

MICRO-LINGUISTIC SIGNIFICANCE IN APPLIED LINGUISTICS

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ABSTRACT

Oral aspect of language lies in all areas of linguistics, including pre-linguistics (comprising phonetics) and micro-linguistics (comprising phonology, morphology, syntax, and minor discussions of semantics). Written aspect of language lies in micro-linguistics (excluding phonology) and meta-linguistics (comprising semantics, pragmatics, sociolinguistics, and other branches of linguistics.). Pre-linguistics and meta-linguistics belong to an area so-called macro-linguistics. Applied linguistics is an area in which the primary concern is the application of linguistic theories, methods, and findings to the elucidation of language problems. This article discusses the significance of micro-linguistic principles in applied linguistics. The discussions are grouped into (1) phonological, (2) morpho-phonemic, and (3) syntactic principles. Examples given in the discussions involve relevant linguistic phenomena found in Indonesian and English, i.e. the major foreign language in Indonesia. The results of the discussions show the significance of the principles and propose some suggestions for overcoming problems might occur in applied linguistics. The applied linguistic areas cover language teaching (teaching Indonesian as the educational language in Indonesia, teaching Indonesian as a foreign language [especially for English-language speakers], and teaching English as a foreign language in Indonesia), lexicography, language planning and policy, translation, and landscape linguistics.

key words: applied linguistics; micro-linguistics; micro-linguistic principles

ABSTRAK

Aspek kelisanan bahasa berada dalam semua ranah yang berkait dengan linguistik, di antaranya adalah pra-linguistik (meliputi fonetik) serta mikrolinguistik (meliputi fonologi, morfologi, sintaksis, dan pembahasan minor tentang semantik). Aspek tulis bahasa berada dalam mikro-linguistik (tetapi tidak mencakupi fonologi) dan meta-linguistik (mencakupi semantik, pragmatik, sosiolinguistik, dan sejumlah cabang linguistik lain). Pra-linguistik dan meta-linguistik termasuk ke dalam ranah yang disebut makro-linguistik. Linguistik terapan adalah ranah yang di dalamnya penerapan teori, metode, dan temuan linguistik pada pemaparan permasalahan kebahasaan menjadi perhatian utama. Artikel ini membahas signifikansi prinsip-prinsip mikro-linguistik dalam linguistik terapan. Pembahasan dikelompokkan ke dalam prinsip-prinsip (1) fonologis, (2) morfo-fonemik, dan (3) sintaktis. Contoh yang diberi dalam pembahasan mencakupi gejala-gejala kebahasaan yang relevan dan ditemukan dalam bahasa Indonesia dan bahasa Inggris, yakni yang menjadi bahasa asing utama di Indonesia. Hasil pembahasan menunjukkan signifikansi prinsip-prinsip tersebut di atas dan menganjurkan saran untuk mengatasi permasalahan yang mungkin muncul dalam linguistik terapan. Ranah linguistik terapan yang dimaksud mencakupi pengajaran bahasa (pengajaran bahasa Indonesia sebagai bahasa edukasional di Indonesia, pengajaran bahasa Indonesia bagi penutur asing [terutama bagi penutur bahasa Inggris], dan pengajaran bahasa Inggris sebagai bahasa asing di Indonesia) leksikografi, perencanaan dan kebijakan bahasa, penerjemahan, dan linguistik lanskap.

kata kunci: linguistik terapan; mikro-linguistik; prinsip-prinsip mikro-linguistik

INTRODUCTION

Language is a means of communication; and communication is an interaction for the purpose of information-exchange. When involving utterance as its medium, the interaction is called oral communication; when involving orthographic system, it is called written communication. Both oral and written communications are verbal interactions. There are non-verbal aspects involved in communication; and the medium used are gestures. In non-formal written-language use, like texting through *WhatsApp* platform, gestural signs expressing emotions used in oral communications are often represented by icons, so-called emoticons.

Oral interaction is predominantly used in daily communication. Therefore, the very-basic discussions of linguistics need to involve subject matter of utterance. In phonetics (a branch of linguistics discussing the production, transfer, and perception of utterance), utterance is discussed as *speech*, i.e. a notion which is seen as a medium of transmission for language (Crystal, 2008, p.445). A single speech is predominantly produced by a single exhalation, separated from another by a pause, and comprising segments, i.e. phonetic units which are categorized into *consonants*, *vowel*, and *diphthongs*. There are supra-segmental features accompanying the production of speech: *syllabic-structure*, *stress*, *length*, and *pitch* (*tone* and *intonation*).

The discussion of the distinctiveness of segments (sounds) and supra-segmental features lies in phonology, i.e. a branch of linguistics which studies the sound-system of language. The distinctive (meaningful) features can be obtained from phonemic analysis. The distribution of phonemes (distinctive segments) in a language can be

obtained from minimal-pair and/or minimal-set analysis. Crystal (2008) defined *minimal pair* as two words differ in meaning when only one sound is changed, i.e. *pig – big*, and *minimal set* as a group of words differentiated by each having only one segment different from all others, i.e. *pig, big, tig, dig, rig, wig,*

Morphologically, word is a linguistic unit consisting of morpheme(s), can either a single free morpheme or free morpheme(s) together with bound morpheme(s). Simply, morphology is a branch of linguistics which studies how morphemes are used to construct words. Related to the phonological aspect of words, there is morphophonemics, i.e. an area in which phonological alternations of morphemes in word-formation processes are discussed.

Syntax is a branch of linguistics which studies how words are used to construct bigger linguistic units, i.e. phrases, clauses, and sentences. Simply, syntax discusses how a single word co-occurs with another/others in a string of words so-called syntactic unit. Analysis of the co-occurrence of words in a syntactic unit requires the concept of *grammatical categories*, i.e. a notion popularly known as *parts of speech*. Besides, syntactic analysis deals with the functions of words and bigger syntactic units i.e. phrases, clauses, and sentences.

Semantics is a branch of linguistics devoted to the study of meaning in language (Crystal, 2008). Harimurti (2008) pointed out that semantics deals with the meaning of speech (the subject matter discussed in phonology as phoneme); so, semantics, indeed, deals with the meaningfulness of phonemes. Meanwhile, Bréal in the late 19th century (check Matthews, 1997) perceived semantics as an emerging science opposed

to phonetics; the perception is associated to the fact that the meaningfulness of speech or segments is never discussed in phonetics.

Word meaning is discussed in the area of so-called *lexical semantics*. The term *lexical* is related to the term *lexeme*, i.e. a semantic term referring to a unit of vocabulary. Lexical relations become the main discussions in lexical semantics; both denotative and connotative meaning of words in are discussed. Dealing with the co-occurrence of linguistic units in a string of words, unlike syntax that primarily discusses the functions of linguistic units, semantics discusses their roles. Simply, rather than syntactic functions, semantic (thematic) roles are discussed in semantics. Closely related to semantics, there is pragmatics, i.e. a branch of linguistics that studies the meaning of linguistic units when they are already contextually-used.

The discussions of phonemic and morpho-phonemic matters primarily deal with oral (phonological) aspects of language. Besides dealing with oral aspects, the discussions of morphemic, phrasal, clausal, sentential matters also deal with written (orthographic) aspects. The discussions of meanings of linguistic units, either in semantics or pragmatics, deal with both oral and written aspects of language.

LINGUISTICS AND APPLIED LINGUISTICS

Phonology, morphology, and syntax lie in *micro-linguistics*, a notion coined by G. L. Trager in the late 1940s (check Matthews, 1997). Crystal (2008) contrasted *micro-linguistics* to *pre-linguistics* (comprising phonetics) and to *meta-linguistics* (subject-matter of which is the relationship between language and all extralinguistic features of

communicative behaviour; sociolinguistics is exemplified as a branch of linguistic lying in meta-linguistics).

Pre-linguistics and meta-linguistics are categorized by Crystal into *macro-linguistics*. Besides involving phonology, morphology, and syntax, Crystal (2008, p.305) also pointed out that the discussions of semantics dealing with denotative meanings lie in micro-linguistics. In other words, the discussions of semantics dealing with connotative/associative meanings no longer lie in micro-linguistics; instead, they lie in macro-linguistics. Together with semantics, based on what was pointed out by Crystal mentioned in the previous paragraph, pragmatics, socio-linguistics, anthropo-linguistics, and psycho-linguistics lie in macro-linguistics.

Applied linguistics is defined by Crystal (2008, p.31) as “a branch of linguistics where the primary concern is the application of linguistic theories, methods, and findings to the elucidation of language problems which have arisen in other areas of experience”. Language teaching, linguistic analysis of language disorders (clinical linguistics), the use of language in mother-tongue education (educational linguistics), lexicography, translation, and stylistics are exemplified by Crystal (2008) as applied-linguistic fields.

The notion of *interdisciplinary* becomes an important concept in applied linguistics (check Peniro & Cyntas (2019, p.9). More than the fields pointed by Crystal above, Peniro & Cyntas (2019) pointed out that bilingualism (along with multilingualism), conversation analysis, contrastive linguistics, sign linguistics, language assessment, literacies, discourse analysis, language pedagogy, language acquisition, language planning and policy, inter-linguistics, pragmatics, literary

studies, gender studies, censorship, professional communication, and media studies also lie in applied linguistics. In line with the primary concern of applied linguistics mentioned in the previous paragraph, this article discusses the significance of micro-linguistic principles in applied linguistics.

MICRO-LINGUISTIC PRINCIPLES

This section discusses the principles of micro-linguistics: (1) phonological principles, (2) morpho-phonemic principles, and (3) syntactic principles; as only limited discussions in semantics lie on micro-linguistics, semantic principles are not included. Linguistic phenomena exemplified in discussing the principles are taken from Indonesian and English, i.e. the major foreign language in Indonesia. The significance of the principles in applied linguistics will be summarized in the section of conclusions and suggestions.

1. Phonological Principles

1.1 Phonemes

Together with other segments (sounds), each of /v/, /ə/, /ð/, /ʒ/, /tʃ/, /dʒ/, /æ/, /ɜ/, /ɑ/, and /ɒ/ becomes an English phoneme. The distinctiveness of each segment can be seen in the minimal pairs listed below. However, they do not belong to the distribution of segments in Indonesian phonology. Consequently, Indonesian-language speakers might face difficulties in pronouncing English words containing the segments.

fail /feɪl/

veil /veɪl/

day /deɪ/

they /ðeɪ/

tree /tri:/

three /θri:/

tremor /tre.mər/

treasure /tre.ʒər/

close /kləʊz/

clothe /kləʊθ/

choke /tʃəʊk/

joke /dʒəʊk/

cat /kæt/
cart /ka:t/

bed /bed/
bird /bɜ:d/

sack /sæk/
sock /sɒk/

Together with other segments, each of /C/, /ʃ/, and /ɲ/ becomes an Indonesian phoneme; the distinctiveness of each can be seen in the following minimal pairs: *cari* ‘find’ /Ca.rɪ:/ – *jari* ‘finger’ /Ja.rɪ:/ and *nyiur* ‘palm’ /ɲɪ.jɔɾ/– *liur* ‘saliva’ /lɪ.jɔɾ/. However, they do not belong to the distribution of segments in English phonology. Therefore, it is assumed that English-language speakers might face difficulties in pronouncing Indonesian words containing the segments.

1.2 Phonotactics and Phonotactic Constraints

Difficulties faced by Indonesian-language speakers when producing English sounds also deal with phonotactic constraints. English phoneme /g/ can occur as onset like in *gun*, *be.gin*, and *pen.ta.gon* and also as coda like in *dog*, *de.sig.nate*, and *ca.ta.log*. Indonesian phoneme /g/ has two allophones, i.e. /g/ and /k/. The allophones are in complementary distribution: /g/ is realized when the phoneme occurs as onset like in *gu.ru* ‘teacher’ and *pe.gang* ‘hold’; /k/ is realized when the phoneme occurs as coda like in *dog.ma* ‘dogma’ and *gu.bug* ‘hut’.

Similar phenomenon covers other Indonesian phonemes with complementarity-distributed allophones, i.e. /b/ and /d/ along with /C/ and /ʃ/ (check Hasan, 2014, pp.67–68); n.b.: the two last-mentioned segments do not belong to English phonology. Consequently, the phonotactic constraints might cause Indonesian-language speakers to face difficulties in pronouncing English words containing /b/, /d/, and /g/ g/ occurring as coda.

Difficulties caused by phonotactic constraints might be also faced by English-language speakers when producing Indonesian sounds. Indonesian phoneme /ŋ/ can occur as onset in a syllable with /a/, /u/, and /o/ as the nucleus like in *bu.nga* ‘flower’ /bu.ŋa:/, *ter.ma.ngu* ‘dazed’ /tər.ma.ŋu:/, and *ngo.pi* ‘drink coffee’ /ŋo.pi:/. Although /ŋ/ is an English phoneme, English phonotactics refrains the segment from occurring as onset in a syllable with /a/, /u/, and /o/ as the nucleus. Similarly, Indonesian phoneme /h/ can occur as onset like in *ha.ri* ‘day’ /ha.ri/ or *ba.hu* ‘shoulder’ /ba.hu/ and can occur as coda like in *syah.wat* ‘lust’ /ʃʌh.wʌt/ or *ba.sah* ‘wet’ /bʌ.sʌh/. Although /h/ is an English phoneme and can occur as onset in English words, English phonotactics refrains the segment from occurring as coda. Consequently, English-language speakers might face difficulties in pronouncing Indonesian words containing /ŋ/ occurring as onset in a syllable with /a/, /u/, and /o/ as the nucleus and the ones containing /h/ occurring as coda.

Dealing with phonotactics, Hasibuan (1996; in Fauzi, 2015) reported that consonant-cluster may occur both as onset and coda in Indonesian words. However, the words are not originally-Indonesian words. Instead, the words (as listed below) are the ones borrowed/copied from other languages, i.e. from Sanskrit, Dutch, and English (check, Jones, 2008).

/pr/ in *pro.mo.si*
/kn/ in *knal.pot*
/dr/ in *dra.ma*
/fl/ in *flo.ra*
/tr/ in *tra.di.si*
/sm/ in *sme.san*
/sr/ in *sri.kan.di*
/str/ in *struk.tur*

/pl/ in *pla.kat*
/kr/ in *krea.tif*
/dw/ in *ja.dwal*
/gr/ in *gra.nat*
/sf/ in *sfing*
/sn/ in *sno.bis.me*
/st/ in *sta.mi.na*
/spr/ in *spra.yer*

/ps/ in *psi.ko.so.ma.tik*
/kl/ in *po.li.kli.nik*
/fr/ in *frak.si*
/gl/ in *glo.bal*
/sl/ in *slo.gan*
/sp/ in *spor.tif*
/sw/ in *swa.da.ya*
/skr/ in *skrip.si*

/skl/ in <i>skle.ro.sis</i>		
/ɾt/ in <i>sport</i>	/ɾs/ in <i>pers</i>	/ɾn/ in <i>mo.dern</i>
/ɾm/ in <i>a.larm</i>	/ɾf/ in <i>i.so.morf</i>	/ɾk/ in <i>mark</i>
/lm/ in <i>helm</i>	/lt/ in <i>volt</i>	/lk/ in <i>kalk</i>
/lf/ in <i>golf</i>	/lp/ in <i>pulp</i>	/nt/ in <i>front</i>
/ns/ in <i>sti.mu.lans</i>	/ps/ in <i>e.lips</i>	/ks/ in <i>kon.teks</i>
/ft/ in <i>lift</i>	/ɾps/ in <i>korps</i>	/rts/ in <i>herts</i>

2. Morpho-phonemic Principles

2.1 Grapheme-Phoneme Correspondences

Hasibuan's report mentioned in 3.1.2 deals with lexicography. Crystal (2008, p.278) pointed out that lexicography can be seen as a branch of "applied lexicology" and he defined *lexicology* as a term used in semantics for overall study of a language's vocabulary. Grapheme-phoneme correspondences is an important notion in lexicography. The notion was defined by Field (2004, p.124) as rules specifying the relationship between a written letter and the phoneme which it conventionally represents.

Grapheme is popularly known as *spelling* and its Indonesian equivalent is *ejaan*. Based on *Pedoman Umum Ejaan Bahasa Indonesia* 'General Guidelines for Indonesian Spelling' published by Badan Pengembangan dan Pembinaan Bahasa Republik Indonesia 'Board of Language Development of the Republic of Indonesia' (2016), the current Indonesian spelling system is the improvement of *Ejaan Suwandi* (Suwandi Spelling-system). The spelling system uses Latin alphabets (check Harimurti 2008, p.55). Detailed grapheme-phoneme correspondences in Indonesian were explained by Hasan (2014). In addition, as can be seen in the following list, Fauzi (2018) reported particular grapheme-phoneme correspondences found in Indonesian words copied/borrowed from English.

- No grapheme corresponds to a particular phoneme: no orthographic form corresponding to each of /ʒ/ and /j/ in *a.ne.mi.a* /ʒa.ne.mi.ja:/ and no orthographic form corresponding to each of /ʒ/ and /w/ in *in.flu.en.za* /ʒIn.flu.wɛn.za:/.
- Each of two different single graphemes also corresponds to different phonemes but the phonemes are manifested as an identical phonetic realization: *f* corresponding to /f/ in *fax* /fʌks/ and *v* also corresponding to /f/ in *va.se.lin* /vʌ.sə.lɪn/.
- A single grapheme corresponds to a sound-cluster: *x* -- /ks/ in *fax* /fʌks/.
- Double graphemes correspond to a single phoneme: *tt* -- /t/ in *watt* /wʌt/.

2.2 Morphemes and Allomorphs

Morphemes are elements of words; and certain morphemes have alternations or are realized as more than one variant. The variants are called allomorphs, i.e. morphological units explained by Yavaş (2011, p.47) as different manifestations (realizations) of the same morpheme. He exemplified that regular past-tense suffix *-ed* in English verbs has three predictable phonological realizations, i.e. /əd/, /t/, and /d/. Sound-cluster /əd/ is realized if the verb final sound is an alveolar (/t/ or /d/) like in *tested* /tɛstəd/ or *blended* /blɛndəd/. Voiceless /t/ is realized if the verb final sound is voiceless like in *walked* /wɔkt/. Voiced /d/ is realized if the verb final sound is voiced like in *seemed* /si:məd/.

2.3 Morpho-phonemics

Morpho-phonemics is explained by Crystal (2008, p.315) as a branch of linguistics referring to the analysis and classification of the phonological factors which affect the appearance of morphemes. The points below discuss morphophonemic rules in the

word-formation process both in Indonesian and English. Some points deal with morphological notions which are related to the notions of morpho-phonemic rules.

(a) assimilation

The realizations of /t/ or /d/ as the allomorphs of suffix *-ed* exemplified in 2.2 show assimilation, i.e. a phenomenon that occurs when a speech sound undergoes a change in articulation in connected speech, becoming more like another immediately or otherwise adjacent sound (Malmkjær, 1991, p.35). Assimilation is also found in some realizations of English bound morpheme *in-*, which at least has three allomorphs: /ɪn/ like in *informal* /ɪnfɔ:məl/, /ɪm/ like in *imbalance* /ɪmbæləns/, and /ɪr/ like in *irregular* /ɪregjələ/. The realization of nasal-bilabial /m/ in *imbalance* is in order the segment is more alike its adjacent sound, i.e. plosive-nasal /b/ b/ as the initial sound of root *balance*. Furthermore, the realization of trill /r/ in *irregular order* is in order the segment is identical to /r/, i.e. the initial sound of root *regular*.

(b) prolexeme

Due to its occurrence in the initial position of a word, *in-* is often assumed as an English prefix. Contrary to the assumption, the writers of this article do not consider it so. Instead, it is considered a prolexeme. The consideration is based on the fact that it has ‘not’ as its lexical meaning, as Harimurti (2008, p.200) explained prolexeme as a non-expandable bound lexical-unit (bound morpheme) which has a lexical meaning. Prolexemes are different from prefixes, i.e. bound morphemes which have grammatical meaning but not lexical meaning. Indonesian bound morphemes *me-* /mə/

and *pe-* /pə/ are prefixes; and the allomorphs they have are discussed in points (d), (e), (f), and (g).

(c) Indonesian and English prolexemes

Since it has ‘after’ as its lexical meaning, Indonesian bound morpheme *pasca-* like in *pascabayar* ‘post-paid’, *pascanikah* ‘post-marriage’, or *pascapanen* ‘post-harvest’ is considered as a prolexeme. Similarly, since it has ‘before’ as its lexical meaning, Indonesian bound morpheme *pra-* like in *prabayar* ‘prepaid’, *pranikah* ‘pre-wedding’, or *prasejarah* ‘prehistory’ is also a prolexeme. Another Indonesian prolexeme is *antar-* like in *antaragama*, *antarbangsa*, and *antarpulau*, and their English equivalents are respectively *interfaith*, *international*, and *interinsular*. Thus, bound morpheme *inter-* occurring in those English words can be considered a prolexeme in English.

(d) allomorph of Indonesian prefixes

Indonesian prefixes *me-* /mə/ and *pe-* /pə/, as can be seen in the list below, can attach words with nasals (/m/ in 1, /n/ in 2, /ŋ/ in 3, and /ŋ/ in 4), trill /r/ (in 5), lateral/l/ (in 6), and approximant (/w/ in 7 and /j/ in 8) as the initial sound. In addition to /mə/ and /pə/, each prefix has other allomorphs, i.e., *mem-* /məm/ – *pem-* /pəm/ (in 9–11), *men-* /məŋ/ – *pen-* /pəŋ/ (in 12–14), *meny-* /məŋ/ – *peny-* /pəŋ/ (in 15), *meng-* /məŋ/ – *peng-* /pəŋ/ (in 16–19), and *menge-* /mə . ŋə/ – *penge-* /pə . ŋə/ (in 20).

1.	<i>makan</i> ‘eat’	→	<i>memakan</i> ‘eat’	<i>pemakan</i> ‘eater’
2.	<i>nilai</i> ‘value’	→	<i>menilai</i> ‘assess’	<i>penilai</i> ‘assessor’
3.	<i>nyanyi</i> ‘sing’	→	<i>menyanyi</i> ‘sing’	<i>penyanyi</i> ‘singer’
4.	<i>ngorok</i> ‘snore’	→	<i>mengorok</i> ‘snore’	<i>pengorok</i> ‘someone who snores’
5.	<i>rasa</i> ‘taste’	→	<i>merasa</i> ‘taste’	<i>perasa</i> ‘taster’
6.	<i>latih</i> ‘train’	→	<i>melatih</i> ‘train’	<i>pelatih</i> ‘trainer’

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7.	<i>wangi</i> ‘fragrant’	→	<i>mewangi</i> ‘scent’	<i>pewangi</i> ‘fragrance ingredient’
8.	<i>yudisium</i> ‘graduate’	→	<i>meyudisium</i> ‘grant the graduate’	<i>peyudisium</i> ‘graduate awardee’
9.	<i>pakai</i> ‘use’	→	<i>memakai</i> ‘use’	<i>pemakai</i> ‘user’
10	<i>bawa</i> ‘carry’	→	<i>membawa</i> ‘carry’	<i>pembawa</i> ‘carrier’
.				
11	<i>fitnah</i> ‘slander’	→	<i>memfitnah</i> ‘slander’	<i>pemfitnah</i> ‘slenderer’
.				
12	<i>tukar</i> ‘change’	→	<i>menukar</i> ‘change’	<i>penukar</i> ‘changer’
.				
13	<i>dayung</i> ‘paddle’	→	<i>mendayung</i> ‘row’	<i>pendayung</i> ‘paddler’
.				
14	<i>syarah</i> ‘lecture’	→	<i>mensyarah</i> ‘give lecture’	<i>pensyarah</i> ‘lecturer’
.				
15	<i>salin</i> ‘copy’	→	<i>menyalin</i> ‘copy’	<i>penyalin</i> ‘copier’
.				
16	<i>kuat</i> ‘strong’	→	<i>mengkuat</i> ‘get stronger’	<i>pengkuat</i> ‘amplifier’
.				
17	<i>gali</i> ‘dig’	→	<i>menggali</i> ‘dig’	<i>penggali</i> ‘digger’
.				
18	<i>ambil</i> ‘take’	→	<i>mengambil</i> ‘take’	<i>pengambil</i> ‘taker’
.				
19	<i>hasut</i> ‘incite’	→	<i>menghasut</i> ‘incite’	<i>penghasut</i> ‘instigator’
.				
20	<i>bom</i> ‘bomb’	→	<i>mengebom</i> ‘bomb’	<i>pengebom</i> ‘bomber’
.				

(e) assimilation-associated insertion

Nasal insertions are found in 9–19: bilabial /m/ (in 9–11), alveolar /n/ (in 12–14), palatal /ɲ/ (in 15), and velar /ŋ/ (in 16–19). Sound-cluster /ŋə/ insertion is found in 20. Sound insertions in 9–19 associate with assimilation because they associate with the sound occurring as the initial sound of the words attached by the prefixes.

- Bilabial /m/ inserted (in 9–11) associates with bilabial-fortis /p/ (in 9), bilabial-lenis /b/ (in 10), and labiodental-fortis /f/ (in 11); the place of articulation of labiodentals is close to the place of articulation of labials.
- Alveolar /n/ inserted (in 12–14) associates with alveolar-fortis /t/ (in 12), alveolar-lenis /d/ (in 13), and postalveolar-fortis /ʃ/ (in 14); the place of articulation of postalveolars is close to the place of articulation of alveolars.
- Palatal /ɲ/ inserted (in 15) associates with alveolar-fortis /s/; the place of articulation of alveolars is close to the place of articulation of palatals.

- Insertion of velar /ŋ/ (in 16–19) associates with velar-fortis /k/ (in 16), velar-lenis /g/ (in 17), fricative-glottal /Ɂ/ (in 18), and fricative-glottal /h/ (in 19); the place of articulation of glottals is close to the place of articulation of velars.

(f) allomorph attaching Indonesian monosyllabic words

Insertion of sound-cluster /ŋə/ (in 20) associates with a morphophonemic rule that governs allomorph /mə . ŋə/ or /pə . ŋə/ attaches monosyllabic words. An exception is explained by Hasan (2013) that Indonesian monosyllabic word like *klip* ‘clip’ is not attached by the allomorphs, but by /məŋ/ or /pəŋ/. Therefore, the results of the attachments of the prefixes to the words produces *mengklip* /məŋ . kɫɪp/ or *pengklip* /pəŋ . kɫɪp/.

(g) deletion

Sound deletions are found in some the attachments of prefixes *me-* and *pe-*. The initial sound of the attached word is deleted: bilabial-fortis /p/ (in 9), plosive-alveolar-fortis /t/ (in 12), fricative-alveolar-fortis /s/ (in 15), velar-fortis /k/ (in 16), and glottal-fortis /Ɂ/ (in 18). The recapitulation shows that the deletions only involve fortis consonants.

(h) alternation or replacement

In English *ir.re.gu.lar* /ɹɪ.re.gju.ləɹ/, trill /ɹ/ (the initial sound of the word attached by *in-*) is deleted. Nasal /n/ as the final sound of *in-* is altered or replaced by /ɹ/. In addition, unlike /n/ which occurs as coda, /ɹ/ resulted from the sound alternation, is syllabically-moved and occurs as onset of the antepenultimate in *ir.re.gu.lar*.

(i) insertion, deletion, and alternation in English words

Sound insertions, deletions, and alternations are found in the attachment of English suffix *-al*. In *psy.cho.lo.gy* → *psy.cho.lo.gi.cal*, velar /k/ is inserted and becomes the onset of the final syllable. In *gram.mar* → *gram.ma.ti.cal*, approximant /ɹ/ (the final sound of the word attached by the suffix) is deleted. Sound-cluster /tɪk/ is inserted: /tɪ/ becomes penultimate and /k/ becomes onset of the final syllable. At least, two sounds are altered: front vowel /æ/ occurring as nucleus in the initial syllable of *grammar* is altered into mid vowel /ə/ (schwa) and still occurs as the nucleus of the initial syllable in *grammatical* and /ə/ occurring as nucleus in the final syllable of *gram.mar* is altered into /æ/ and occurs as nucleus of antepenultimate in *gram.ma.ti.cal*. The sound alternations associate with a particular rule of stress-distribution in English: schwa is realized in unstressed syllables.

(j) alternation and movement

Certain sound alternations and movements are caused by the attachment of Indonesian suffix *-an*. In *ja.wab* ‘reply’ /jʌ.wʌp/ → *ja.wa.ban* ‘answer’ /jʌ.wʌ.bʌn/, bilabial-fortis /p/ occurring as coda in the final syllable in *ja.wab* is altered into bilabial-lenis /b/ and is syllabically moved. In *mau.lud* ‘birthday of Prophet Muhammad’ /mʌw.lʊt/ → *mau.lu.dan* ‘celebration of *maulud*’ /mʌw.lʊ.dʌn/, alveolar-fortis /t/ occurring as coda in the final syllable in *mau.lud* is altered into alveolar-lenis /d/ and is also syllabically moved. The sound alterations associated with the complementary distribution of

phoneme /b/ and /d/ discussed in 3.1.2. Each of the sound movements causes the altered sound to occur as onset in the final syllable, i.e. in *ja.wa.ban* and *mau.lu.dan*.

(k) infixes

Bound morphemes *-em-*, *-er*, and *-el-* are infixes in Indonesian; and the attachment of each successively can be seen in *ge.tar* ‘vibrate’ /gə.tɑr/ → *ge.me.tar* ‘shiver’ /gə.mə.tɑr/, *gi.gi* ‘tooth’ /gi.gi/ → *ge.ri.gi* ‘serration’ /gə.ri.gi/, and *gem.bung* ‘bloated’ /gəm.buŋ/ → *ge.lembung* ‘bubble’ /gə.ləm.buŋ/. The attachments of the infixes cause sound movements. In the words resulted from the attachment, the initial sound of each infix occurs as nucleus of the initial syllable and the final sound of each infix occurs as onset of penultimate; and nucleus of the initial syllable of the words attached by the infix is syllabically moved and becomes nucleus of penultimate of the words resulted from the attachment. In *gembung* → *gelembung*, nucleus + coda of the initial syllable in *gembung* is syllabically-moved and occurs as the nucleus + coda of the penultimate in *gelembung*.

(l) circumfixes

Bound morphemes *ke-an* and *pe-an* are circumfixes in Indonesian; and the attachment of each to a root successively can be seen in *sama* ‘same’ /sa.ma:/ → *ke.sa.ma.an* ‘similarity’ /kə.sɑ.mɑ.ʔɑn/ and *mandi* ‘bath’ /mɑn.di:/ → *pe.man.di.an* ‘bathing place’ /pə.mɑn.dI.jɑn/. The attachment of each circumfix to a stem (a word already attached by an affix, i.e. prefix *ber-*) can be found in *bersama* ‘together’ /bər.sa.ma/ →

ke.ber.sa.ma.an ‘togetherness’ /kə.bər.sə.mə.ʔən/ and *ber.mandi* ‘be bathed’ /bər.mən.di:/ → *per.mandi.an* ‘baptism’ /pər.mən.dɪ.jən/. The attachments of the circumfixes cause single-sound insertions: plosive /ʔ/ in *ke.sa.ma.an* and *ke.ber.sa.ma.an* and approximant /j/ in *pemandian* and *permandian*. An insertion of another segment, i.e. approximant /w/, is also caused by the circumfix attachment like in *sa.tu* ‘one’ /sa.tu:/ → *ke.sa.tu.an* ‘unity’ /kə.sə.tu.wən/, *ber.sa.tu* ‘unite’ /bər.sa.tu:/ → *ke.ber.sa.tu.an* ‘unitenes’ /kə.bər.sə.tu.wən/, and *ber.sa.tu* ‘unite’ /bər.sa.tu:/ → *per.sa.tu.an* ‘unity’ /pər.sə.tu.wən/.

(m) haplology of /bə/ from /bər/

The attachment of *pe-an* causes sound-cluster deletion. In *bersama* → *per.sa.ma.an*, *ber.mandi* → *per.mandi.an*, and *ber.sa.tu* → *per.sa.tu.an*, sound-cluster /bə/, the first two segments of prefix *ber-* is deleted. The deletion is *haplology*, i.e. a term explained by Crystal (2008, p.224) to refer to the omission of some of the sounds occurring in a sequence of similar articulations. Thus, the deletion of /bə/ is caused by the occurrence of a particular similar sound-cluster, i.e. /pə/ (the initial part of the circumfix). The haplology causes the words resulted from the attachment realized as /pər.sə.mə.ʔən/, /pər.mən.dɪ.jən/, and /pər.sə.tu.wən/, instead of */pə.bər.sə.mə.ʔən/, */pə.bər.mən.dɪ.jən/, and */pə.bər.sə.tu.wən/.

(n) haplology of /mə/ from /mən/

Haplology also happens in *pe-an* attachment to a stem with prefix *me-*. Besides in *bertukar* ‘to exchange’ → *pertukaran* ‘switch-over/change’, haplology also happens in

menukar ‘to switch/replace/exchange’ → *penukaran* ‘exchange’; the haplology of /mə/ (the first two segments of allomorph *men-* in *me.nu.kar*) is also caused by the occurrence of a certain similar sound-cluster, i.e. /pɛ/ (the initial part of circumfix *pe-an*). Haplology causes the words resulted from the attachment of circumfix *pe-an* realized as /pɛr.tu.kl.rʌn/, and /pɛ.nu.kl.rʌn/, instead of */pɛ.bɛr.tu.kl.rʌn/, and */pɛ.mɛ.nu.kl.rʌn/. Instead of sound insertion like in *kesamaan*, *persamaan*, *kebersamaan*, *pemandian*, *permandian*, *kesatuan*, *persatuan*, *kebersatuan*, sound movement happens in *pertukaran* and *penukaran*: coda of the final syllable of the stems is syllabically moved and becomes onset of the words resulted from the circumfix attachment.

(o) assimilation-associated alternation

Sound alternations are also found in the attachment of the circumfix exemplified in points (l), (m,) and (n). Tense vowels in the words attached by the circumfixes are altered into lax vowels in the words resulted from the circumfix attachment. The alteration is associated with assimilation because the realizations of lax vowels are influenced by the occurrence of lax vowels in the circumfix.

(p) dissimilation

In English, suffix *-th* /θ/ is grammatically used as ordinal-number marker. The attachment of the suffix can be seen in *fourth* /fɔːθ/, *fifth* /fɪft/, *sixth* /sɪkst/, *se.venth* /se.vənθ/, *eighth* /eɪtθ/, etc. Instead of as fricative /θ/, the suffix is altered and realized as plosive /t/ in *fifth* and *sixth*. The alternation is caused by the occurrence

of fricative /f/ in *fifth* and fricative /s/ in *sixth*. The alternation of fricative /θ/ to plosive /t/ deals with the effort to refrain two fricatives (two similar sounds) from occurring adjacently. In contrast to assimilation, the phenomena discussed in this point is dissimilation, which is defined by Harimurti (2008, p. 51) as an alternation happening when two similar (identical) sounds change into dissimilar sounds. He exemplified that one of trills /r/ occurs in *ber-* /bər/ + *ajar* /ʔʌ.Jʌr/ is altered to /l/. Consequently, instead of resulting **berajar* /bə.rʌ.Jʌr/, the attachment of prefix *ber-* to root *ajar* ‘learn’ results *belajar* ‘learn’ /bə.lʌ.Jʌr/.

3. Syntactic Principles

3.1 Phrases

Unlike clause, a syntactic unit comprising subject and predicate, phrase is a syntactic unit lacking subject-predicate structure. Crystal (2008, p.225) explained that *head* is a term used in the grammatical description of some phrase types; and it refers to the central element of a phrase. In Indonesian and English, at least, there are four types of phrases (Fauzi and Maulana, 2020).

	type	Indonesian Phrase	English Phrase
(1)	noun phrase or NP: a noun as the head	<i>gadis cantik</i>	<i>beautiful girl</i>
(2)	verb phrase or VP: a verb as the head	<i>akan datang</i>	<i>will come</i>
(3)	adjective verb or AP: an adjective as the head	<i>cukup baik</i>	<i>good enough</i>
(4)	prepositional phrase or PP: a preposition as the head	<i>sejak kemarin</i>	<i>since yesterday</i>

Noun, verb, adjective, and preposition (including adverb, article, conjunction, interjection, pronoun, and particle) are explained by Crystal (2008, p.352) to be

included as part of speech or traditional term for grammatical class of words. In explaining syntactic relations between elements of phrase, Fauzi and Maulana (2000) used *grammatical category* to refer to *part of speech*. Here, *grammatical category* is also preferred to be used. The preference is based on the Crystal's (2008, p.66) explanation that a grammatical category is used in the analysis of word-class to identify the syntactic relationship between words in a sentence".

The notion of *head* above-mentioned is one of syntactic functions. In Indonesian NP *gadis cantik* and its English equivalent *beautiful girl*, noun *gadis* or *girl* functions as the head, while adjective *cantik* or *beautiful* functions as a modifier. Slot of modifier in a NP is not always filled by an adjective as in Indonesian NP *kotak pensil* and its English equivalent *pencil box*, noun *kotak* or *box* functions as the head, while noun *pensil* or *pencil* functions as a modifier; such modifier is often discussed as *noun adjunct* in grammar. Meanwhile, in Indonesian NP *seorang gadis* and its English equivalent *a girl*, instead of functioning as a modifier, article *seorang* or *a* functions as a determiner.

In Indonesian VP *akan datang* and its English equivalent *will come*, verb *datang* or *come* functions as the head, while particle *akan* or *will* functions as a modality-marker. In Indonesian VP *belajar bahasa Inggris* and its English equivalent *study English*, verb *belajar* or *study* functions as the head, while each of NP *bahasa Inggris* and noun *English* functions as an object. In Indonesian VP *belajar bersama* and its English equivalent *study together*, besides functioning as a modifier which modifies the verb as the head, adverb *bersama* or *together* functions as an adverbial. Adverbial can also be seen in VP *belajar dengan tekun* and its English equivalent *study hard* and

in VP *belajar di rumah* and its English equivalent *study at home*. PP *dengan tekun* or adverb *hard* functions as an adverbial; and PP *di rumah* or *at home* also functions as an adverbial.

In Indonesian AP *sangat cantik* or *cantik sangat* and its English equivalent *very beautiful*, adjective *cantik* or *beautiful* functions as the head, while particle *sangat* or *very* functions as an intensifier. When occurring before the head like in *sangat cantik* and *very beautiful*, the syntactic unit is called pre-intensifier; when occurring after the head like in *cantik sangat*, the syntactic unit is called post-intensifier. Similarly, due to its occurrence after the head in *gadis cantik*, adjective *cantik* functions as a post-modifier; and due to its occurrence before the head in *beautiful girl*, adjective *beautiful* functions as a pre-modifier. Due to its occurrence after the head in *buku ini*, pronoun *ini* functions as a post-determiner; and due to its occurrence before the head in *this book* (as the equivalent for *buku ini*), pronoun *this* functions as a pre-determiner.

PP is explained by Bussmann (1996, p.935) to have three different representations: preposition + NP like *along the step*, preposition + adverb like *since yesterday*, and pro-prepositional phrase like *hereby*. Indonesian equivalents for those three exemplified PP, i.e. *sepanjang jalan setapak*, *sejak kemarin*, and *dengan ini* are also exemplified by Fauzi and Maulana (2020) as PP-s in Indonesian.

3.2 Clause

At the level of clause, subject is a syntactic function which should co-occur with another syntactic function so-called predicate. Quoting Quirk and Greenbaum (1973), Fauzi and Maulana (2020, p.109) pointed out that grammatical categories functioning

as a subject comprise noun, NP, or pronoun as can be seen in the following English clauses along with their Indonesian equivalents.

(a)	noun as in	<u>John</u> carefully searched the room	or	<u>John</u> mencari ruangan itu dengan berhati-hati
(b)	NP as in	<u>his brother</u> grew happier gradually	or	<u>saudara laki-lakinya</u> semakin lincah
(c)	pronoun as in	<u>she</u> is a teacher	or	<u>dia</u> seorang guru or <u>dia</u> guru

Each of VP *carefully searched the room* and its Indonesian equivalent VP *mencari ruangan itu dengan berhati-hati*, VP *grew happier gradually* and its Indonesian equivalent AP *semakin lincah*, VP *is a teacher* and its Indonesian equivalent NP *seorang guru* or noun *guru* function as a predicate. They show that only VP can function as a predicate in English clauses; while an English clause *he yawned* (Indonesian equivalent of which is *dia menguap*) shows that a single verb can also function as a predicate in an English clause. The exemplified clauses above, the one exemplified in the previous sentence, and the acceptability of *dia cantik* ‘she is beautiful’ as a clause in Indonesian grammar show that noun, NP, verb, VP, adjective, and AP can function as a predicate in an Indonesian clause.

Other notions, i.e. *object*, *complement*, and *adverbial* are syntactic functions which also lie at the level of clause. In clause (a) exemplified above, each NP *the room* and *ruangan itu* functions as an object. In *the teacher gave the students the books* and its Indonesian equivalent *sang guru memberi para siswa buku-buku itu*, there two types of objects: each of NP *the books* and *buku itu* functions as a direct object, while each of NP *the students* and *para siswa* functions as an indirect object. The occurrence of preposition *to* and its Indonesian equivalent *kepada* when the clauses are transformed into *the teacher gave the books to the students* and *sang guru memberi*

buku-buku itu kepada para siswa becomes the marker that NP *the students* and *para siswa* function as indirect objects.

In *she is beautiful*, the adjective *beautiful* is a complement; and in its Indonesian equivalent *dia cantik*, besides functioning mainly as a predicate, *cantik* also functions as a complement. Similarly, in *she is a teacher*, NP *a teacher* is a complement and in its Indonesian equivalent *dia seorang guru* or *dia guru*, besides functioning mainly as a predicate, each NP *seorang guru* or noun *guru* also functions as a complement. Such a complement in grammar is often explained as a subjective complement. In *she is beautiful* and *she is a teacher*, verb functions to link the subject to its complement; that becomes the reason why grammarians categorize it as a linking verb.

In addition, there is an objective complement. Adjective *happy* or *bahagia* in *you make me happy* and its Indonesian equivalent *kau membuat aku bahagia* functions as an objective complement because each adjective complements pronoun *me* or *aku* functions as an object. Noun *king* or *raja* in *she makes the man king in the palace of her heart* and its Indonesian equivalent *dia menjadikan pria itu raja di istana hatinya* also functions as objective complement because each noun complements NP *the man* or *pria itu*, each of which functions as an object.

In clause (a) exemplified above, adverb *carefully* and PP *dengan berhati-hati* functions as an adverbial. In grammar such adverbial is called adverb of manner. Other types of adverbs comprise adverb of time, adverb of place, adverb of frequency, adverb of certainty, interrogative adverb, and conjunction adverb. Rather than at the level of clause, some of those adverbs show their functions more at the level of sentence.

3.3 Sentence

Orthographically, a sentence is defined as a string of words that begins with a capital letter and ends with a particular punctuation mark; and the string at least consists of one clause. A declarative sentence ends with a dot or a full-stop; an exclamative sentence ends with an exclamation mark; and interrogative sentence end with a question mark. Syntactically, in English and Indonesian, at least, there are four types of sentences: simple sentence which consists of one clause, compound sentence which consists of at least two independent causes, complex sentence which consists of an independent clause and a dependent clause, and compound-complex sentence which consist of more than two clauses: one of which is an independent clause and one of the others should be a dependent clause (check Fauzi and Maulana, 2020).

Interrogative adverbs function to mark interrogative sentences. English words and their Indonesian equivalents exemplified in the following sentences are interrogative adverbs, i.e. the ones which are underlined.

<u>What</u> are you doing?	<u>Apa</u> yang sedang kau kerjakan?
<u>Who</u> helped to find the address?	<u>Siapa</u> yang membantumu menemukan alamat itu?
<u>When</u> will you finish your assignment?	<u>Bila</u> Anda akan menyelesaikan tugas Anda?
<u>Where</u> did you meet your wife for the first time?	<u>Di mana</u> Anda pertama kali bertemu dengan istri Anda?
<u>Why</u> are you sad?	<u>Mengapa</u> kau bersedih?
<u>How</u> did you succeed to deal with the problem?	<u>Bagaimana</u> Anda berhasil mengatasi masalah itu?

Each of English conjunctions *and*, *but*, and *or* (their Indonesian equivalents respectively are *dan*, *tetapi*, and *atau*) can function as a coordinator which coordinates (connects) two independent clauses in a compound sentence: *and* or *dan* coordinates two independent clauses which do not show any contrary meaning; *but* or *tetapi*

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coordinates two independent clauses which show certain contrary meaning; and *or* or *atau* coordinates two independent clauses which alternates each other. Due to their functions as coordinators, in grammar they are popularly known as coordinate conjunctions. The following compound sentences exemplify the occurrence of the coordinate conjunctions.

*I like swimming
and I do it in my spare time.*

*Some students have good voice
but they are reluctant to join students choir.*

*Do you want to have a simple breakfast
or do you prefer having an enormous brunch?*

*Aku suka berenang
dan aku melakukannya di waktu senggangku.*

*Beberapa siswa memiliki suara yang bagus
tetapi mereka enggan bergabung dengan
kelompok paduan suara mahasiswa.*

*Apakah kau mau sarapan yang sederhana
atau apakah kau lebih menyukai hidangan porsi
besar sebagai gabungan sarapan dan makan
siang?*

In addition to coordinate conjunctions, there are sub-ordinate conjunctions which are explained by Harimurti (2008, p.131) as the ones used to to begin a dependent clause and function to relate the dependent clause to a main clause (an independent clause) in a complex sentence. Harimurti exemplified *meskipun*, *kalaupun*, and *bahwa* (their English equivalents respectively are *although*, *if*, and *that*) as sub-ordinate conjunctions. The following complex sentences exemplify the occurrence of the coordinate conjunctions.

*Meskipun ia berasal dari keluarga tidak mampu,
ia mampu bersekolah sampai ke
jenjang perguruan tinggi.*

*Kalaupun tidak ada upaya perlindungan oleh
pemerintah,
sejumlah bahasa daerah di wilayah timur
Indonesia terancam punah.*

*Banyak penelitian menunjukkan
bahwa bahasa-bahasa yang dipertuturkan di
Hawaii berkerabat dengan bahasa-bahasa di
Nusantara.*

*Although he came from a poor family,
he was able to pursue his study up to university
level.*

*If there are no protective efforts done by the
government, some local languages in eastern
Indonesia are endangered.*

*Many researches show
that the languages spoken in Hawaii
are related to languages in the archipelago.*

Unlike coordinate conjunctions and subordinate conjunctions which function to connect syntactic units with-in a sentence (intra-sentential connectors), conjunction adverbs like *however* and *therefore* (their Indonesian equivalents respectively are *namun*, and *oleh karena itu*) function as inter-sentential connectors. How the conjunction adverbs connect (relate) two adjacent sentences can be seen in the following examples.

John is notorious for his bad attitude and behavior. However, Mary is still willing to be his girlfriend.
Malay had been widely used in the Archipelago. Therefore, the founding fathers of Indonesia decided it to derive Indonesian language from Malay.

John dicap buruk karena sikap dan perilakunya. Namun, Mary tetap bersedia menjadi kekasihnya.
Bahasa Melayu telah digunakan secara luas di Nusantara. Oleh karena itu, para tokoh pendiri bangsa Indonesia memutuskan untuk menderivasi bahasa Indonesia dari bahasa Melayu.

Conjunctive adverbs *however* or *namun* and *therefore* or *oleh karena itu* occur in the initial position of a sentence and function to connect the sentence to the previous sentence. The two adjacent sentences can be combined into a single sentence. However, the conjunctive adverbs, functioning as inter-sentential connectors, should be replaced to syntactic units functioning as intra-sentential connectors. The replacements can be seen in the following sentences.

John is notorious for his bad attitude and behavior but Mary is still willing to be his girlfriend.
Malay had been widely used in the Archipelago; so, the founding fathers of Indonesia decided to derive Indonesian language from Malay.

John dicap buruk karena sikap dan perilakunya tetapi Mary tetap bersedia menjadi kekasihnya.
Bahasa Melayu telah digunakan secara luas di Nusantara sehingga para tokoh pendiri bangsa Indonesia memutuskan untuk menderivasi bahasa Indonesia dari bahasa Melayu.

CONCLUSION

Phonemic differences between Indonesian and English are discussed in 1.1. In order to be able to train students to produce oral language appropriately, the practitioners of teaching English to Indonesian speakers and teaching Indonesian to English-speakers

needs to bring the differences into consideration when teaching. Phonotactic constraints, which are discussed in 1.2, also need to be considered by the practitioners in order they can train students to deal with the problematic pronunciations.

Practitioners of translation, especially oral translation (interpreting) should be able to recognize the phonemic differences and phonotactic-constraints above-mentioned. The recognition will really help them in perceiving language accurately and producing language appropriately when translating (interpreting). When doing written translation, rules of grapheme-phoneme correspondences which are discussed in 1.2 and 2.1 need be brought into consideration by practitioners of translation. Paying attention to the rules of grapheme-phoneme correspondences will help them in using appropriate orthographic forms both in English and Indonesian.

Hasibuan's (1996) report which is discussed in 1.2 contributes to the area of Indonesian lexicology and lexicography. Further investigation on phonotactics and phonotactic constraints in Indonesian-word formation processes, especially the ones copied/borrowed from other languages, need to be conducted for the purpose of further development of Indonesian lexicology and lexicography. Practitioners of teaching Indonesian, both as the educational language in Indonesian and as a foreign language, need to be well-informed with the development.

Concerns given by Indonesian and/or English teaching practitioners for predictability of the phonological realizations of morphemes discussed in 2.2 & 2.3 and their concerns for morphophonemic phenomena discussed in 2.3 comprising assimilation [in (a), (e) & (o)], dissimilation [in (p)], insertion [in (e), (f), (i), & (l)], deletion [in (g) & (i)], alternation [in (h), (i), (j), & (o)], movement [in (j), & (k)], and haplology [in

(m) & (n)] really help them in helping students when facing problem dealing with word-formations in Indonesia and English, both orally and orthographically. Indonesian and/or English teaching practioners' concerns also need to be given for particular phenomena like the existence of prolexeme [discussed in 2.3 (b) & (c)] and the distributions of infixes [discussed in 2.3 (k)] and circumfix [discussed in 2.3 (l), (m) & (n)].

The development of lexicology and lexicography (in which morphophonemic rules are implemented) is useful for the Indonesian governmental institution which deals with language planning and policy. The institution can use the results of the development for the efforts of sustainable development of Indonesian grammar. The institution can also use them for the purpose of issuing regulations dealing with language in public use, i.e. regulations which relate to the area of lanscape linguistics.

Along with the similiarities between Indonesian and English, syntactic differences are also found in the discussions of syntactic structures in 3.1 -- 3.3. Concerns given by practitioners of language teaching, practitioners of translation (both oral and written translation), stake-hoders of language planning and policy, are needed for the syntactic similarities and differences. Therefore, (a) successfulness of teaching Indonesian as the educational language, teaching Indonesian as a foreign language, and teaching English as a foreign language, (b) appropriateness in the area of Indonesian-English translation and vice versa, (c) sustainability in the development of lexicology and lexicography carried out by Indonesian institution functioning as the language-planner, and (d) appropriateness use of Indonesian as an official language and appropriateness

use of English as a major foreign language in Indonesia, especially in the public area, can be obtained.

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