) under the influence of English term “foot.” Loan-shift, however, is a lexicon borrowed from another language in which the native morphemes have replaced some of the original ones in lexicon borrowing, for example, smearcase (from German: schmierkäse).

c. Loan Translation

Loan translation is a lexicon or phrase that borrowed from another language by literal root-for-root lexicon translation in terms to create new lexeme (lexicon) in the target language. Loan translation is also called calquing that means to borrow a lexicon or phrase from another language while translating its components, for example, skyscape (French: grateciel), flea market (French: marché aux puces), translate (Latin: transferō), etc.

d. Loan-Blend

Loan-blend is a form of language borrowing, in which one element is a borrowed term, and the other is a native element. Lona-blend is also called partial calque. In English linguistics, loan-blend refers to a lexicon that is created with the parts from different language. For example, monolingual (from Greek prefix: mono + Latin root: lingual), freeview (from Irish: saorview), preosthad (priesthood), etc.

Functional Shift

Functional shift is a morphological process, in which the new lexicon is constructed by the existing lexicon in the new functions (i.e. shifting, alternating, or converting the original

grammatical class to another class of an existing lexicon). Functional shift is also called zero derivation or conversion. For example, *water (noun) → water (verb)*, *plant (noun) → plant (verb)*, *garden (noun) → garden (verb)*, *correct (adjective) → correct (verb)*, etc.

a. Pronunciation Changes in Functional Shift

There are two ways of alternating pronunciation in functional shift, as the following:

- i. The final consonant phoneme is voiced in functional shift. The final consonant phonemes in some nominatives, such as unvoiced fricatives /f, s, θ/ are voiced to /v, z, ð/ in the verb form. Here are examples: *abuse /s/ → abuse /z/*, *advice /s/ → advise /z/*, *relief /f/ → relieve /v/*, *mouth /θ/ → mouth /ð/*. Besides voicing the final consonant of a lexicon, the pronunciation of the internal-vowel phoneme is substantially changed, for example, *breath /e/ → breathe /i:/*, *bath /æ or ɑ:/ → bathe /ei/*, *glass /æ or ɑ:/ → glaze /ei/*.
- ii. There are shift of stress and vowel reduction in functional shift. When two or more syllabic verbs are converted into the nominatives, the stressed syllable (primary stress) is shifted from the second to the first syllable. The first syllable, typically a Latin prefix of a lexicon, most often has the reduced vowel /ə or i/ in the verb form but a full vowel in the nominative form. In some case, the reduced vowel in the first syllable of the verb form may be pronounced as a full vowel. For example, *abstract (verb) → abstract (noun)*, *address (verb) → address (noun)*, *envelop (verb) → envelop (noun)*, etc. Notice that some disyllabic verb-nominative pairs have no difference in stress (syllable-final stress or syllable-initial stress), for example, *debate (n & v)*, *result (n & v)*, *contact (n & v)*, *process (n & v)*, etc.

b. Common Cases of Functional Shift

There are three common cases of functional shift in the morphological process, as follow:

- i. **Converting to nominative:** (a) from verbs, e.g., *answer*, *attempt*, *bet*, etc., (b) from adjectives, e.g., *bitter*, *comic*, *final*, (the) *ignorant*, (the) *poor*, etc., (c) from functional lexicons (prepositions, conjunctions, etc.), e.g., *but*, *down*, *if*, *how*, *why*, *a must*, etc., (d) from affixes, e.g., *isms*, etc., (e) from phrases, e.g., *also-rans*, *been-to*, etc.
- ii. **Converting to verbs:** (a) from nominatives, e.g., *baby*, *boat*, *brake*, *butter*, etc., (b) from adjectives, e.g., *calm*, *dirty*, *empty*, *lower*, *narrow*, *smooth out*, *weary*, *yellow*, etc.
- iii. **Converting to adjectives from nominative**, e.g., *brick*, *cotton*, *nylon*, *wool*, etc.

Morphological Misanalysis

Morphological misanalysis is the morphological process, in which the new morphemes or lexicons are introduced into the language due to an erroneous analysis of the structure of some lexicons. Morphological misanalysis is also called false etymology. For example, the suffix “burger” results from the misanalysis of the term *hamburger* (ham + burger). In fact,

the lexicon hamburger is a mono-morpheme lexicon and is short for Hamburger steak. The suffix “burger” is used to form new lexicons in which they refer to food types, for example, *cheeseburger, pizzaburger, salmonburger, steakburger*, etc.

Chapter Four

Realization of English Syntaxology

Objectives

This chapter helps learners realize the aspects of syntax in English linguistics, as would be discussed as the following:

- Lexical syntax (e.g., syntax of nominal compounds, verbal compounds, adjectival compounds, and adverbial compounds)
- Phrasal syntax (e.g., syntax of nominal phrases, verbal phrases, adjectival phrases, adverbial phrases, prepositional phrases, and participial phrases)
- Clausal syntax (syntax of nominal clauses, adjectival (relative) clauses , adverbial clauses, That-clauses, conditional clauses, and tag-clauses)
- Sentential syntax (e.g., syntax of simple sentence, compound sentence, complex sentence, and compound complex sentence)
- Endocentric syntactic construction and exocentric syntactic construction
- Syntax devices, such as word order, inflectional suffix, derivational suffix, and functional lexicons

Introduction to Realization of English Syntaxology

In English linguistics, learners should realize the English syntaxology. Talking about syntaxology, students or learners have to realize the vital aspects of English syntax, such as syntactic constructions, types of syntactic constructions, and syntactic devices. This chapter lets learners or students recognize how to pronounce English, what speech systems, and how to link or connect speech.

Unit 1

Syntactic Constructions

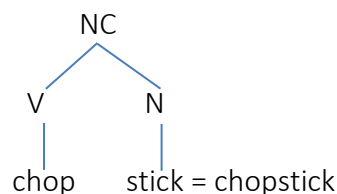
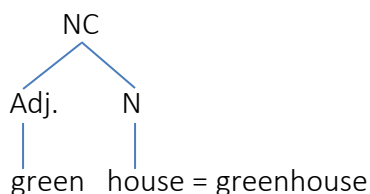
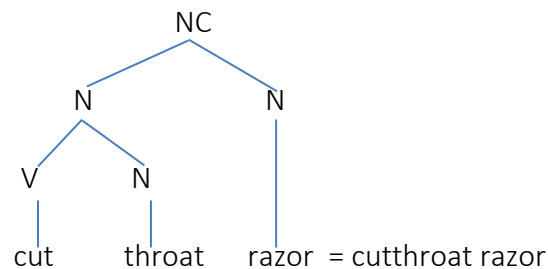
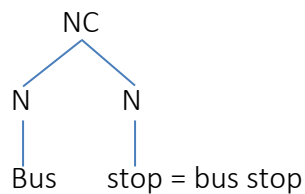
Syntax is the grammatical arrangement of lexicons (words) in a sentence of a language. Syntax is also called sentence structure, in which it is about the word order. In English linguistics, syntax is a syntactic construction in which it refers to the study of how lexicons arranged and combined to form the phrases, clauses, and sentences. Syntax can be lexical syntax, phrasal syntax, clausal syntax, or sentence syntax.

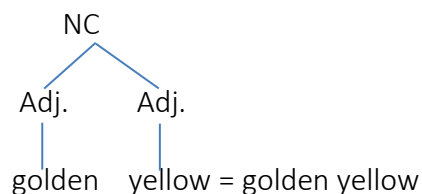
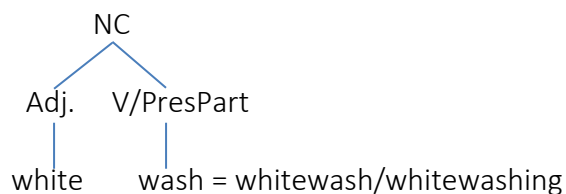
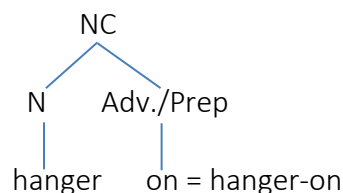
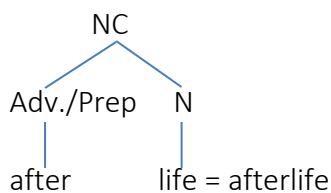
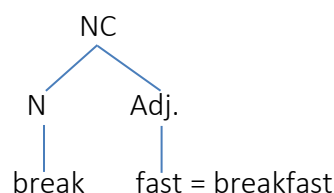
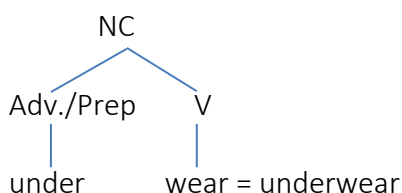
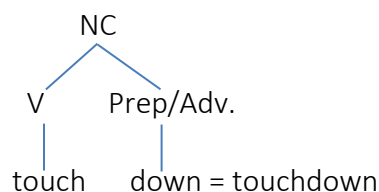
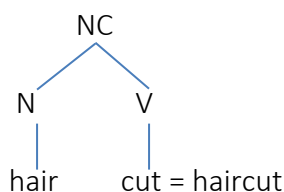
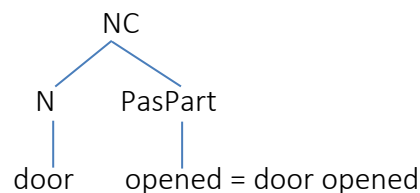
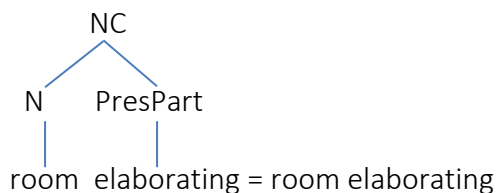
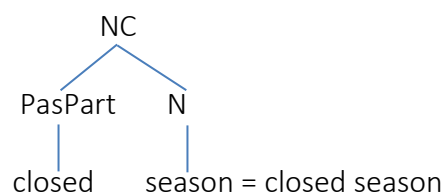
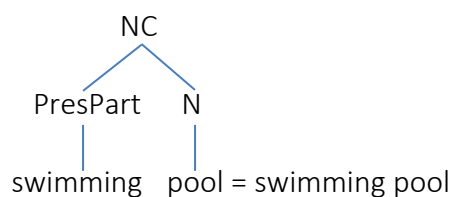
1.1 Lexical Syntax

Most commonly, lexical syntax is a regular language, with the grammatical rules consisting of regular expressions. Lexical syntax determines how a character sequence is split into a sequence of lexemes. In linguistics, lexical syntax is the structure of lexicons in a language. Lexical syntax can be nominal compound syntax, verbal compound syntax, adjectival compound syntax, adverbial compound syntax, and prepositional compound syntax.

Nominal Compound Syntax

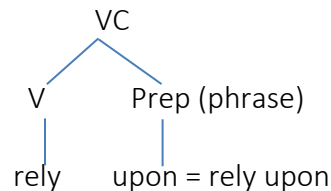
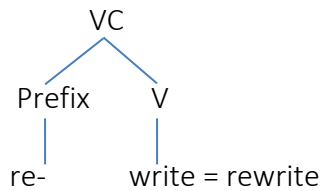
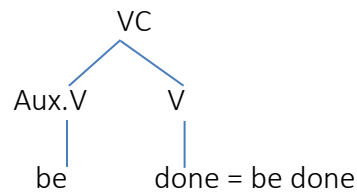
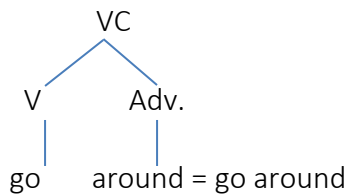
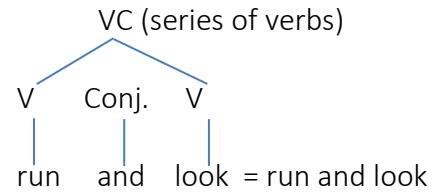
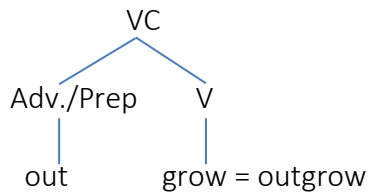
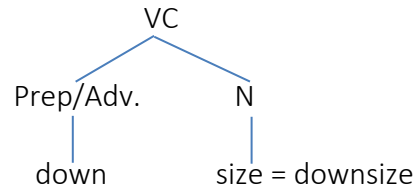
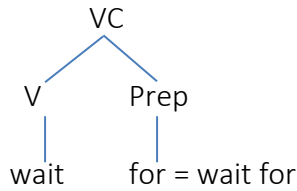
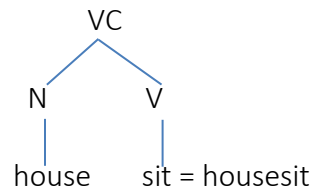
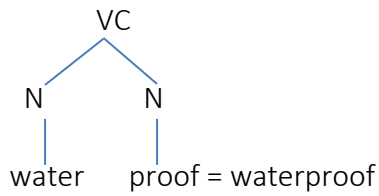
Nominal compound syntax refers to the structure of nominal compounds, which concerns the structure of compounding the nominals in a language. Nominal compounds (NC) are formed by noun + noun, adjective + noun, verb + noun, participle + noun, noun + verb, noun + participle, verb + adverb or preposition, adverb or preposition + verb, noun + adjective, preposition or adverb + noun, noun + adverb or preposition, adjective + verb or participle, adjective + adjective. Below are the trees of nominal compound syntax.





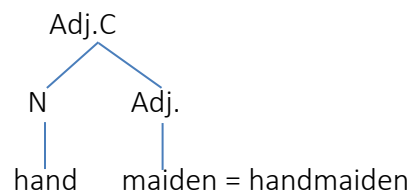
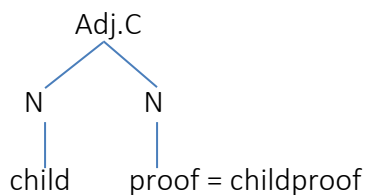
Verbal Compound Syntax

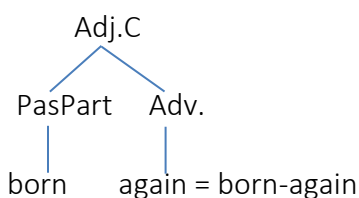
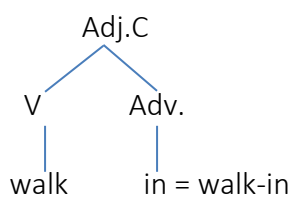
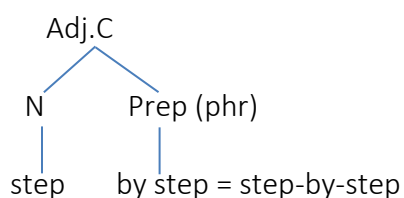
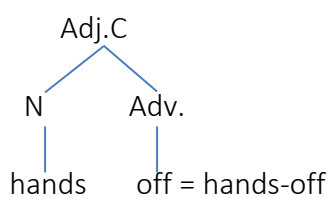
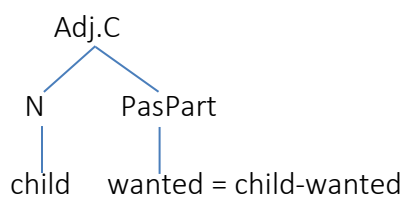
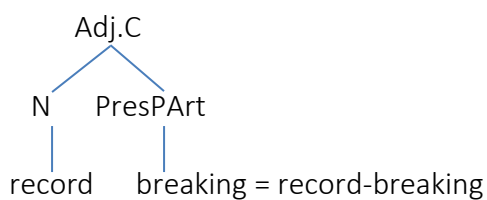
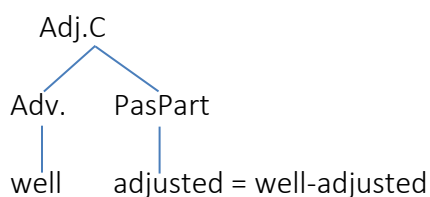
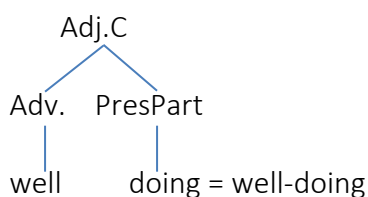
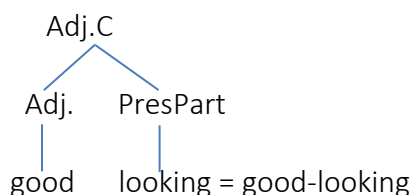
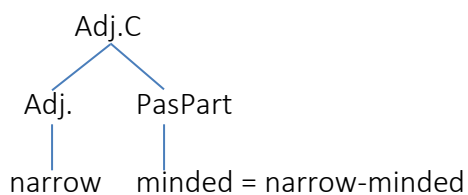
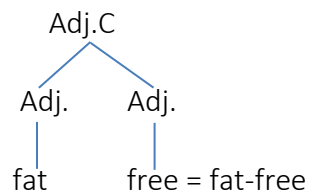
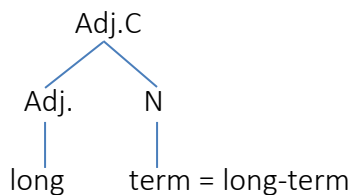
Verbal compound syntax refers to the structure of verb compounds, which elaborates on the structure of compounding verbs. Verb compounds (VC) are formed with the noun + noun, verb + preposition (phrase), series of verbs, adverb/preposition + noun/verb, verb + adverb, verb + noun/verb, and prefix + verb. Below are examples of verbal compound syntax.



Adjectival Compound Syntax

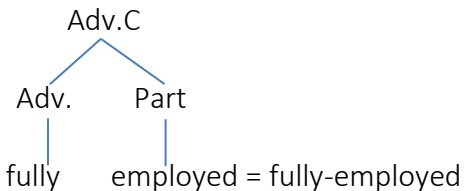
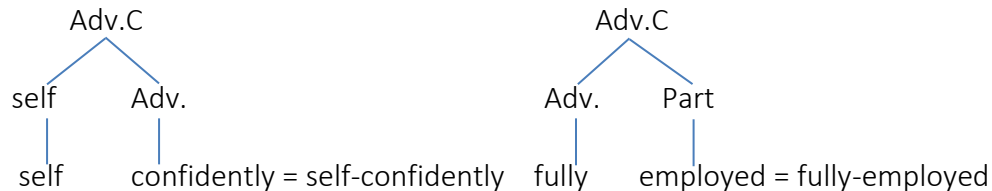
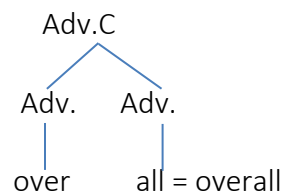
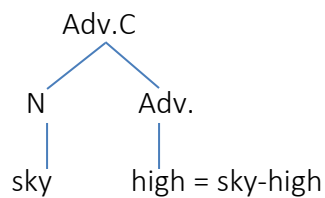
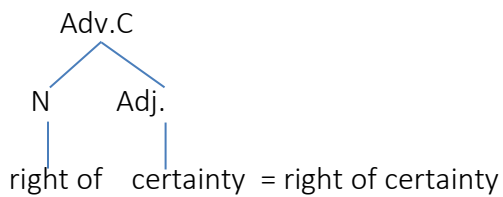
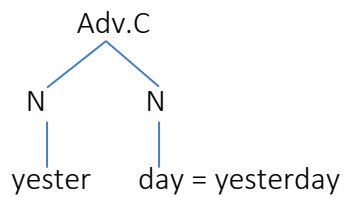
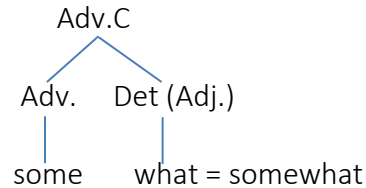
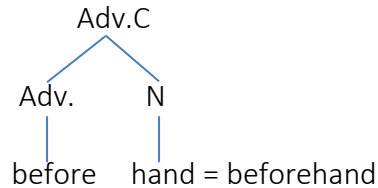
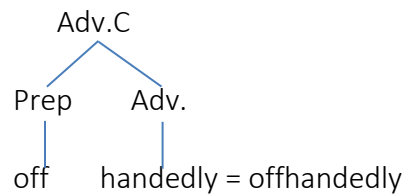
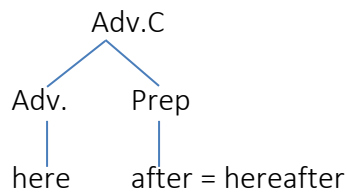
Adjectival compound syntax is the structure of adjectival compound, which highlights the structure of compound adjectives. Adjectival compounds (Adj.C) are formed with the noun + noun/adjective, adjective + noun/adjective, adjective + participle, adverb + participle, noun + participle, noun + adverb/preposition, and verb/participle + adjective.





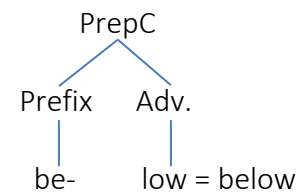
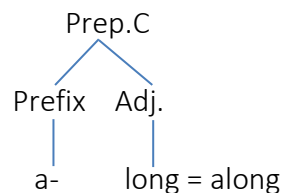
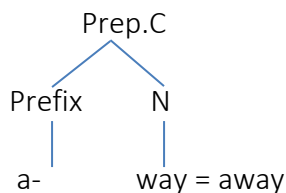
Adverbial Compound Syntax

Adverbial compound syntax refers to the structure of adverbial compounds, which indicates the structure of compounding adverbs. Adverbial compounds (Adv.C) are formed with the adverb+ preposition, preposition + adverb, adverb + noun/adjective, adverb + noun, noun + adverb, noun + noun/adjective, self + adverb, adverb + adverb, and adverb + participle.



Prepositional Compound Syntax

Prepositional compound syntax refers to the structure of prepositional compounds, which elaborates on the structure of compounding prepositions. Prepositional compounds (PrepC) are formed with the prefix + noun/adjective/adverb.



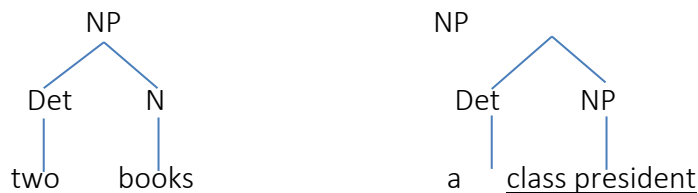
1.2 Phrasal Syntax

Phrasal syntax is the arrangement of how lexicons are grouped into phrases to construct a well-formed sentence with consisting of grammatical rules in a language. There are several types of phrasal syntax, such as nominal phrase syntax, verbal phrase syntax, adjectival phrase syntax, adverbial phrase syntax, prepositional phrase syntax, participial phrase syntax, infinitive phrase syntax, and gerundial phrase syntax.

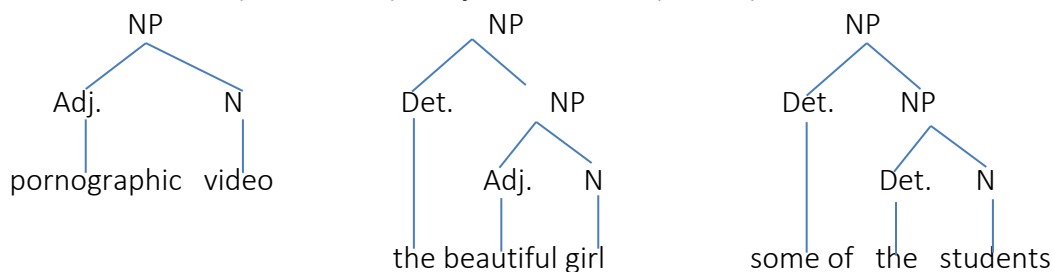
Nominal Phrase Syntax

Nominal phrase syntax is the structure of nominal phrases, which highlights the structure of grouping lexicons into the nominal phrases to form the well-formed sentence in a language. Nominal phrase (NP) consists of determiner, adjective, adverb, and noun, and it ends with a noun. There are numerous syntactic constructions of nominal phrases.

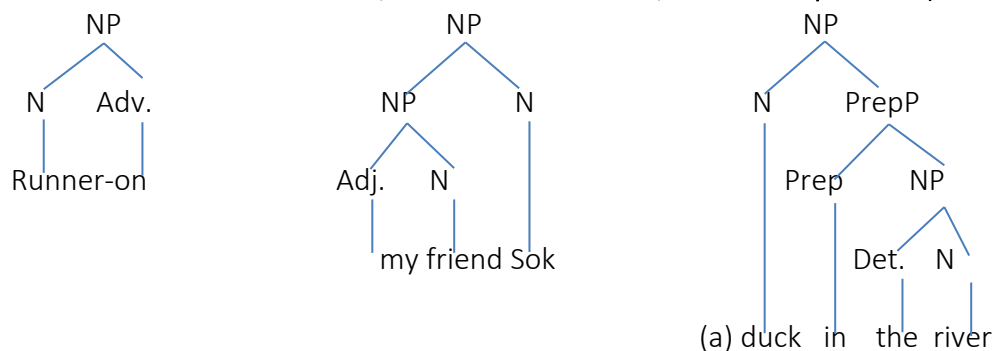
a. Nominal Phrase < Determiner + Noun (Phrase)



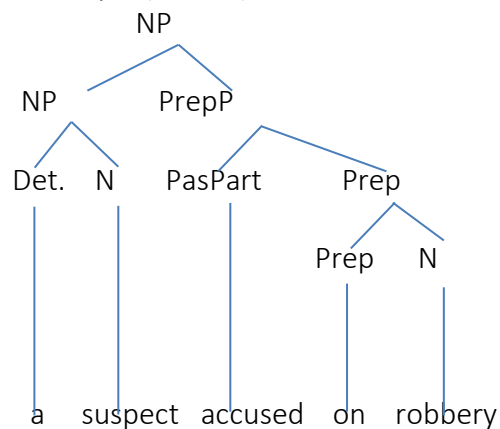
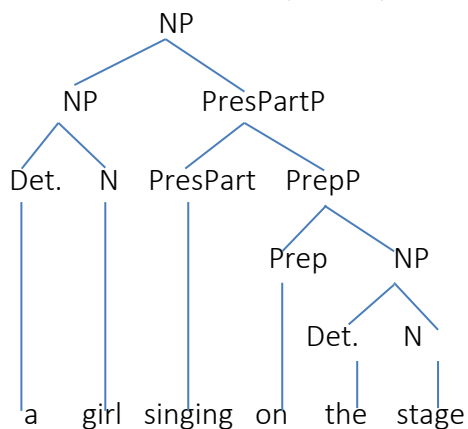
b. Nominal Phrase < (Determiner) + Adjective + Noun (Phrase)



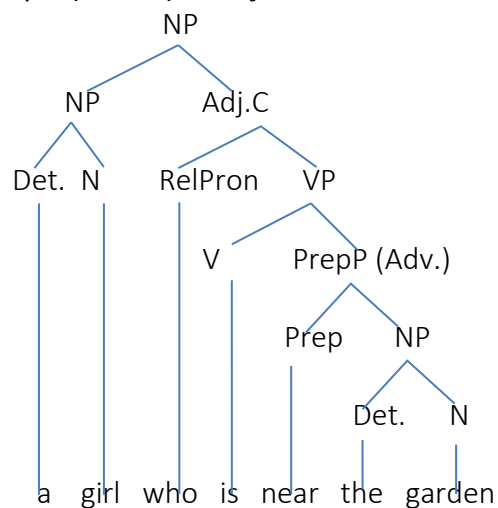
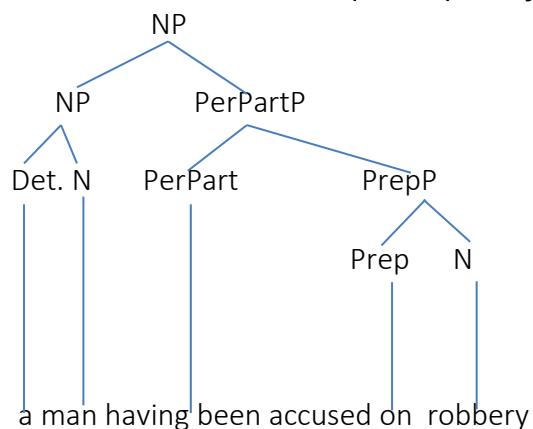
c. Nominal Phrase < Noun + Adverb, Noun Phrase + Noun, Noun + Preposition (Phrase)



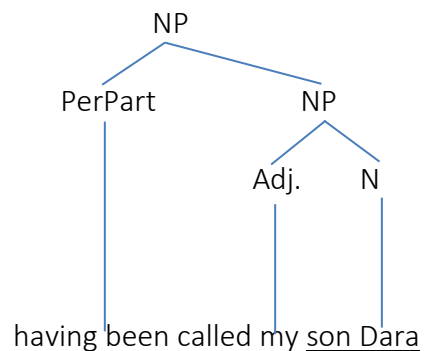
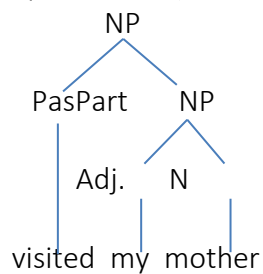
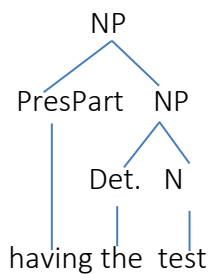
d. Nominal Phrase < Noun (Phrase) + Present/Past Participle (Phrase)



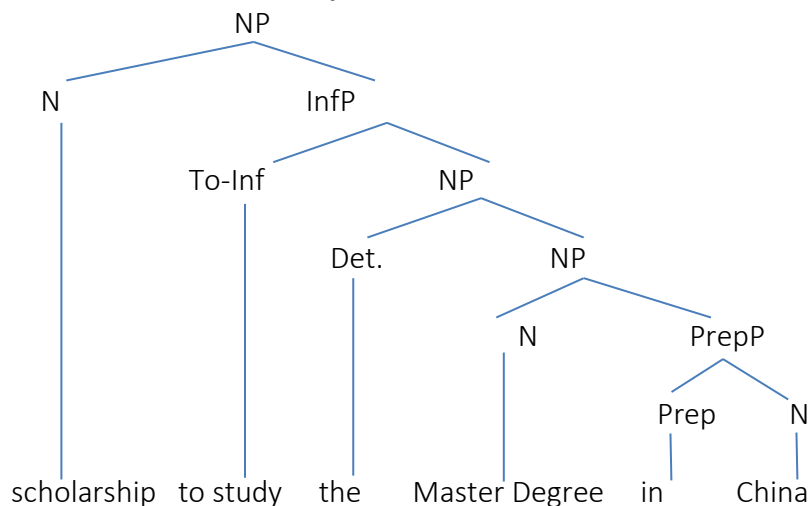
e. Nominal Phrase < Noun (Phrase) + Perfect Participle (Phrase) or Adjective Clause



f. Nominal Phrase < Participle + Noun (Phrase)



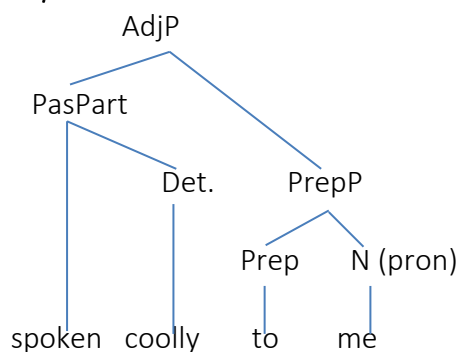
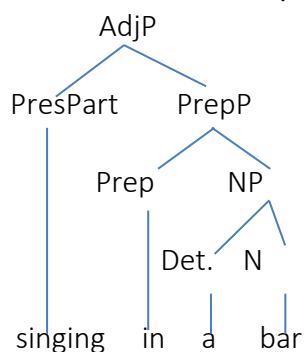
g. Nominal Phrase < Noun + Infinitive Phrase



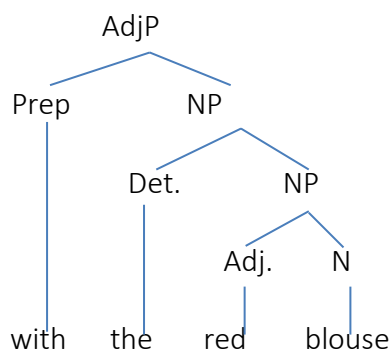
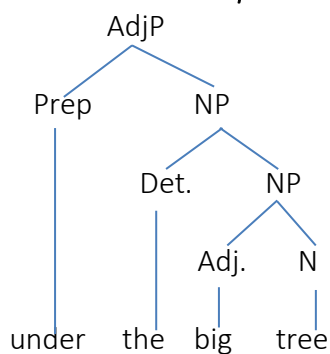
Adjectival Phrase Syntax

Adjectival phrase syntax refers to the structure of adjectival phrases, which points out the structure of combining lexicons into adjectival phrases. Adjectival phrase (AdjP) consists of preposition, participle, infinitive, adjective, or adverb.

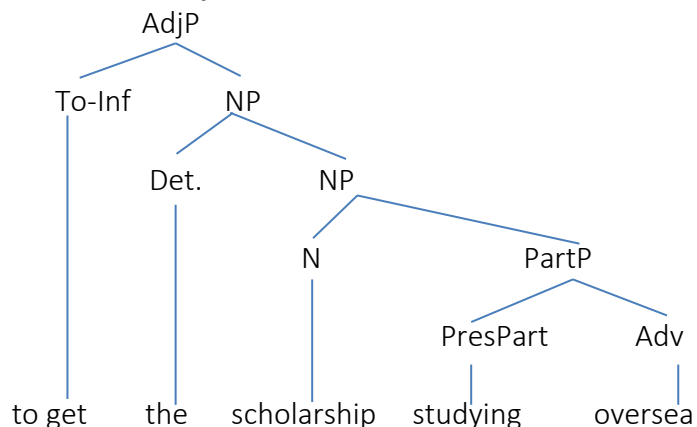
a. Adjectival Phrase < Present/Past Participle + Prepositional Phrase



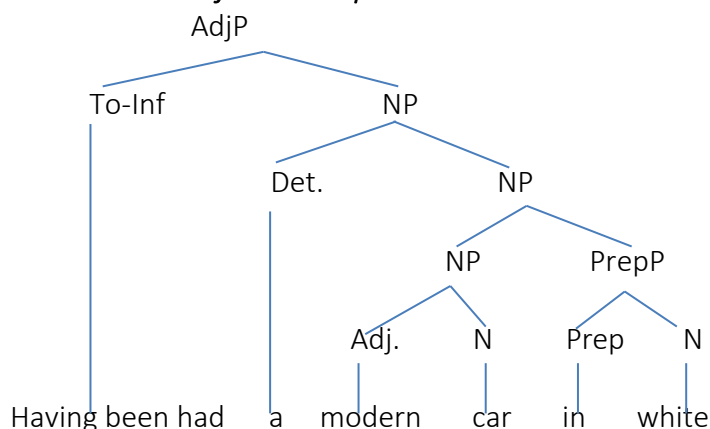
b. Adjectival Phrase < Preposition + Noun Phrase



c. Adjectival Phrase < Infinitive + Noun Phrase



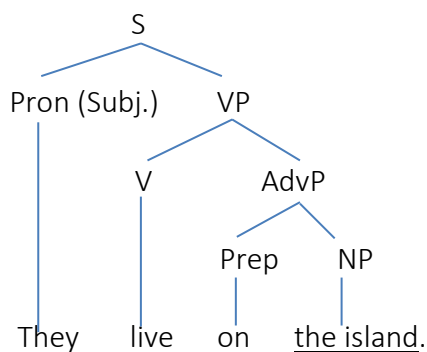
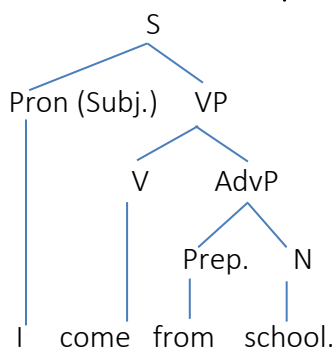
d. Adjectival Phrase < Perfect Participle + Noun Phrase



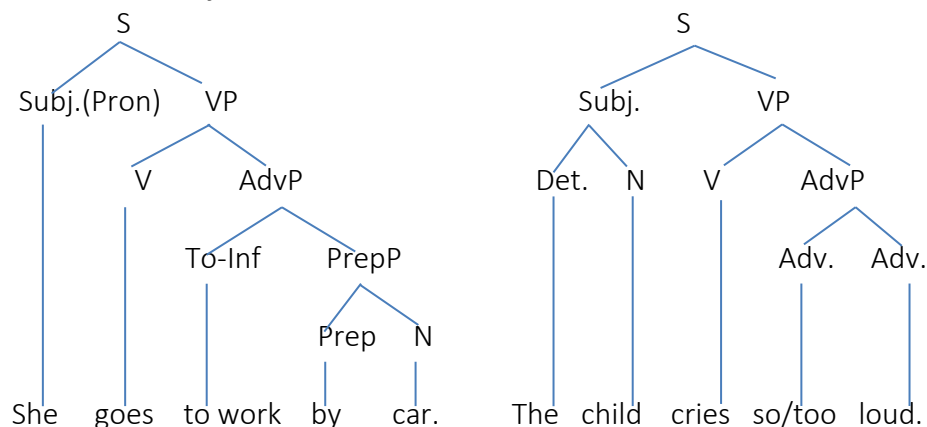
Adverbial Phrase Syntax

Adverbial phrase syntax is the structure of adverbial phrases, in which it elaborates on the structure of grouping lexicons into adverbial phrases. Adverbial phrase (AdvP) consists of adverb, preposition (phrase), or to-infinitive (phrase).

a. Adverbial Phrase < Preposition + Noun Phrase



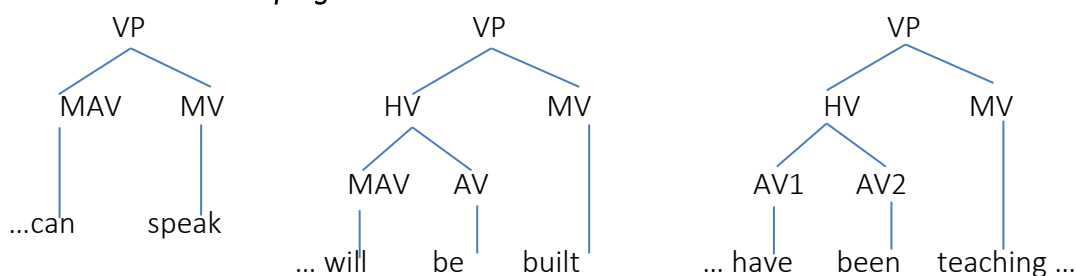
b. Adverbial Phrase < Infinitive Phrase, Adverb + Adverb



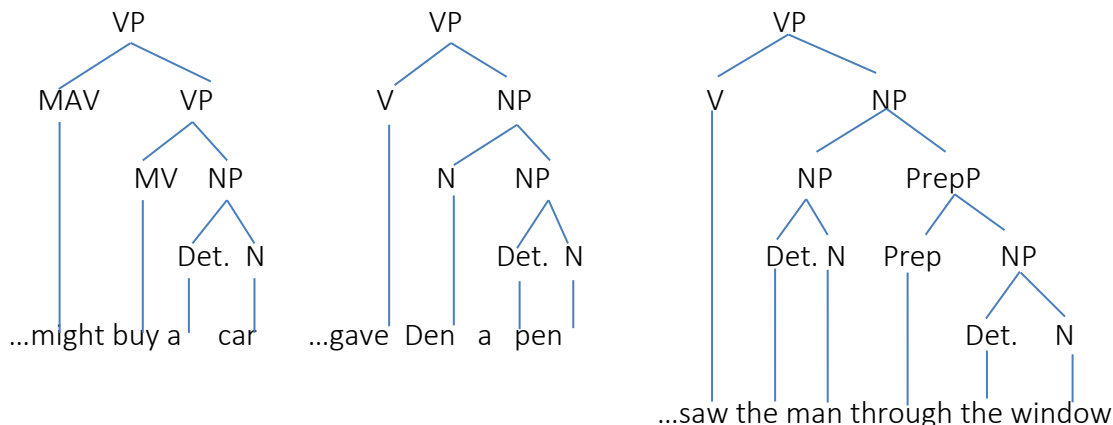
Verbal Phrase Syntax

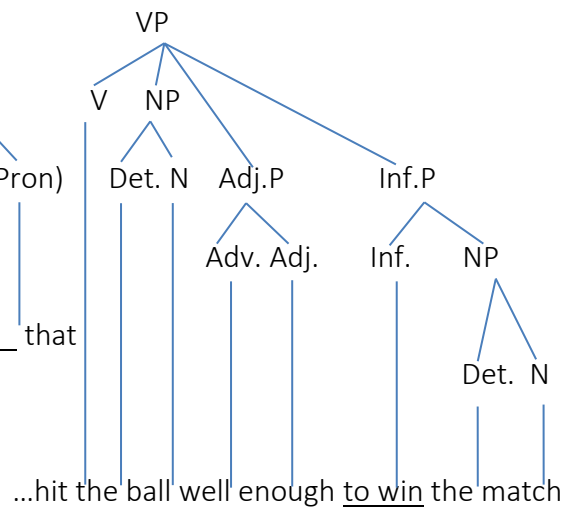
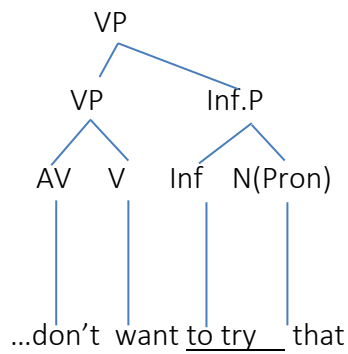
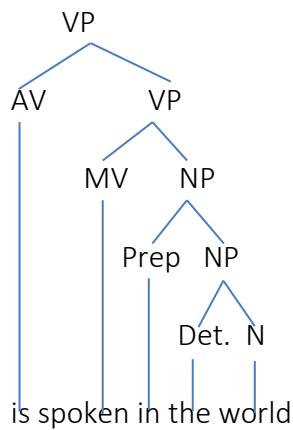
Verbal phrase syntax is the structure of verb phrases or syntactic units of a language, which highlights the structure of grouping lexicons into verb phrases. Verb phrase (VP) consists of main verb and its dependents (modifiers or adjuncts, objects, and complements).

a. Verbal Phrase < Helping + Main Verb



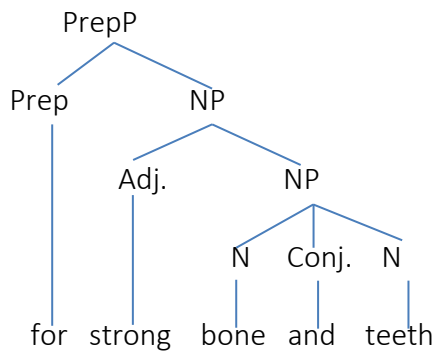
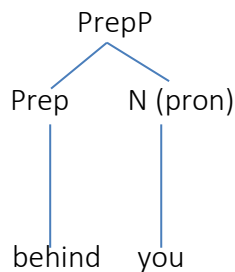
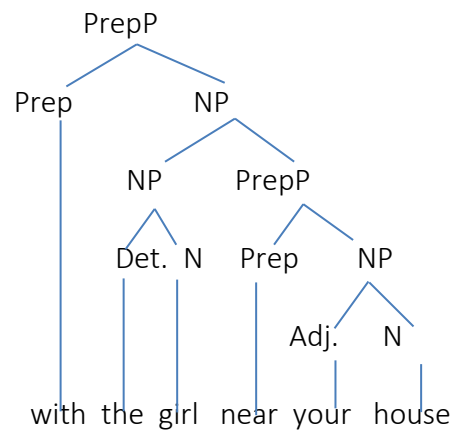
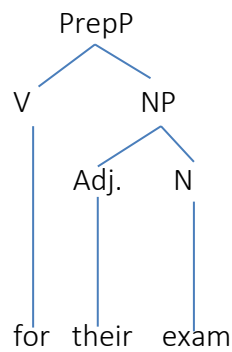
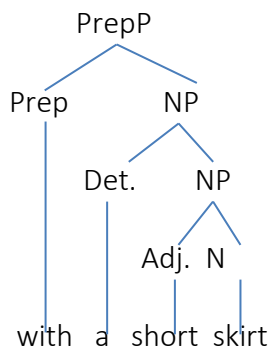
b. Verbal Phrase < (Modal Verb) + Main Verb + Modifiers





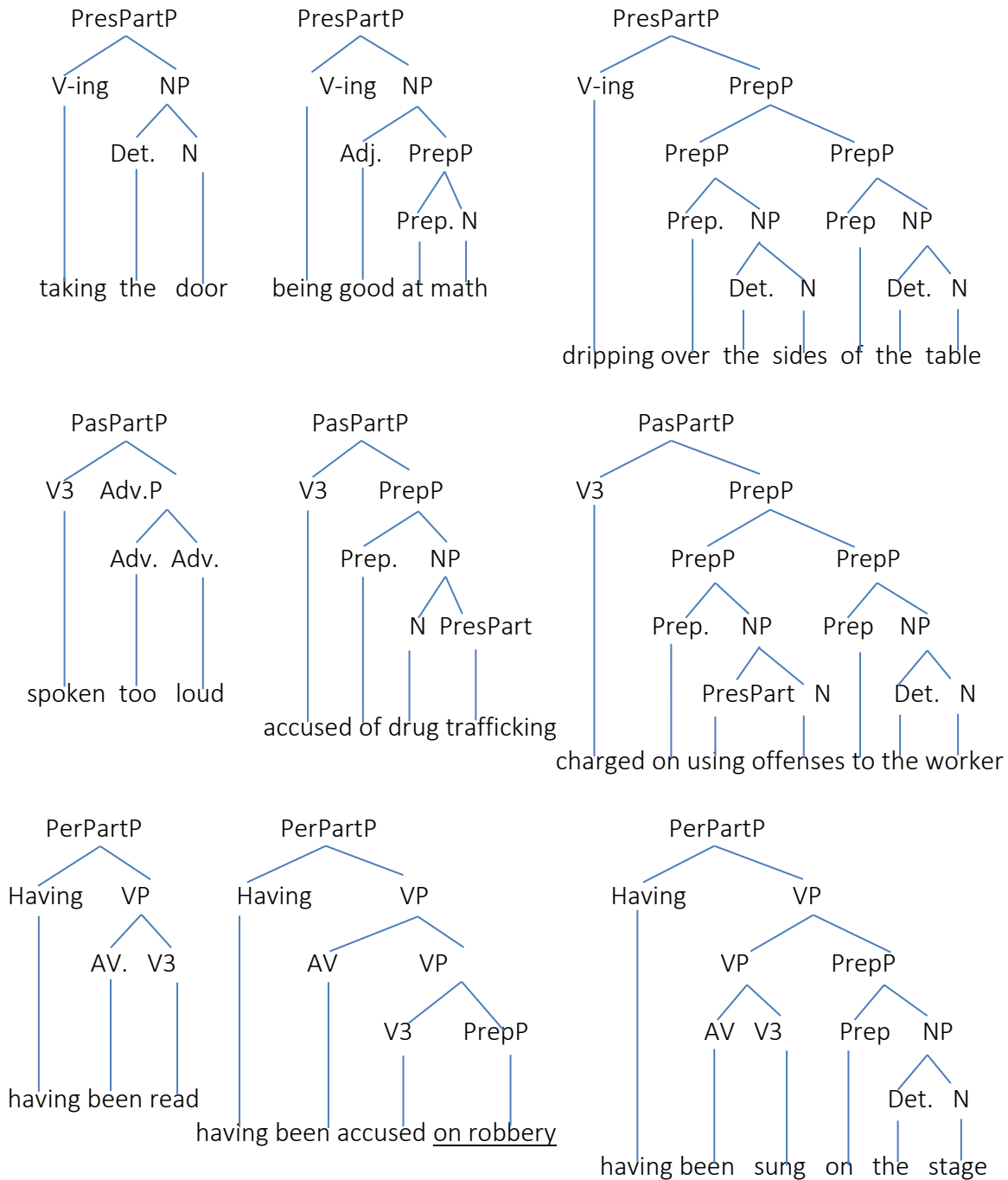
Prepositional Phrase Syntax

Prepositional phrase syntax is the structure of prepositional phrase, in which it indicates the structure of grouping lexicons into prepositional phrases of a language. Prepositional phrase consists of preposition, noun, or pronoun.



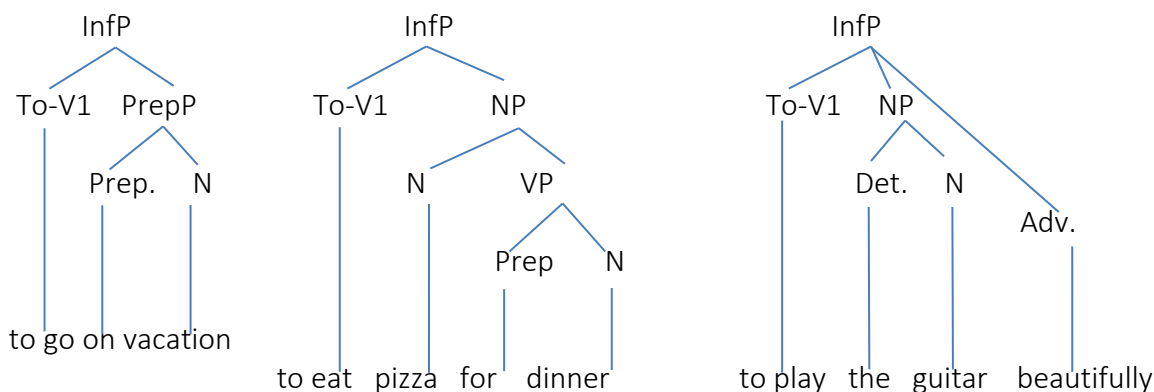
Participial Phrase Syntax

Participial phrase syntax is the structure of participial phrases, in which it elaborates on the structure of grouping lexicons into participial phrases of a language. Participial phrase (PartP) consists of participle and noun phrase or pronoun.



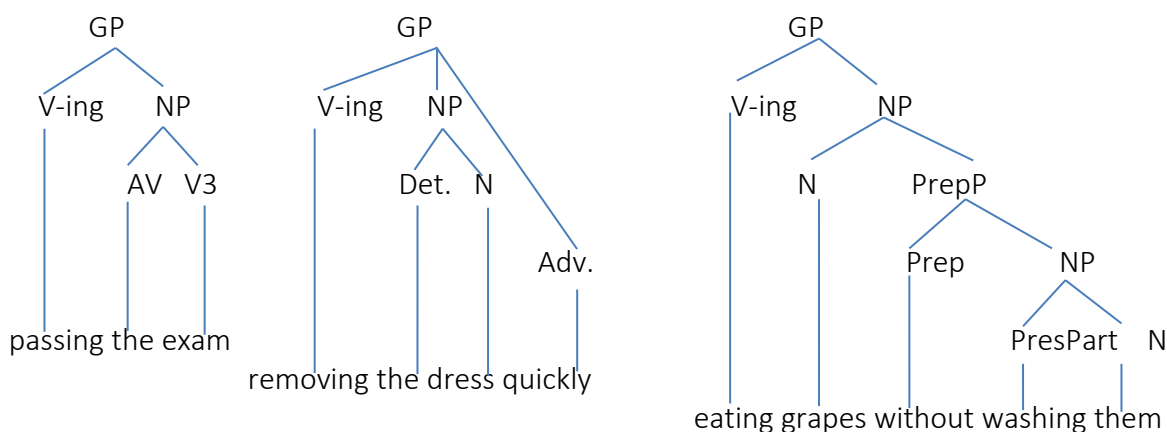
Infinitive Phrase Syntax

Infinitive phrase syntax is a structure of grouping lexicons to form an infinitive phrases of a language. Infinitive phrase (InfP) consists of a verb (with to) and complements of modifiers.



Gerundial Phrase Syntax

Gerundial phrase syntax is the structure of grouping the lexicons to construct the gerundial phrases. Gerundial phrase (GP) consists of a gerund (verb-ing) and modifiers.



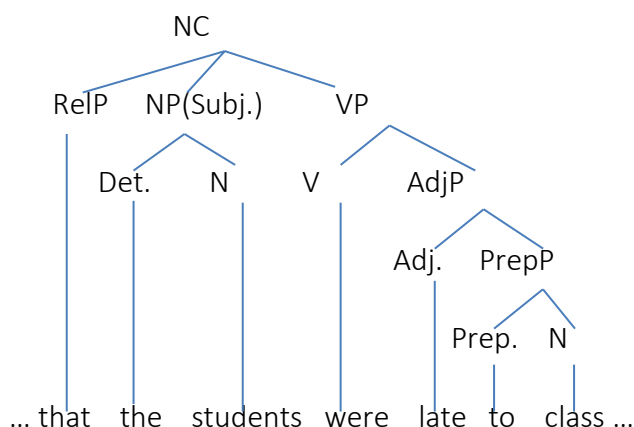
1.3 Clausal Syntax

Clausal syntax is the grammatical arrangement of lexicons to form the clauses in a language. A clause consists of a subject and a verb and/or object or complement, and it has a function as an adjective, an adverb, or a noun. There are several types of the clausal syntax, such as nominal clause syntax, adjectival (relative) clause syntax, adverbial clause syntax, That-clause syntax, conditional clause syntax, tag-clause syntax, independent clause syntax, coordinate clause syntax, finite clause syntax, non-finite clause syntax. The details of clausal syntax would be discussed as the following:

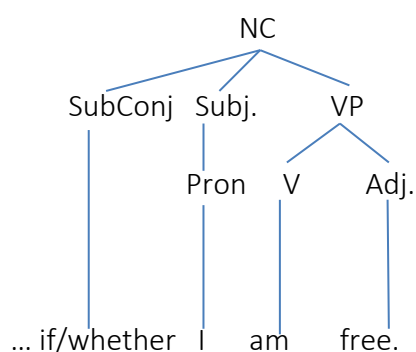
Nominal Clause Syntax

Nominal clause syntax refers to the structure of grouping lexicons into nominal clauses. Nominal clause (NC) consists of a subject and a predicate, and it is preceded by the relative pronoun (e.g., which, whichever, that, who, whom, whose, whoever, whomever, what, whatever) or subordinate conjunction (e.g., when, where, whenever, wherever if, whether, how, why).

For example, in the sentence “The fact that the students were late to class really upset the teacher,” the nominal clause is “that the students were late to class.”



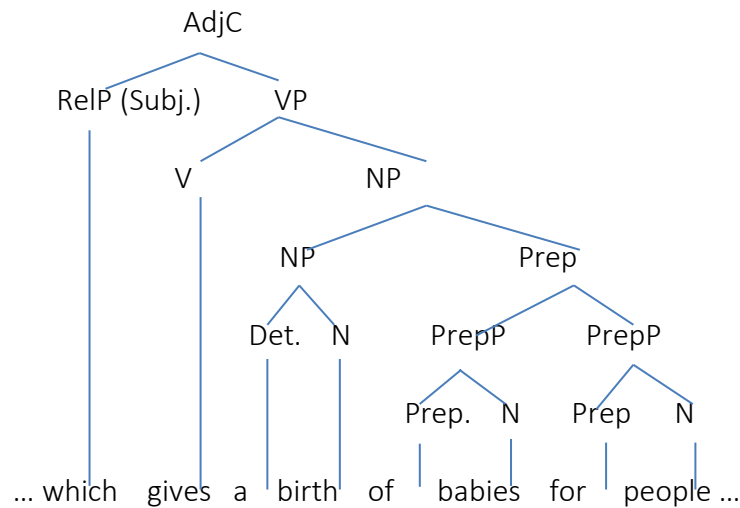
For another example, in the sentence “I would go if/whether I am free,” the nominal clause is “if/whether I am free.”



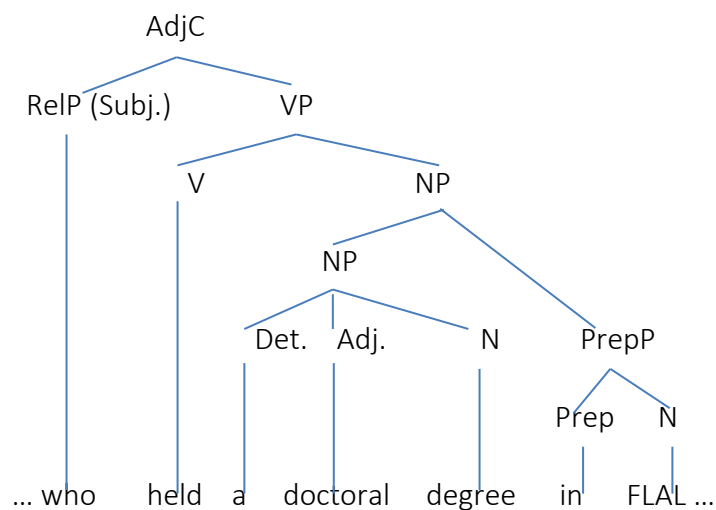
Adjectival (Relative) Clause Syntax

Adjectival (relative) clause syntax is the structure of grouping lexicons into the adjectival clauses. Adjective clause (AdjC) consists of a relative pronoun as a subject and a predicate. Relative pronoun (e.g., that, what, which, whichever, who, whoever, whose, whomever) or relative adverb (e.g., when, where, why) is the subject of an adjectival clause.

For example, in the sentence “My mother’s job, which gives a birth of babies for people, is midwife,” the adjectival clause is “which gives a birth of babies for people.”



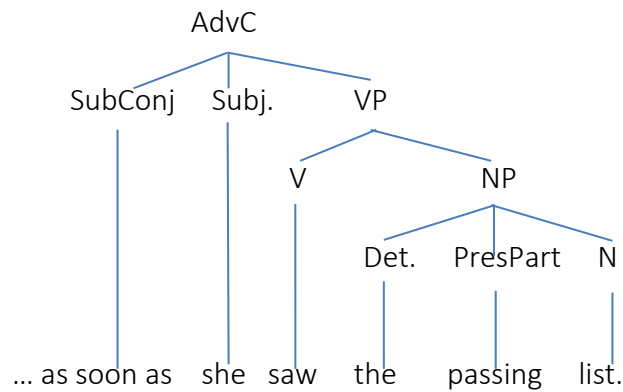
For another example, in the sentence “Dr. THAN Chhorn, who held a doctoral degree in FLAL, was my Applied Linguistics professor,” the adjectival clause is “who held a doctoral degree in FLAL.”



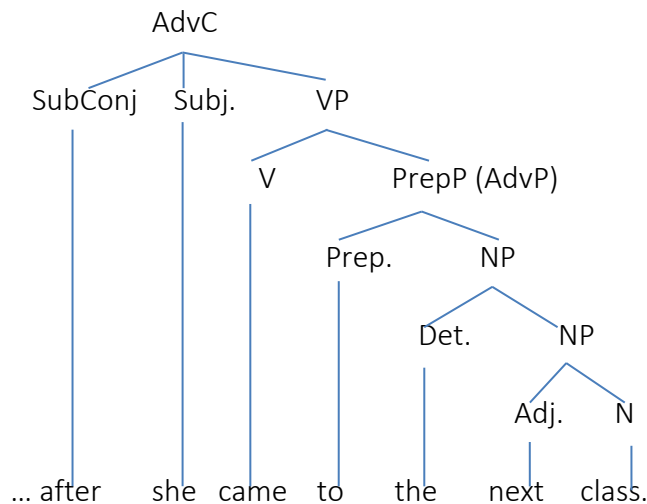
Adverbial Clause Syntax

Adverbial clause syntax is the structure of grouping lexicons into the adverbial clause of a language. Adverbial clause (AdvC) consists of a subject and a predicate, and it is preceded by a subordinating conjunction (SubConj) (e.g., as soon as, after, when, because, since, if, although, while, so that, so as, like, whereas, hence, thus, why, etc.).

For example, in the sentence “Sokha, the aspiring midwife, became happy as soon as she saw the passing list,” the adverbial clause is “as soon as she saw the passing list.”



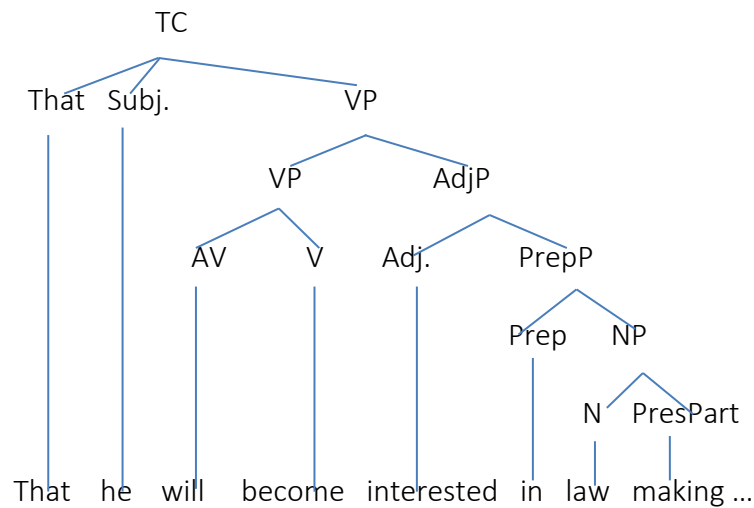
For another example, in the sentence “Dr. THAN, the Applied Linguistics professor, met with Sokha, after she came to the next class,” the adverbial clause is “after she came to the next class.”



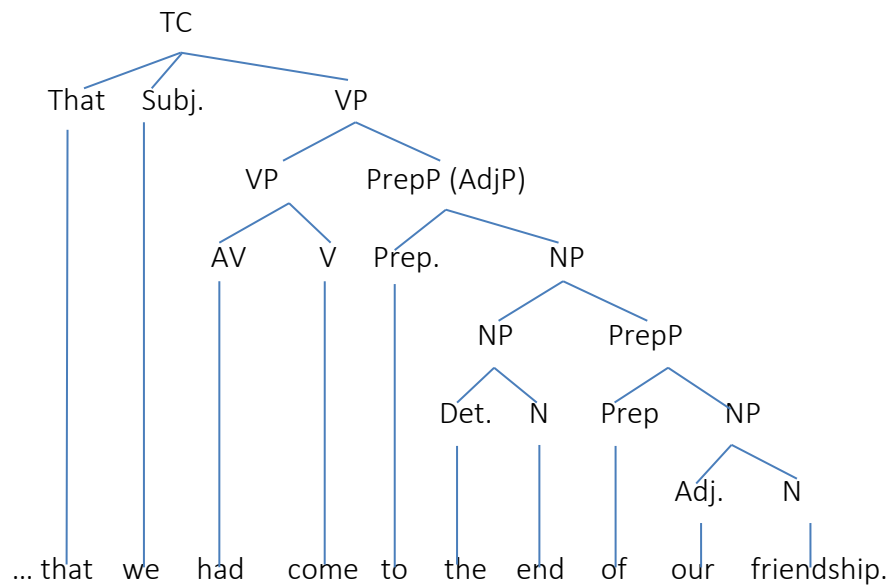
That-Clause Syntax

That-clause syntax is another type of nominal clause syntax, which refers to the structure of grouping lexicons into the That-clause (TC), functioned as the nominal clause of a language. Nominal that-clause can be used to function as a subject, an object, a complement, and/or an appositive in a declarative sentence. Notice that when the nominal that-clause is a subject of a verb in a sentence, it stands before the main verb in a declarative sentence; if it is an object of a verb, it is placed after the main verb in a declarative sentence. When nominal that-clause is a complement, it stands after the linking verb, and when it functions as an appositive, it is preceded by an object or complement in a declarative sentence.

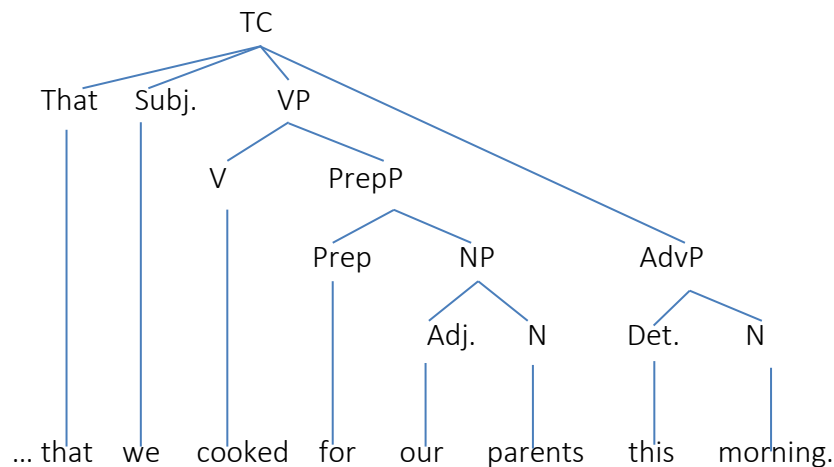
In the sentence “That he will become interested in lawmaking is likely,” the That-clause is “That he will become interested in lawmaking,” regarding as the subject of a verb in a sentence.



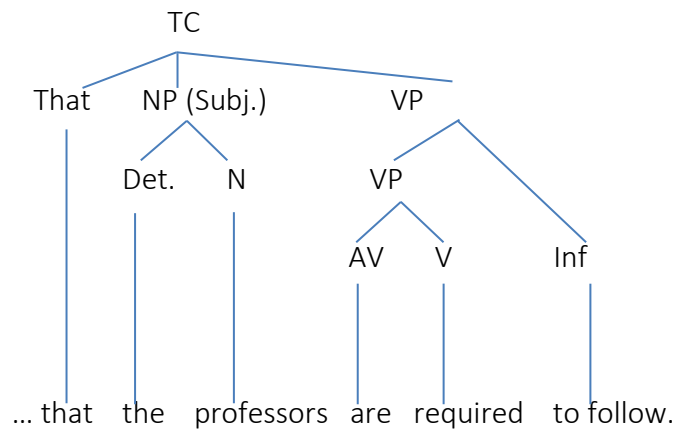
In the sentence "He denied that we had come to the end of our friendship," the That-clause is "that we had come to the end of our friendship," regarding as the object of a verb in a sentence.



In the sentence "This soup looks that we cooked for our parents this morning," the That-clause is "That we cooked for our parents this morning," regarding as the complement of a sentence.



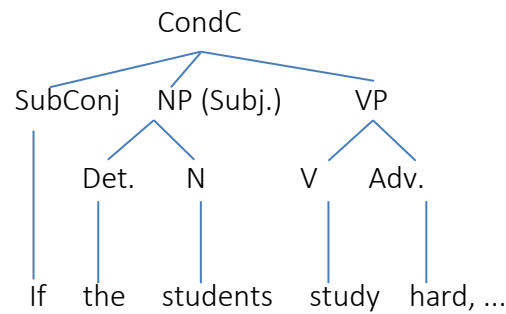
In the sentence “The university sets the new principles that the professors are required to follow,” the That-clause is “that the professors are required to follow,” regarding as an appositive to the object in a sentence.



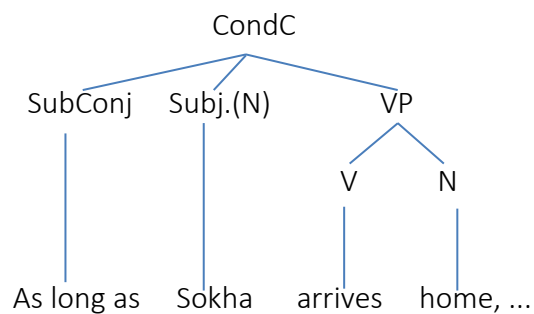
Conditional Clause Syntax

Conditional clause syntax refers to the structure of grouping lexicons to form conditional clauses of a language. Conditional clause is a type of subordinate clause, and it is preceded by the subordinating conjunction “*if*” or other conditional subordinators, such as ***unless, even if, provided that, on the condition that, as long as, in the case of***. Conditional clause (CondC) functions as an adverbial clause. Conditional clause may come at the initial or final of the conditional sentence. There are five types of conditional clauses, including zero first, second, third, and mixed conditional clause.

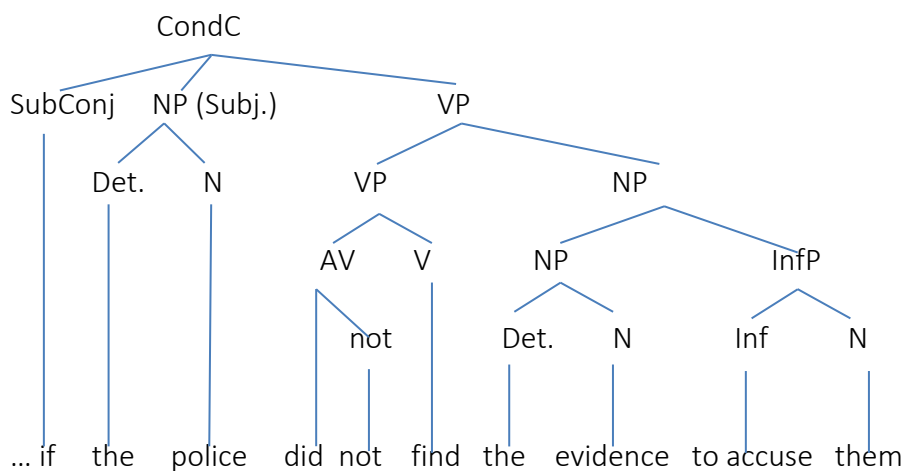
In the complex sentence “***If the students study hard***, they pass their examination,” the conditional clause is “if the students study hard,” regarding a zero conditional clause.



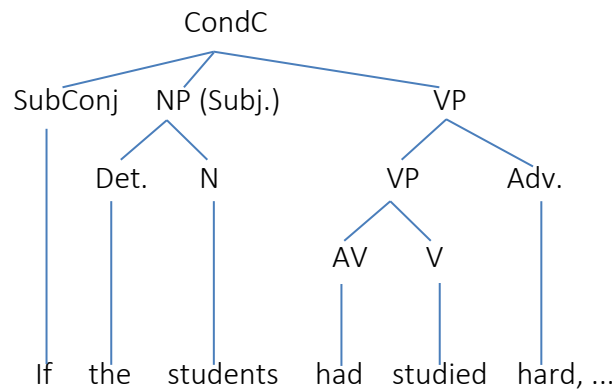
In the complex sentence “***As long as Sokha arrives home***, she will cook for dinner,” the conditional clause is “As long as Sokha arrives home,” regarding a first conditional clause.



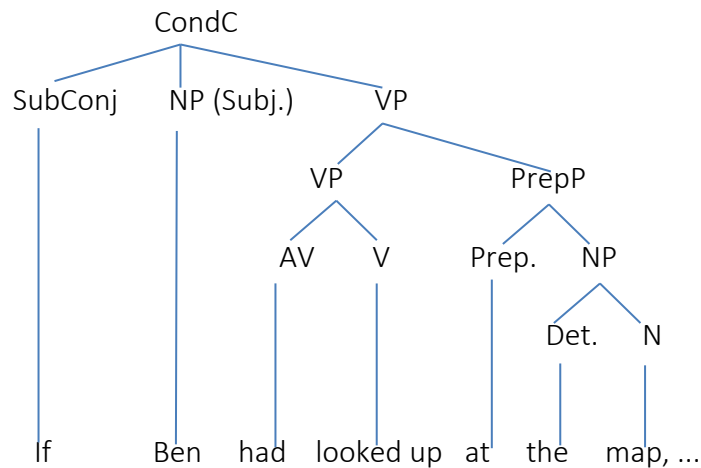
In the complex sentence “The suspects on car-robbery would be free ***if the police didn’t find the evidence to accuse them***,” the conditional clause is “if the police didn’t find the evidence to accuse them,” regarding a second conditional clause.



In the complex sentence “***If the students had studied hard***, they would have passed the exam,” the conditional clause is “If the students had studied hard,” regarding the third conditional clause.



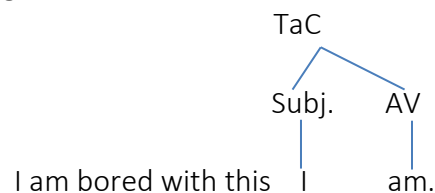
In the complex sentence “*If Ben had looked up at the map*, he wouldn’t be lost,” the conditional clause is “If Ben had looked up at the map,” regarding the mixed conditional clause.



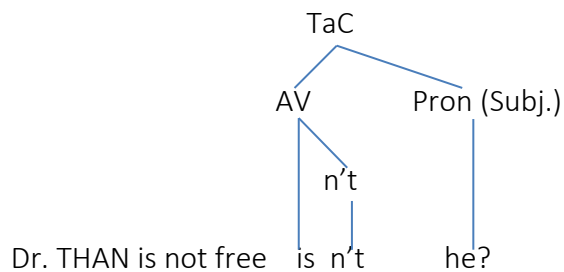
Tag-Clause Syntax

Tag-clause syntax refers to the structure of grouping lexicons to construct the tag-clause of a language. The tag-clause (TaC) can be negative or positive, and it may be assertive or question.

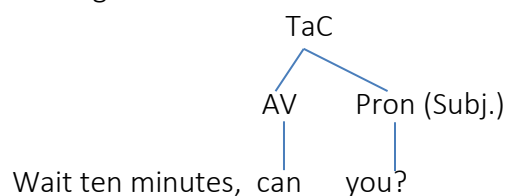
In the sentence “I am bored with this, I am,” the tag-clause is “I am,” regarding the positive assertive tag-clause.



In the sentence “Dr. THAN is not free, isn’t he?,” the tag-clause is “isn’t he?” regarding the negative question tag-clause.

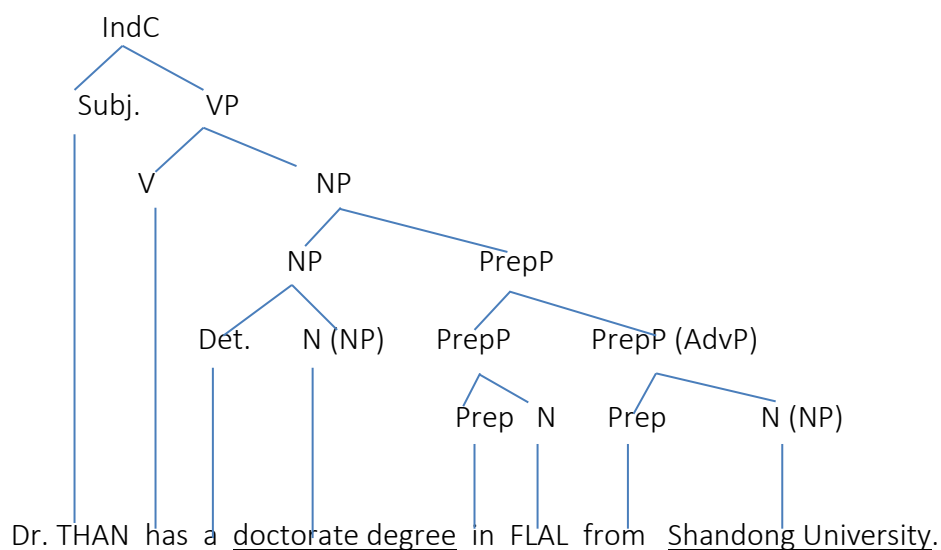


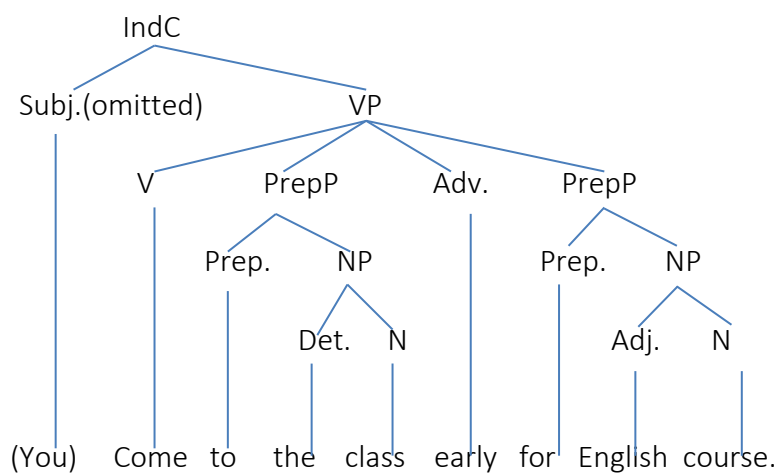
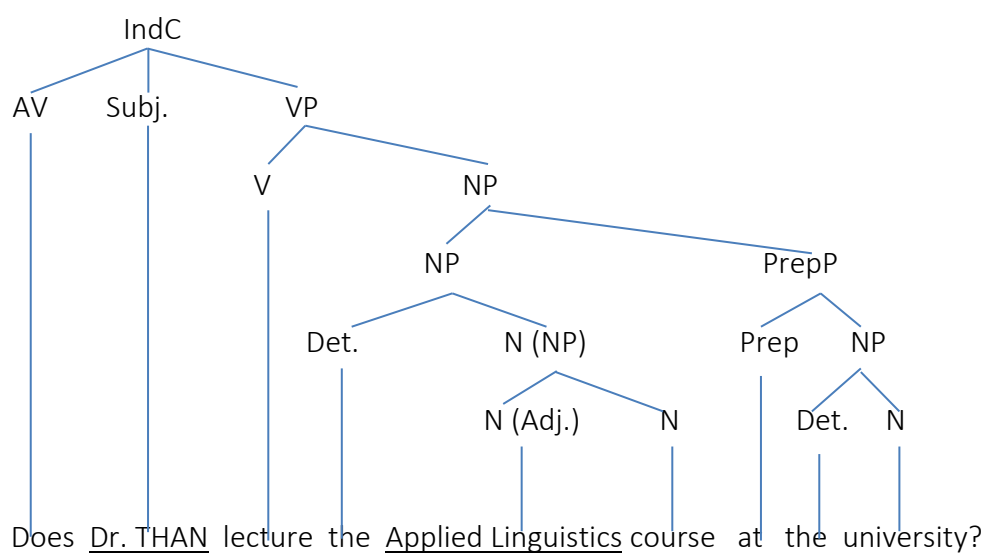
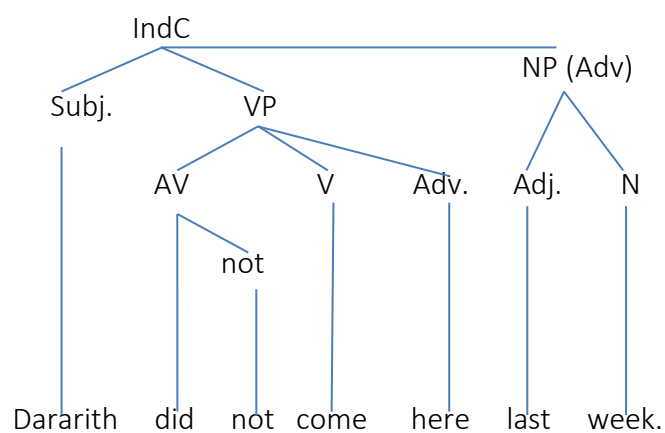
In the sentence "Wait ten minutes, can you?" the tag-clause is "can you?" regarding the positive assertive tag-clause.



Independent Clause Syntax

Independent clause syntax refers to the structure of grouping lexicons to form independent clause of a language. Independent clause (IndC) consists of a subject and a predicate, and it is complete thought and can be stand-alone clause. Independent clause can be the assertive, negative, imperative, and question.

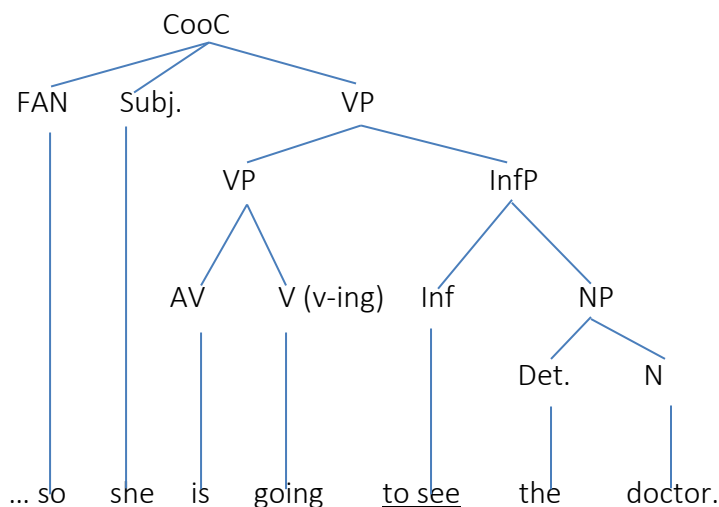




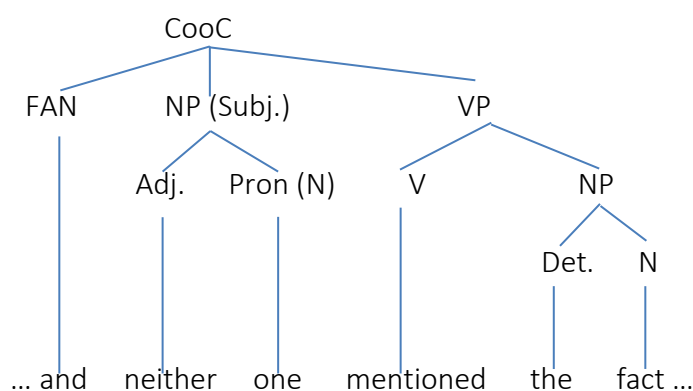
Coordinate Clause Syntax

Coordinate clause syntax refers to the structure of grouping lexicons to form the coordinate clause of a language. Coordinate clause (CooC) consists of a subject and a predicate, and it is preceded by a coordinating conjunction or FANBOYS (and, for, so, but, or, nor, yet).

For example, in the compound sentence “Sothea is feeling sick today ***so she is going to see the doctor,***” the coordinate clause is “so she is going to see the doctor.”



For another example, in the compound sentence “My children ate the dessert, ***and neither one mentioned the fact,***” the coordinate clause is “and neither one mentioned the fact.”

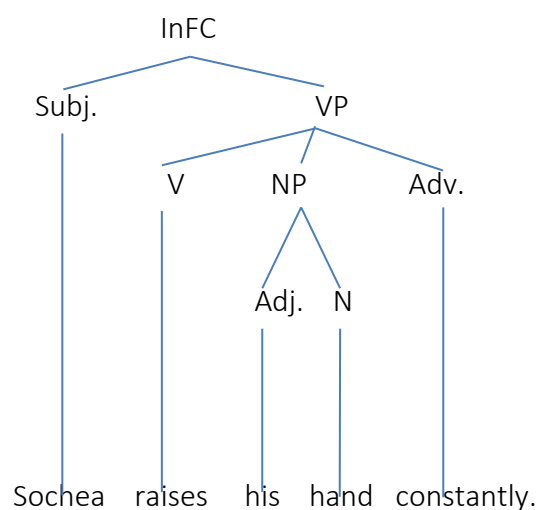


Finite Clause Syntax

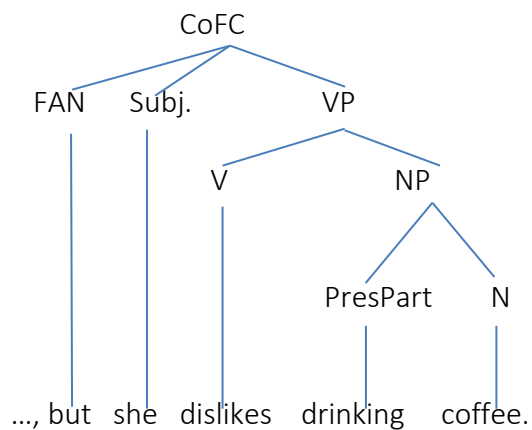
Finite clause syntax is the structure of grouping lexicons to construct the finite clause of a language. Finite clause (FC) consists of finite verb (primary verb) that inflects for tense, person, and number, and it includes a subject. Finite clause can serve as an independent finite clause, a coordinate finite clause, and/or a subordinate finite clause. The independent finite clause (InFC) is type of finite clause that can stand by itself with a complete thought.

Coordinate finite clause (CoFC) is sort of the finite clauses, which consists of a subject and a predicate, and it is preceded by a coordinator or FANBOYS. Subordinate finite clause (SuFC) is a type of finite clauses, which consists of a subject and a predicate, and it is preceded by a subordinator.

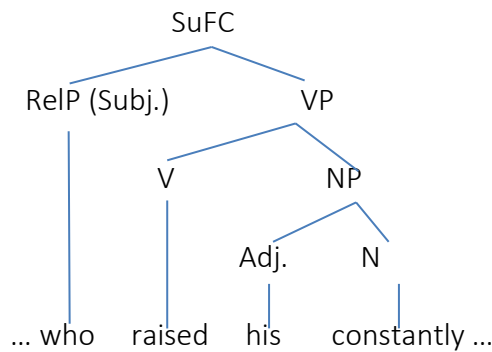
For example, the sentence “Sochea raises his hand constantly” is the independent finite clause.



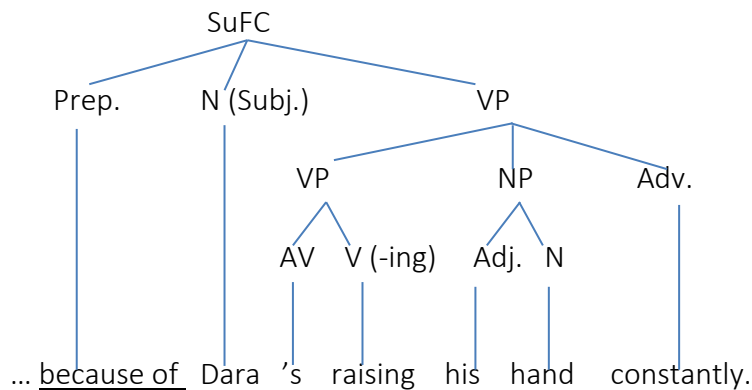
In the sentence “Sokharath likes eating pizza, *but she dislikes drinking coffee,*” the coordinate finite clause is “but she dislikes drinking coffee.”



In the sentence “A students who raised his hand constantly wanted to ask a question,” the subordinate finite clause is “who raised his hand constantly.”



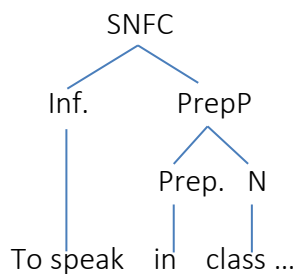
In the sentence “The students were annoyed because of Dara’s raising his hand constantly,” the subordinate finite clause that functions as a prepositional complement is “because of Dara’s raising his hand constantly.”



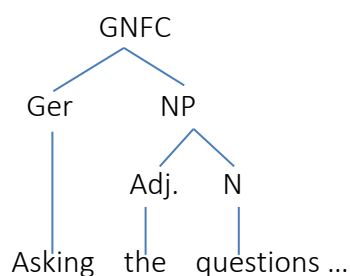
Non-Finite Clause Syntax

Non-finite clause syntax refers to the structure of grouping lexicons to form the non-finite clause of a language. Non-finite clause (NFC) consists of a non-finite verb (secondary verb), which cannot inflect for tense, person, or number. Non-finite can be infinitival, gerundial, participial, verbless, verbal complement, nominal, prepositional, and/or subjective.

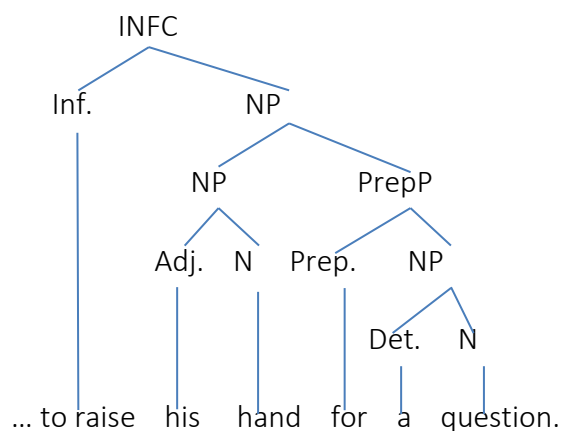
In the sentence “**To speak in class** is encouraged for students,” the subject non-finite clause (SNFC) is “To speak in class.”



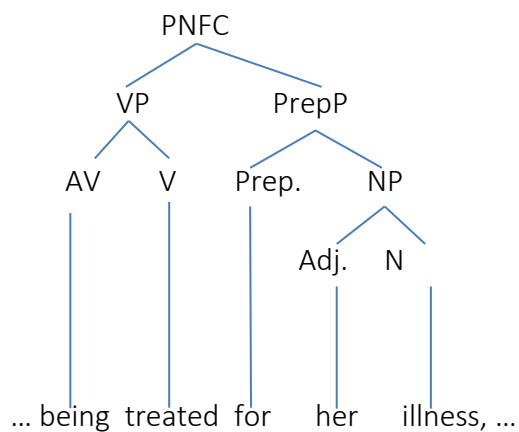
In the sentence “**Asking the questions** is encouraged for students,” the gerundial non-finite clause (GNFC) is “Asking the questions.”



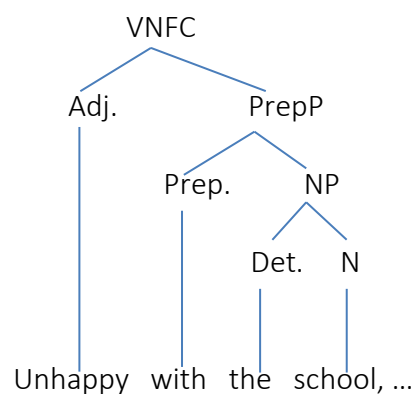
In the sentence “Chanthy wants **to raise his hand for a question**,” the infinitival non-finite clause (INFC) is “to raise his hand for a question.”



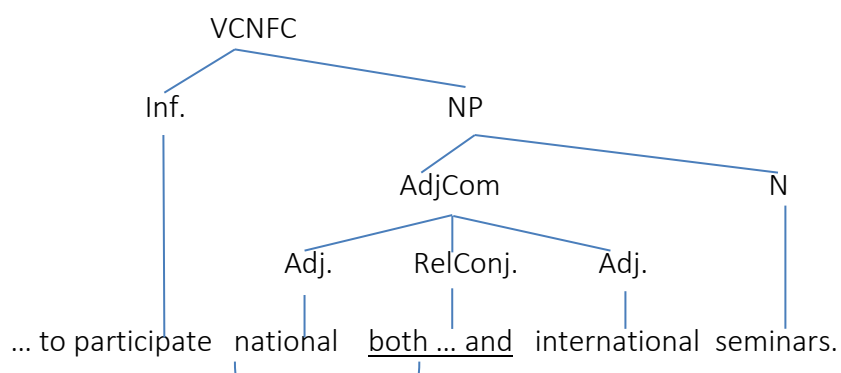
In the sentence “While **being treated for her illness**, Chenda spoke to her mother about her pain,” the participial non-finite clause (PNFC) is “being treated for her illness.”



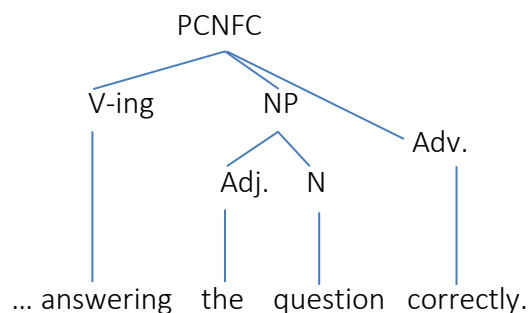
In the sentence “*Unhappy with the school*, those parents threatened to withdraw their children,” the verbless non-finite clause (VNFC) is “Unhappy with the school.”



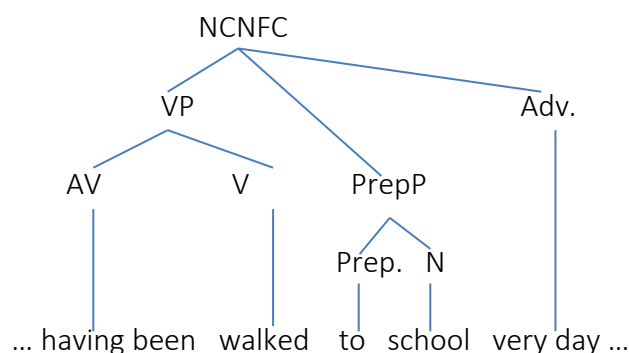
In the sentence “Dr. THAN loves *to participate both national and international seminars*,” the verbal-complement non-finite clause (VCNFC) is “to participate both national and international seminars.”



In the sentence “Chan smiled after *answering the question correctly*,” the prepositional-complement non-finite clause (PCNFC) is “answering the question correctly.”



In the sentence “A student having been walked to school every day passed the exam,” the nominal-complement non-finite clause (NCNFC) is “having been walked to school every day.”

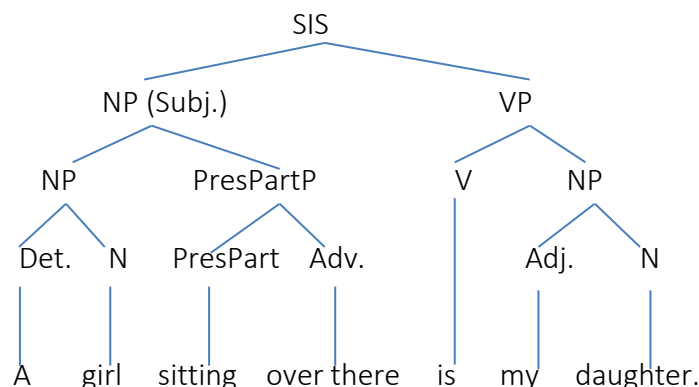


1.4 Sentential Syntax

Sentence syntax refers to the structure of grouping lexicons to construct the sentences of a language. A sentence consists of a subject and a predicate, and it has the complete thought. There are four types of sentence syntax in English linguistics, such as simple sentence, compound sentence, complex sentence, and compound-complex sentence syntax.

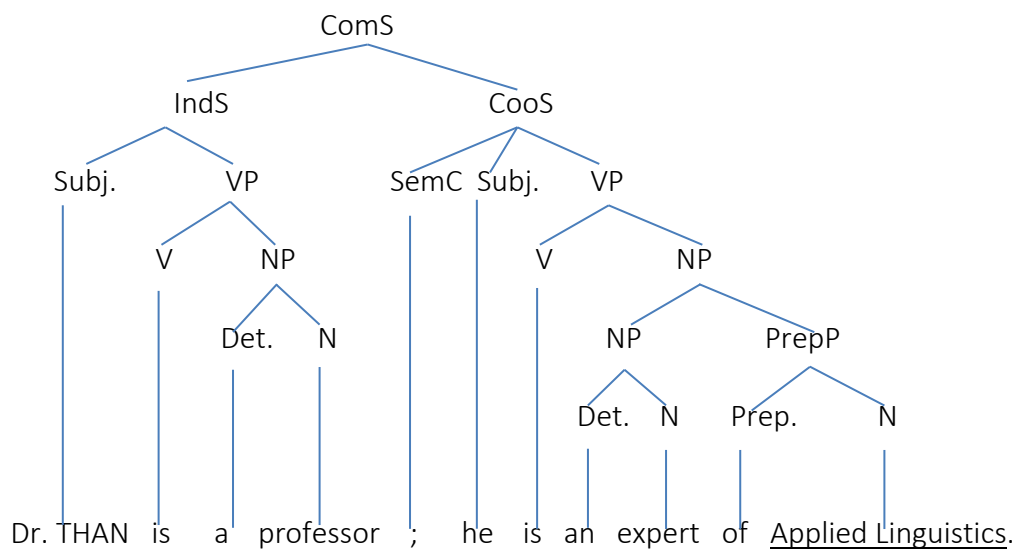
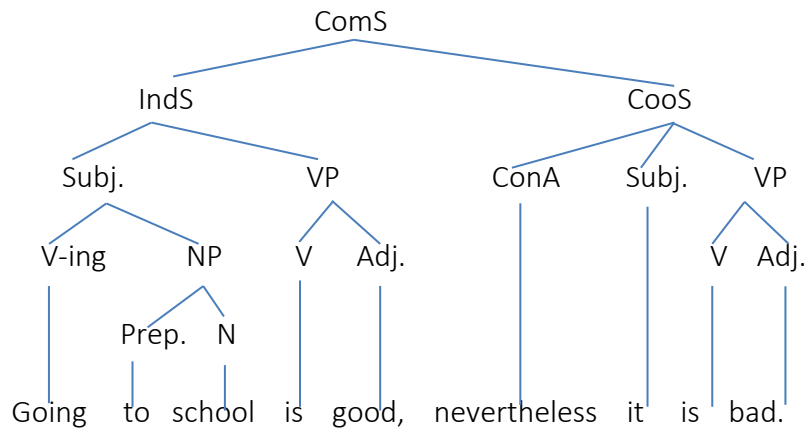
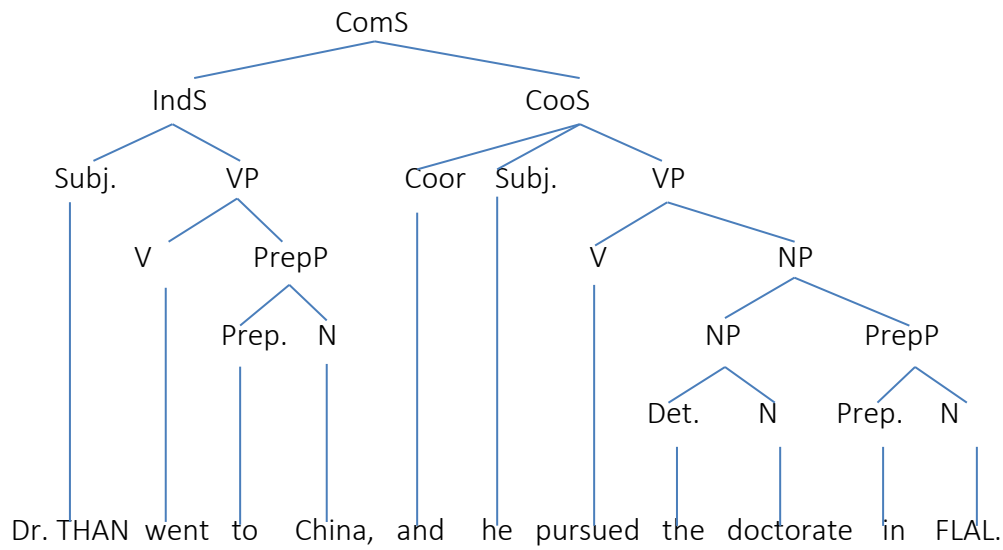
Simple Sentential-Syntax

Simple sentence syntax is the structure of combining lexicons to form single independent sentence. Single independent sentence (SIS) consists of a subject and a predicate (verb phrase that includes a verb and an object or complement).



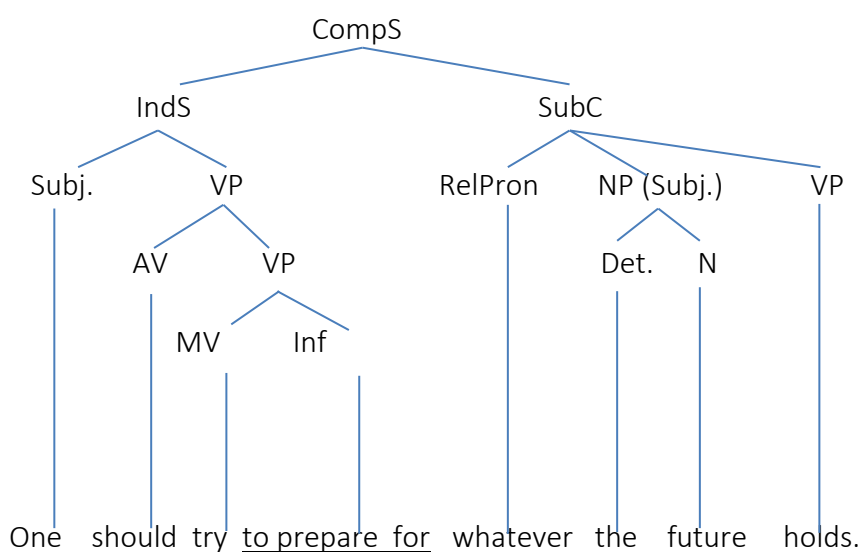
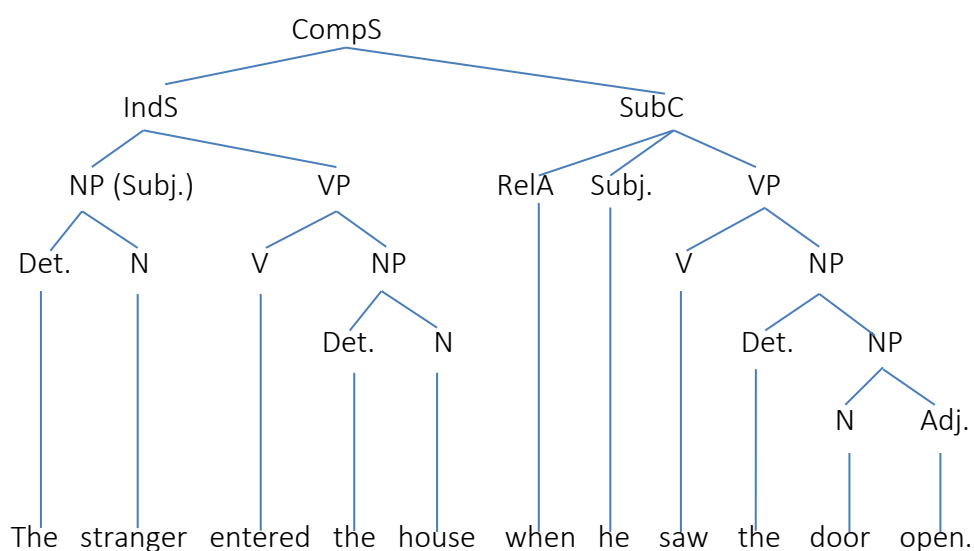
Compound Sentential-Syntax

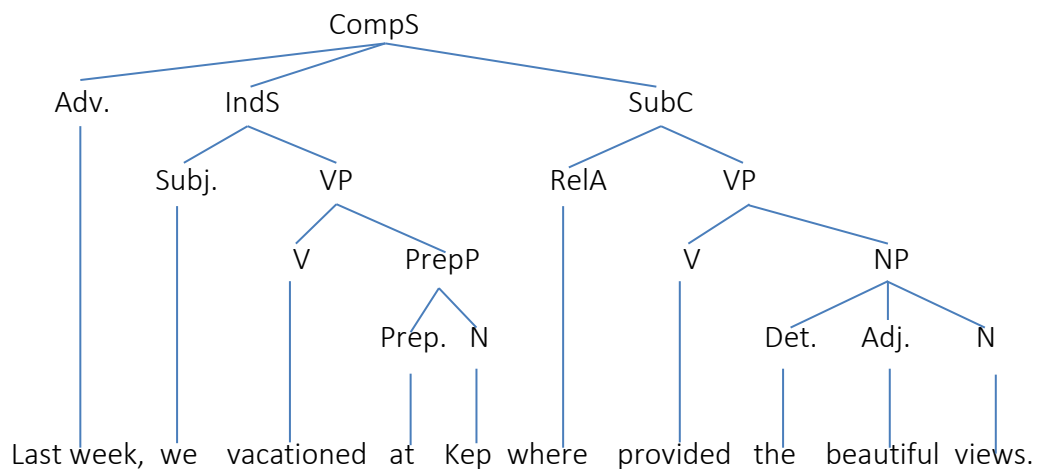
Compound sentence syntax is the structure of grouping lexicons to form the compound sentence that consists of two or more independent clauses. Compound sentence (ComS) is joined by a coordinator (Coor), conjunctive adverb (ConA), or semicolon (SemC).



Complex Sentential-Syntax

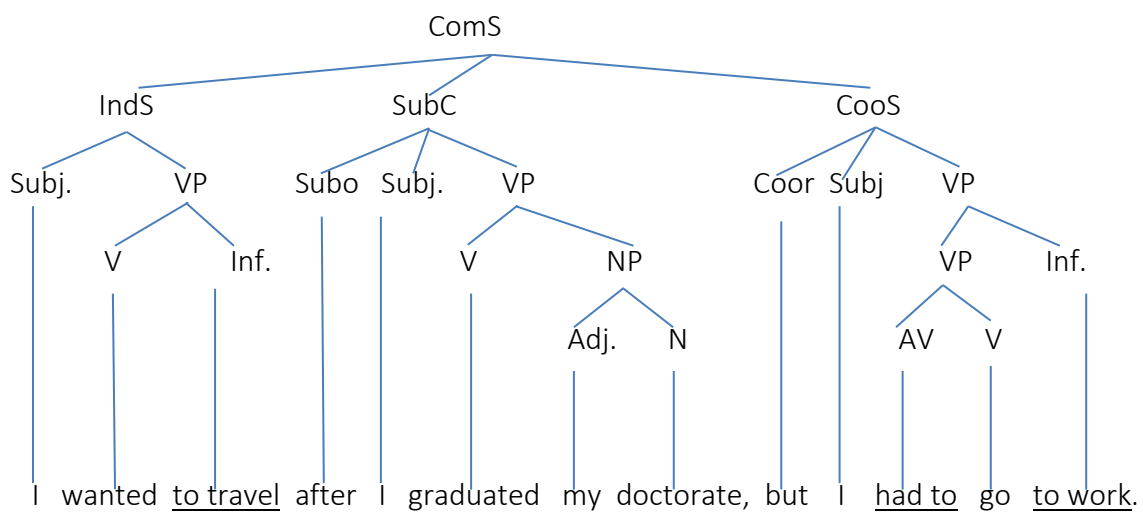
Complex sentence syntax is the structure of grouping to form the complex sentence (CompS), in which it consists of one independent clause and one (or more) subordinate clause(s). Subordinate clause can be subordinate-relative clause, subordinate-adverbial clause, or subordinate-nominal clause. Notice that in the complex sentence, the subordinate clause can come first or second. When the subordinate clause is formed with a relative pronoun + verb (+ object ...etc.), it is called subordinate-relative (adjectival) clause. When the subordinate clause is formed with a subordinating conjunction + subject + verb (+object, etc.) and is functioned as an adverb, it is called subordinate-adverbial clause. When the subordinate clause is formed with a relative pronoun or relative adverb + subject + verb (+ object, etc.) and is functioned as a noun, it is called subordinate-nominal clause.





Compound-Complex Sentential Syntax

Compound-complex sentence syntax refers to the structure of grouping lexicons to form the compound-complex sentence. Compound-complex sentence (CoCS) consists of one main clause, a subordinate clause, and a coordinate clause.



Unit 2

Types of Syntactic Constructions

In English linguistics, syntactic construction is the grammatical construction of arranging lexicons (words) to form compound lexicons or collocations, phrases, clauses, or sentences of a language. In syntactic construction, a phrase or sentence may be analyzed based upon its constituent. There are two categories of syntactic constructions, including endocentric syntactic-construction and exocentric syntactic-construction. These two types are analyzed based upon their distribution and the relation between their constituents.

2.1 Endocentric Syntactic-Constructions

Endocentric syntactic-construction is the grammatical construction that consists of a head lexicon and modifiers (subordinate lexicons to the head lexicon). In English linguistics, endocentric syntactic-construction is the grammatical construction of constructing a lexical compound or phrase, with the same grammatical/linguistic function as one of its parts. For example, the phrase “*outstanding student*” in the sentence “*Sokharath is an outstanding student*” is considered the endocentric syntactic-construction because this phrase consists of a head lexicon “*student*” and an adjectival modifier “*outstanding*.” Most commonly, the nominal phrase, verbal phrase, and adjectival phrase are centralized as the belonging to endocentric syntactic-construction types because the constituent items subordinate to the head lexicon. Collocation is also considered as the endocentric syntactic-construction, for example, *fun house*, *red hearing*, *do exercise*.

Endocentric syntactic-constructions are subcategorized into three types, such as attributive syntactic-construction, appositive syntactic-construction, and coordinative syntactic-construction. Below are the details of endocentric syntactic-constructions.

Attributive Syntactic-Constructions

Attributive syntactic-construction is a type of endocentric syntactic-construction, in which it has two constituents. The first constituent is a modifier, and the second constituent is a head lexicon. The modifier is used to modify or add more information to the head lexicon, and the head lexicon is a noun that does action with its meaning. The modifier is a lexicon that is functioned as an adjective, participle (present, past, or perfect participle of a verb), or nominal, adding more information to the head lexicon. For example, *spring chicken*, *smart TV*, *washing machine*, *finished product*, *having been passed the examination*, etc. In the above-mentioned example, the terms “*spring*, *smart*, *finished*, *having been passed*, *the*” are the lexical modifiers, and the terms “*chicken*, *TV*, *machine*, *product*, *examination*” are the head lexicons. In English linguistics, there are four ways of con the attributive syntactic-construction, including M + H (e.g., *bluebird*, *my pen*, *dustbin*), H + M (e.g., *shop closed*, *a man in blue shirt*, *boy crying*), M + H + M (e.g., *as soon as possible*, *the beloved daughter of mine*), and H + M + H (e.g., *do not teach*).

Appositive Syntactic-Constructions

Appositive syntactic-construction is a type of endocentric syntactic-construction, in which it consists of two constituents. The first constituent is a nominal (phrase), and the second one is a nominal (phrase). The second constituent of an appositive syntactic-construction clarifies or gives the apposition to the first one. For example, my daddy Dr. THAN; Sokha, my beloved wife; my adorable daughter Sokharath; Puthirith, my beloved son; etc.

Coordinative Syntactic-Constructions

Coordinate syntactic-construction is a type of endocentric syntactic-construction, in which it has two constituents. The first constituent is combined with the second one by using a coordinating conjunction (e.g., and, or, but, both ... and, either ... or, neither ... nor). For example, you and I, book or pen, etc.

2.2 Exocentric Syntactic-Constructions

Exocentric syntactic-construction is a construction consisting of two or more constituents, in which the constituents do not function like the complete construction. The Exocentric syntactic-construction does not have the same part of speech as any of its constituents, and it has no definable head-lexicon. In exocentric syntactic-construction, the lexicons are not syntactically relevant, and the lexicons can be removed but still be a meaning. Usually, exocentric syntactic-construction includes basic sentence, prepositional phrase, predicative construction, and complementary construction. For example, *in blue shoes*, Sokha smiled, he is *angry*, she becomes *a midwife*, he *see a doctor*.

Exocentric syntactic-constructions are subcategorized into three types, including directive syntactic-construction, complementary syntactic-construction, and predicative syntactic-construction.

Directive Syntactic-Constructions

Directive syntactic-construction is a type of exocentric syntactic-construction, in which it consists of two constituents. The first constituent is a directive lexicon, and the second one is its object. Directive lexicon may be in the form of verbal element, prepositional phrase, or conjunction. For example, the terms “*pass, under, after*” in the phrases and clause like “*pass the examination,*” “*under the table,*” and “*after he left the class*” are the directive lexicons that are followed by its objects like “*the examination, the table, he left the class.*” Therefore, directive syntactic-construction is formed with the director lexicon plus object.

Complementary Syntactic-Constructions

Complementary syntactic-construction refers to a type of exocentric syntactic-construction, in which it consists of two constituents. The first constituent is a copulative verb (linking verb), and the second constituent is its complement. The most common copula is the verb “be” in which it connects the subject of the verb with a complement, and the complement can be noun, adjective, or adverb (prepositional phrase becomes an adverbial phrase). For example,

Dr. THAN *is a professor of Applied Linguistics*, he *is clever*, the sky *becomes cloudy*, it *gets dark*, the trees' leaves *turn red*, etc.

Predicative Syntactic-Constructions

Predicative syntactic-construction is the construction that consists of two constituents. The first constituent is called subject, and the second constituent is called predicate. This type of exocentric syntactic-construction is known as a sentence. The two vital things in a sentence are the uses of a subject and a predicate or a nominal (phrase) plus a nominal (phrase). For example, in the sentence like "Sokharath sings well, people elect him a president, Sokha is a midwife," the first constituents known as the subjects are "*Sokharath, people, Sokha,*" and the second constituents known as the predicates are "*sings well, elect him a president, is a midwife.*"

Unit 3

Syntactic Devices

Syntactic devices refer to the devices that are used to improve the grammatical arrangement of lexicons (words) in a language. Syntactic devices include lexicon order (word order), inflectional suffix, derivational suffix, and functional lexicons.

3.1 Lexicon Order

Lexicon order (also known as word order) is defined as the device of syntactic construction of a language, and it is used to improve the arrangement of lexicons in the well-orderly construction. Lexicon order may be lexical compound or phrase order, lexical collocation order, or sentence order.

Lexical Compound/Phrase Order

Lexical compound/phrase order is the orderly arrangement of lexicons to form the lexical compounds or phrases, including nominal, verbal, adjectival, and adverbial compounds or phrases.

a. Order of Nominal Compounds/Phrases

Order of nominal compound/phrase is a construction that consists of a nominal and its modifier. The modifiers can be the nominal (phrase), adjective, verb, participle, and particle. Here are examples: bus stop, full moon, running water, closed season, haircut, sightseeing, table-painted, hanger-on, my friend Kahnarith, etc.

b. Order of Verbal Compounds/Phrases

Order of verbal compound/phrase is a construction that consists of a verb and its modifier. The modifiers can be helping verb, nominal (phrase), adjective (phrase), adverb (phrase), and preposition (phrase). Here are examples: housesit, believe in, handcuff, underscore, outgrow, meet by chance, have done, should go, can do, be angry, go fast, have a child, etc.

c. Order of Adjectival Compounds/Phrases

Order of adjectival compound/phrase is a construction that consists of an adjective and its modifier. The modifier can be the nominal, adjective, adverb, participle, and particle. For example, made-up, hand-to-hand, middle-aged, manmade, time-consuming, well-done, sugar-free, long-distance, part-time, narrow-minded, full frontal, record-breaking, in blue jeans, etc.

d. Order of Adverbial Compounds/Phrases

Order of adverbial compound/phrase is a construction that consists of an adverb and its modifier. The modifiers can be the nominal, adjective, adverb, participle, or preposition.

Here are examples: equally productive means, far enough, well-known, fully employed, right of certainty, meanwhile, hereinafter, early on, in-house, somewhat, all too complacent attitude, etc.

Lexical Collocation Order

Lexical collocation order is the construction that consists of a series of lexicons with the same meaning. Lexical collocation orders are broken down into six types, such as nominal collocation order, verbal collocation order, adjectival collocation order, adverbial collocation order, business collocation order, and time collocation order.

a. Nominal Collocation Order

Nominal collocation order is the lexical construction that consists of a combination of a nominal followed by a nominal, verb, or preposition or preceded by an adjective. Here are examples: bank draft, beauty salon, dog bark, connection with, blond hair, wrong way, etc.

b. Verbal Collocation Order

Verbal collocation order refers to the lexical construction that consists of a group of a verb followed by a nominal, verb, particle, adjective, adverb, or preposition or preceded by an adverb. Here are examples: make bed, do exercise, can't stand, help check, take over, run across, get tired, come alive, comply with, pride on, never know, badly damage, etc.

c. Adjectival Collocation Order

Adjectival collocation order is the lexical construction that consists of a combination of an adjective followed by a preposition/adjective/adverb or preceded by an adverb. Here are examples: fed up with, nice of, real live, best possible, best ever, good enough, badly hurt, utterly convinced, etc.

d. Adverbial Collocation Order

Adverbial collocation order is the lexical construction that consists of a combination of an adverb followed by an adverb. For example, all alone, only just, quite enough, etc.

e. Business Collocation Order

Business collocation order is the lexical construction that consists of a group of commercial trade/business terms. For example, bear in mind, chair a meeting, go bankrupt, draw a conclusion, come to the point, etc.

f. Time Collocation Order

Time collocation order is the lexical construction that describes the time of doing action and the term "time." Time collocation order consists of the term "time" and its modifier, and it is formed with the term "time" followed or preceded by a modifier. For example, dead on time, free time, save time, right on time, made time for, time passes, etc.

Sentence Order

Sentence order is the lexical construction in a sentence of a language. The sentence order consists of SV, SVO, SVC, SVA, SVOC, SVOA, SVOCA, and SVCA. Note: S = subject, V = verb, O = object, A = adjective or adverb, C = complement. Below are the details of sentence orders.

a. Order of Affirmative Sentences

Affirmative sentence is a construction that consists of the SV, SVO/C, SVA, SVO/CA, or SVOCA. Notice that an adverb of sentence can be placed at the initial or the final of an assertive sentence. Here are examples as the following:

- The child is crying. (SV)
- She sings a song. (SVO)
- You look clever. (SVC)
- The strange sound is in the room. (SVA)
- He met Dr. THAN last month. (SVOA)
- Barack Obama was a 44th president of USA on January 20, 2009. (SVCA)
- Americans elected Barack Obama, a presidential election of USA in 2008. (SVOCA)

Notice that the assertive sentence can be formed with the helping verb that is placed after the subject or before a predicate. For example, Den *should* come early for the class.

b. Order of Negative Sentences

Negative sentence is a construction that may be formed with a subject + helping verb + not + predicate. Here are examples as the following:

- She does not go to school today.
- He cannot come on time for catching the train.
- Dr. THAN did not lecture the Applied Linguistics course last week.

c. Order of Question Sentences

Question sentence is a construction that is formed with a helping (or helping verb + not) + subject + verb (or verb + object/adverb), a helping verb + subject + complement (+ adverb), or a helping verb + subject + verb + object (+adverb). Here are examples as the following:

- Are you a student?
- Is she better now?
- Do you go the class?
- Did you join the meeting yesterday?
- Didn't he come here?

d. Order of Tag-Question Sentences

Tag-question sentence is a construction that consists of (1) a positive stative-sentence plus negative tag-question, (2) a negative stative-sentence plus positive tag-question, or (3) imperative sentence plus positive tag-question. Below are examples:

- She is a student, isn't she?

- Dr. THAN lecture the Applied Linguistics, doesn't he?
- He isn't a president, is he?
- Come early to the class, will you?

e. Order of Imperative Sentences

Imperative sentence is a construction that is formed with the verb plus object. The subject of imperative sentence is omitted because it is understood.

- Shut the window. (means You shut the window)
- Go to see the doctor.
- Come on time for the meeting.

f. Order of Exclamation Sentences

Exclamation sentence is a construction that is formed with the What (+ Article) + Adjective + Nominal, What + Adjective + Nominal, How/What + Adjective, and/or Exclamation expression + sentence. Here are examples as the following:

- What a beautiful girl!
- What loud music!
- How nice!
- What shocked!
- Hurry up, mom! I cannot wait.
- Excuse me! May I go first?
- Just a minute! I cannot have an umbrella.

g. Order of There-Clauses/Sentences

There-clause/sentence is a construction in which it is constructed with the term There + (must/have/will +) be + nominal (phrase) or There + (must/have/will +) be + nominal + v-ing (+ nominal phrase). The There-clause/sentence is also called empty subject sentence or dummy subject sentence. The existential term "there" is used as a pronoun, and it is used to describe that a situation exists and to introduce the existing situation. Here are examples as the following:

- There is a book on the table.
- There are two ways this can go.
- Are there any books on the table?
- There is a high unemployment rate there.
- There were other solutions.
- There must be several other cars there.
- There have been many new cars there.
- Has there been any money left there?
- There will be some solutions for this issue.
- There will not be any benefits this year.
- There is some milk in the fridge.
- There is no freezer in the kitchen.

- There is no way Dara can win his match.
- There is something we need to discuss.
- There must have been more than five displaced because of the flood.
- There is a strange dog running up and down in our garden.
- There was a man walking down the street.

h. Order of It-Clauses/Sentences

It-clause/sentence is the construction that is formed with the pronoun “it” + verb + nominal (phrase). It-clause/sentence is also called Dummy subject sentence. Introductory term ***It*** (also known as dummy subject) refers to conveying no meaning of its own but simply filling the position of a subject in a sentence. The pronoun “it” is considered the dummy subjects, and it is used to introduce the sentence referring to weather, time, date, and situations.

- It is raining today.
- It is the fourth of June of my birthday.
- It is 4 a.m., and I am wide awake.
- It is getting dark, and we should go home.
- It is a perfect day for a picnic.
- It is important to know when to give up.
- It feels strange to have finally won.
- It seems inevitable that he will discover the truth.
- It is cool.

3.2 Inflectional Suffix

Inflectional suffix is a type of syntactic devices, which is used to form the nominal plurality, verbal singularity with third person singular, past tense of verbs, participle, and possessive.

Nominal Plurality Suffixes

The suffixes “***-s, -es***” are used to improve the error forms of the plurality in nominal forms, in which they are considered the inflectional suffixed. Besides these suffixes, the ***irregular suffixes*** are used to form the nominal plurality as well. Here are examples as follow:

- There is a car coming. → There are two ***cars*** coming.
- He has a bus and a watch. → He has three ***buses*** and three ***watches***.
- There is a man walking up and down. → There are two ***men*** walking up and down.
- There is a mouse in the kitchen. → There are six ***mice*** in the kitchen.
- He has an ox in his farm. → He has seven ***oxen*** in his farm.

Verbal Singularity Suffixes

The suffixes “***-s, -es***” that are considered the inflectional suffixed of syntactic devices are used to improve the error forms of singularity in verbal forms, with third person singular. Here are examples:

- They sing a song. → She ***sings*** a song.
- They kiss me. → He ***kisses*** his girlfriend.

- I match TV in my free time. → Dara match**es** TV every day.

Past Tense and Participle Suffixes

The suffix “-**ed**” in which it is centralized as the inflectional suffix of syntactic devices is used to improve the error forms of the past tense and past participle of the verbs. Here are examples:

- They visit their aunt. → They visit**ed** their aunt.
- I walk to school. → I walk**ed** to school.
- The students watch TV. → The students watch**ed** TV.

Besides this suffix, the *internal suffix-changes* are employed to improve the error forms of the past tense and past participle forms of the verbs. Below are examples:

- Dara become a head of this company. → Dara beca**me** a head of this company.
- He rings for an ambulance. → He has **run**g for an ambulance.
- They swim in the river. → They have sw**um** in the river.

In addition, the irregular suffix “-**en**” is used to improve the error forms of past participle forms of the verbs. Here are examples as follow:

- I speak to my daddy. → I have spok**en** to my daddy.
- They drive to school. → They have driv**en** to school.
- I write a letter. → I have writ**ten** a letter.

Importantly, the suffix “-**ing**” is employed to improve the error forms of present participle and gerundial forms. Here are examples as follow:

- She reads a book. → She is read**ing** a book.
- He calls for an ambulance. → He is call**ing** for an ambulance.

Possessive Case Suffix

The suffix “-’s” in which it defined as the inflectional suffix of syntactic devices is used to improve the error forms of the generative nominal-case. Here are examples:

- The daughter of Dr. THAN → THAN’**s** daughter
- The toy of Sokharath → Sokharath’**s** toy

3.3 Derivational Suffix

Derivational suffix is a type of syntactic devices, which derives the lexicons. Derivational suffixes are subcategorized into four types, such as nominal derivational-suffixes, adjectival derivational-suffixes, adverbial derivational-suffixes, and verbal derivational-suffixes.

Nominal Derivational-Suffix

Nominal derivational-suffixes are the derivational suffixes of syntactic devices, which are used to improve the error derivation of the nominal lexicons. Nominal derivational suffixes include -ment, -ion (-sion, -tion), -ant -ance, -ience, etc. Here are examples:

- The president gave his *agree*. → The president gave his **agreement**.
- The *participates* might come on time for the seminar. → The **participants** might come on time for the seminar.
- Good writing needs several revise. → Good writing needs several revisions.

Verbal Derivational-Suffix

Verbal derivational-suffixes are the derivational suffixes of syntactic devices, in which they are used to improve the error derivation of the verbal lexicons. Verbal derivational-suffixes include -ise/-ize, -ate, -en, ify, etc. Here are examples:

- The passengers are required to *fast* the belt-seat. → The passengers are required to **fasten** the belt-seat.
- The verbal derivational-suffix is *central* as the syntactic device. → The verbal derivational-suffix is **centralized** as the syntactic device.
- The derivational suffixes are *class* into four types. → The derivational suffixes are **classified** into four types.

Adjectival Derivational-Suffix

Adjectival derivational-suffixes are the derivational suffixes of syntactic devices, which are used to improve the error derivation of the adjectival lexicons. The adjectival suffixes include -ful, -ish, -ant, -able, -ible, etc. Here are examples:

- He is a *hope* man. → He is a **hopeful** man.
- It is a *read* and *understand* paper. → It is a **readable** and **understandable** paper.
- Revision is *import* for academic thesis. → Revision is **important** for academic thesis.
- He didn't appear to be *sense* of the difficulties that lay ahead. → He didn't appear to be **sensible** of the difficulties that lay ahead.
- Socheata looks child. → Socheata looks childish.

Adverbial Derivational-Suffix

Adverbial derivational-suffixes are the derivational suffixes of syntactic devices, in which they are used to improve the error derivation of adverbial lexicons. Adverbial derivational-suffixes include -ly, -ally, ially, etc. Here are examples as follow:

- She *speedy* drives a car. → She **speedily** drives a car.
- The good writing needs to revise *practical* and *repeated*. → The good writing needs to revise **practically** and **repeatedly**.
- This royal decree is *official* issued for the supplement of lawmaking. → This royal decree is **officially** issued for the supplement of lawmaking.

3.4 Functional Lexicons

Functional lexicon is a type of syntactic devices, in which it is used to improve the syntactic construction. Here are examples as follow:

- I go school. → I go **to** school.

- There are solutions, which are reasonable for dealing with this situation. → There are **other** solutions, which are reasonable for dealing with this situation.
- The term “it” simply fills the position of a subject in a sentence, not have its own meaning as a subject. → The term “it” simply fills the position of a subject in a sentence, **but** not have its own meaning as a subject.
- Functional lexicon is a type of syntactic devices, is essential for improving the syntactic construction. → Functional lexicon is a type of syntactic devices, **and it** is essential for improving the syntactic construction.

Further Reading

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On the name of the author of this book, I am pleased to inform you all that Cognizance of Applied Linguistics: English Phonology, Lexicology, Morphology, and Syntaxology is very crucial for linguistic learners, who do want to learn, write, pronounce, and apply in English effectively and comprehensively. In this sense, this textbook contains four chapters, and each chapter comprises sections with details.



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