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Written, Scratch and Spelling Languages

Yullips Ziwen Wong

City University of Macau, Taipa, Macao

Abstract---Language is a sound system. Linguistics sees language as spoken language, spoken language, not written language. However, linguistics does not close itself to written language, because anything related to language is also an object of linguistics. Oral language linguistics is primary, while written language is secondary. In that language, there is no known written language variety, only spoken language variety. Written language can be considered as a "record" of spoken language, as a human effort to "store" the language or to be conveyed to other people who are in a different space and time. However, it turns out that the recorded written language is not perfect. Many elements of spoken language, such as stress, intonation, and tone, cannot be perfectly recorded in written language, whereas in certain languages these three elements are very important. There are several types of script, namely pictographic script, ideographic script, syllabic script, and phonemic script. None of these types of characters can "record" spoken language perfectly. Many elements of spoken language cannot be described by the script accurately and accurately.

Keywords---ideographic, language approach, language society, oral language, phonemic script, pictographic script, spoken language, syllabic script, written language.

Introduction

The word linguistics is derived from the Latin *lingua* which means "language" in Romance languages, namely languages that come from Latin there are words that are

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Corresponding author: Wong, Y. Z. | Email: ziwenwong@cityu.edu.mo

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similar or similar to the Latin word *lingua*. These include *lingua* in Italian, *lengue* in Spanish, *lingue* (and *langage*) in French. The three stages of scientific knowledge are speculation, observation and classification, and the formulation of theory. The concept of language as a language approach: 1) language as speech, 2) language is unique, 3) language as a system, 4) language is dynamic, 5) language is empirical. The grouping of the names of the linguistic sub-disciplines are: Based on the object of study, based on objectives, based on flow or theory.

Linguistic analysis is carried out on language, or more precisely on all levels of language, namely phonetics, phonemics, morphology, syntax, and semantics. The linguistic analysis carried out are: Structure, System, and Distribution, Analysis of Elements in Process Analysis of Elements, Analysis of Direct Subordinates. Linguistics provides direct benefits to people engaged in activities related to language. Definition of language: "Language is a system of arbitrary sound symbols used by members of social groups to work together, communicate, and identify themselves (Motamedi et al., 2019; Manolitsis et al., 2009).

The essential characteristics or properties of language are: (1) language is a system, (2) language is in the form of symbols, (3) language is in the form of sound, (4) language is arbitrary, (5) language is meaningful, (6) language is conventional, (7) language is unique, (8) language is universal, (9) language is productive, (10) language is varied, (11) language is dynamic, and (12) language functions as a tool of social interaction and (13) it is the identity of the speaker. Language and factors outside the language: in the use of language must pay attention to eight elements, namely: setting and scene, Participants, Ends, Art sequences, Keys, Instrumentalities, Norms, Genders. Language contact occurs in open community groups. Language and culture, language affects culture or language affects the way of thinking and acting members of the speaking community.

Language classifications are: Genetic Classification, Typological Classification, Area Classification, and Sociolinguistic Classification. Written language, script and spelling: Linguistics also studies written language because written language is referred to as a recording of spoken language. Script is a symbol of language or is called writing, several types of script, namely pictographic script, ideographic script, syllabic script, and phonemic script. Ideal is a spelling that represents each phoneme with only one letter or vice versa.

Method

The field of linguistics that studies, analyzes and discusses the sound sequence of language is phonology. The epinemic one is formed from the word *phon*, namely sound and *logi*, namely science. According to the hierarchy of sound units that are the object of study, phonology is divided into phonetics and phonemics. Phonetics is a

field of linguistics that studies the sounds of language without regard to whether the sound has a function as a differentiator of meaning or not. According to the sequence of processes in which language sounds occur, phonetics can be divided into three, namely: Articulatory phonetics: studies how the mechanisms of human speech tools work in producing language sounds, as well as how sounds are classified. Also called organic phonetics or physiological phonetics. Acoustic phonetics: studies the sound of language as a physical event or natural phenomenon. The sound is investigated for its vibration frequency, amplitude, intensity and timbre. Auditory phonetics: studies how the mechanism of receiving the sound of the language by our ears.

The sound of language begins with the process of pumping air out of the lungs through the windpipe to the base of the throat, which contains the vocal cords (Russak, 2020; Fersini et al., 2016). From the vocal cords the air is passed through the oral cavity or nasal cavity into the free air. If the air that comes out of the lungs is not blocked by anything, then the sound of language does not occur. The sound of language occurs because the air exhaled from the lungs gets blocked in the vocal cords. There are four different positions of the vocal cords when air passes, namely: (a) the vocal cords are wide open (does not produce sound), (b) the vocal cords are slightly wide open (c) the vocal cords are open, and (d) the vocal cords are tightly closed.

Phonetic writing made for the purposes of phonetic studies, is actually made on the basis of the letters of the Latin script added with a number of diacritical marks and a number of modifications to the Latin letters. In phonetic writing, each letter or symbol is only used to represent one sound of the language. If in phonetic writing, each sound, whether segmental or suprasegmental, is accurately represented, it means that each sound has its own symbols, although the differences are slight, but in phonetic writing, only the differences are distinctive. The only thing that distinguishes the meaning is the different symbols. Sounds that are similar but do not distinguish the meaning of the word are not distinguished by the symbols other than phonetic writing and phonemic writing, there is another writing, namely orthographic writing. The orthographic writing system is made for general use in the community of a language.

In general, the sound of language is divided into vowels and consonants. Vowels are produced with the vocal cords slightly open. The slightly opened vocal cords vibrate when the air is pumped from the lungs (Berken et al., 2015; Besacier et al., 2014). Furthermore, the air flows out through the oral cavity without getting any resistance. Consonant sounds occur after air currents pass through the vocal cords that are slightly or slightly wide open, and are transmitted to the oral cavity or nasal cavity by being blocked at certain places of articulation. Vowel sounds are classified based on the position of the tongue and the shape of the mouth. The position of the tongue can be vertical or horizontal. Vertically, high vowels are distinguished, such as [i] and [u]; middle vowels, such as [e] and [ɜ]; low vowels, for example the sound [a]. Horizontally,

the presence of front vowels is distinguished, for example the sound [i] and [e]; central vowel, for example the sound [ɜ]; and back vowels, such as [u] and [o]. According to the shape of the mouth, there are rounded vowels and non-rounded vowels.

Called diphthongs or double vowels because the position of the tongue when producing this sound at the beginning and the end is not the same. This inequality involves the height and low of the tongue, the tongue that moves, and its structure. Diphthongs are distinguished based on the location or position of the elements, so that there is an ascending and descending diphthong. Diphthong rises, the position of the first sound is lower than the position of the second sound; On the other hand, the diphthong goes down, the position of the first sound is higher than that of the second sound (Love, 2007; Angelelli et al., 2010). Consonant sounds are usually distinguished based on three criteria, namely the position of the vocal cords, the place of articulation, and the manner of articulation. The place of articulation is none other than the speech instrument used in the formation of the sound.

Stress concerns the problem of loudness and softness of sound. Stress can be distinctive or different in meaning (for example in English) and it can also be nondistinctive. Tone relates to the high and low of the sound. In pitched or tonal languages, such as Thai and Vietnamese, pitch can differentiate meaning. Pauses or joints relate to sound stops in the flow of speech. The joints or joints are differentiated into internal joints (internal junctures) and external joints (open junctures). Inner joints indicate the boundary between one syllable and another, which is symbolized by a plus sign (+). For example, /take+fetch/ The outer joint represents the larger boundary of the syllable segment.

Discussion

Assimilation is the change of a sound into another sound as a result of the sound in its environment so that the sound becomes the same or has the same characteristics as the sound that affects it. For example, the word Saturday is usually pronounced [saptu], where the sound [b] changes to [p] due to the effect of the sound [t]. 1) Progressive assimilation is the sound that is changed is located behind the sound that affects it. 2) Regressive assimilation is the sound that is changed is located in front of the sound that affects it. 3) Reciprocal assimilation is a change that occurs in both sounds that affect each other. Dissimilation is a sound change that causes the same two phonemes to be different or different. For example, in Indonesian the words copyright and love are derived from the Sanskrit citta. We see, the sound [tt] in the word citta changes to the sound [pt] in the word copyright and becomes the sound [nt] in the word love.

Neutralization is the adjustment of the pronunciation of words with their speech tools, for example the Dutch say the word hard (hard) with hart (heart) because the

Dutch speech system cannot pronounce d after the consonant so that it sounds like t and the final sound t is the result of the neutralization. Different from neutralization, archiphonemes are the formation of phonemes, for example the phoneme d of the word hard is denoted by D not by T why not T because the original form of harder is D not T. In Indonesian there is a word answer or answer if you add the suffix -an to become the answer then here there is an archiphoneme B whose realization changes to b or p.

The word umlaut comes from German which means a vowel change in such a way that it is changed to a higher vowel as a result of the next higher vowel. For example, in Dutch the sound [a] in the word handje is of higher quality than the sound [a] in the word hand. The reason is the sound [y] which is in a higher position than the sound [a]. Ablaut is a vowel change that we find in Indo-German languages to mark various grammatical functions. Sound changes in the form of vowel harmony or vocal harmony are found in Turkish. Changes in sound in the form of contraction is a shortening of pronunciation. For example, in Indonesian the word don't know becomes don't know; in English the word will not becomes won't. The process of metathesis is not changing the form of phonemes into other phonemes, but changing the order of phonemes contained in words. For example, in Indonesian, in addition to the lane form, there is a lane; in addition to collars, there are corals. In the process of epenthesis, a certain phoneme, usually one that is homogeneous with its environment, is inserted into a word.

All the basic free morphemes discussed above are intact morphemes, such as {table}, {chair}, {small}, {lau}, and {pinsil}. Likewise with some bound morphemes, such as {ter-}, {ber-}, {stop}, and {struggle}. While divided morpheme is a morpheme that consists of two separate parts. In connection with this divided morpheme, for Indonesian, there are notes that need to be considered, namely: First, all affixes which are called confixes such as {to-/an}, {to-/an}, {per-/an}, and {pe-/an} are classified as divided morphemes. However, the form {ber-/an} can be a confix on the emergence of 'many who suddenly appear', and hostile 'hostile to each other', but it can also be non-confix, as in regular 'have rules' and dress 'wear clothes'. To determine whether the form {with-/an} is confix or not, the grammatical meaning it bears must be considered.

Second, in Indonesian there are affixes called infixes, namely affixes that are inserted in the middle of the base morpheme. For example, the infix {-er-} for the word tooth, the infix {-el-} for the woodpecker, and the infix {-em-} for the word tremble. Indeed in Indonesian this infix is not productive, but in Sundanese this infix morpheme is very productive, meaning that it can be applied to any word. The difference between segmental and suprasegmental morphemes is based on the type of phoneme that forms them. Segmental morphemes are morphemes formed by segmental phonemes such as morphemes {see}, {lah}, {brush}, and {ber}. So all sound morphemes are

segmental morphemes (Dautriche et al., 2018; Bortolini & Leonard, 2000). While suprasegmental morphemes are morphemes formed by suprasegmental elements such as pressure, tone, duration, and so on. For example, in the Ngbaka language in North Congo on the African continent, every verb is always accompanied by a tense hint in the form of a tone.

Another word for word classification is word classification or word classification. Traditional grammarians use meaning criteria and function criteria in classifying words. The meaning criteria are used to identify the classes of verbs, nouns, and adjectives; while the function criteria are used to identify prepositions, conjunctions, asverbs, pronouns, and others. What is called a verb is a word that expresses an action or deed; what is called a noun is a word that states a thing or what is objectified; Conjunctions are words that function to connect words with words, parts of sentences with other parts. Structuralist grammarians make word classifications based on the distribution of the word in a structure or construction. There is also a linguist that uses the criteria of syntactic function as a benchmark to determine word class.

To be able to be used in a sentence, every basic form, especially in flexion and agglutination, must first be formed into a grammatical word through the process of affixation, reduplication, and composition. Word-formers have two properties, namely forming inflective words and secondly derivatives. Words in flexed languages, such as Arabic, Latin, and Sanskrit, to be used in sentences must first be adjusted in form with the grammatical categories that apply to them. Happens in that language. a change or adjustment of the form of a verb is called conjugation, and a change or adjustment of a noun and an adjective is called a declination (Adelman et al., 2018; Dębska et al., 2019). An inflectional word formation does not form a new word or another word whose identity is different from its basic form; while the word formation is derivative form a new word or a word whose lexical form is not the same as the basic form.

Affixation is the process of affixing an affix to a basic form. In this process involved the elements (1) basic form, (2) affixes, and (3) the resulting grammatical meaning. Affix is a form usually in the form of a bound morpheme which is affixed to a base in the process of word formation. Affixes are divided into two, namely inflection affixes and derivative affixes. Inflection affixes are affixes used for inflective words or inflective paradigms. Derivative affixes are words whose lexical identity is not the same as their basic form. Based on their position, affixes are divided into Prefixes are affixes that are added in front of the base form.

Infixes are affixes that are added in the middle of the base form. A suffix is an affix that is added after a form. Affix confixes are divided morphemes in which the first part is positioned at the beginning of the basic form and the second part is positioned at the end of the basic form. Interfix is a kind of infix or connecting element that appears in the process of merging two elements. Transfixes are affixes in the form of

vowels that are added to the whole base. Reduplication is a morphemic process that repeats the basic form, in whole, in part or in sound changes. Therefore, it is divided into full reduplications such as *tables*, partial reduplications such as *men*, and reduplications of sound changes such as *back and forth*. The reduplication process can be paradigmatic (inflectional) and can also be devirational. Inflectional reduplication does not change lexical identity, but only gives grammatical meaning.

Composition is the process of combining basic morphemes with base morphemes, both free and bound, to form a construction that has a different or new lexical identity. A compound word is a word that has a new meaning that is not a combination of the meanings of its elements. Another group of linguists says that a composition is a compound word if the lexical identity of the composition has changed the lexical identity of its elements ([Łockiewicz & Jaskulska, 2016](#); [Moll et al., 2014](#)). Conversion, often also called zero deviation, transmutation, and transposition, is the process of forming words from one word to another without changing the segmental elements. Internal modification is the process of word formation by adding elements (usually vowels) into morphemes that have a fixed frame (usually consonants). There is a kind of internal modification called supplementation. In the process of supplementation the changes are very extreme because the characteristics of the basic form are almost or no longer visible. Shortening is the process of cutting off parts of a lexeme or a combination of lexemes so that they become a short form, but the meaning remains the same as the meaning of the whole form ([Koller et al., 2007](#); [Stevenson et al., 2006](#)). In addition to abbreviations, there are acronyms, which are the results of shortening in the form of words or can be pronounced as words. The productivity of the morphemic process is whether or not the process of word formation, especially affixation, reduplication, and composition, is used repeatedly which is relatively unlimited, meaning that there is the possibility of adding new forms with the process.

An endocentric phrase is a phrase in which one of its elements or components has the same syntactic behavior as the whole. That is, one of its components can replace the overall position. This endocentric phrase is also commonly called + because its second component, namely the non-core or upstream component (English head) changes or limits the meaning of the core or upstream component. In addition, this endocentric phrase is also commonly called a subordinate phrase because one of its components, namely the which is the core of the phrase acts as a superior component, while the other components, namely the component which limits, acts as a subordinate component. In line with the position of the core component, then the superior component can be located at the beginning and can be behind.

Judging from the core categories, nominal phrases, verbal phrases, ejective phrases, and numeral phrases can be distinguished. What is meant by nominal phrases are endocentric phrases whose essence is in the form of nouns or pronouns. Nominal

phrases in syntax can replace the position of noun words as filler for one of the syntactic functions (Selamat & Akosu, 2016; Béland & Mimouni, 2001). What is meant by verbal phrases are endocentric phrases whose essence is in the form of verbs; therefore, this phrase can replace the position of the verbal word in the syntax. What is meant by an adjective phrase is an endocentric phrase whose essence is an adjective word. What is meant by a numeral phrase is an endocentric phrase whose core is a numeral word.

Coordinative phrases are phrases whose constituent components consist of two or more equal or equal components, and potentially can be connected by coordinating conjunctions, either singular such as *and*, *or*, *but*, or divided conjunctions such as *good ... well*, *more ... Increasing*, either *... or* These coordinating phrases have categories according to the categories of their constituent components. Coordinative phrases that do not use conjunctions explicitly are called parataxis phrases. An appositive phrase is a coordinating phrase in which the two components refer to each other; and therefore, the order of the components is interchangeable.

A clause is a syntactic unit in the form of a series of words with predicative construction. That is, in the construction there are components, in the form of words or phrases, which function as subjects, predicates, objects, or descriptions. A clause has the potential to become a single sentence because in it there is already a mandatory syntactic function, namely subject and predicate. Apart from the subject and predicate there are also other elements that may be included in a clause, namely objects, complements, and descriptions. Complementary elements or complements are part of the verbal predicate (not a transitive verb) that completes the verb (Georgiou et al., 2011; Dina & Ciornei, 2013). Adverb is a clause chart that provides additional information, for example about place, purpose and etc. Types of clauses can be distinguished based on their structure and based on the segmental category that is the predicate. Based on the structure, there are free clauses and bound clauses. An independent clause is a clause that has complete elements, at least a subject and a predicate.

Types of clauses can be distinguished based on their structure and based on the segmental category that is the predicate. Based on the structure, there are free clauses and bound clauses. An independent clause is a clause that has complete elements, at least a subject and a predicate. While the bound clause has a structure that does not complete, maybe only the subject or the predicate, or maybe just a description. Based on the category of segmental elements that become the predicate, verbal clauses, nominal clauses, adjective clauses, adverbial clauses, and prepositional clauses can be distinguished. Verbal clauses are clauses whose predicate is in the category of verbs. Due to the existence of various types, there are transitive clauses, intransitive clauses, and reflexive clauses. An adverbial clause is a clause whose predicate is an adverb. For example, *very stubborn*. A prepositional clause is a clause whose predicate is

categorized as a preposition. For example, father to a new market. A numeral clause is a clause whose predicate is a numeral. For example, his salary is five million a month.

In the general definition, a sentence is an orderly arrangement of words that contains a complete thought. Kailmat is a syntactic unit composed of basic constituents, which are usually in the form of clauses, equipped with conjunctions if needed, and accompanied by final intonation. Sentence types can be distinguished based on various criteria or points of view. The types of sentences are: 1) core and non-core sentences, 2) single sentences and compound sentences, 3) major and minor sentences, 4) verbal and non-verbal sentences, 5) free sentences and bound sentences.

Core sentences and non-core sentences are sentences that are formed from complete core clauses that are declarative, active, or neutral, and affirmative. The difference between a single sentence and a compound sentence is based on the number of clauses, if the clause is only one then the sentence is called a single sentence and if the clause is more than one then the sentence is called a compound sentence. The difference between major and minor sentences is based on whether or not the clauses that are the basic constituents of the sentence are complete. In general, it can be said that a verb sentence is a sentence that is formed from a verbal clause, or a sentence whose predicate is a word or phrase that is categorized as a verb.

The difference between free sentences and bound sentences is related to the fact that sentences are the units that make up a paragraph or discourse. Free sentences are sentences that have the potential to become complete utterances, or can start a paragraph or discourse without the help of other sentences or contexts that explain it (Furnes & Samuelsson, 2011; Pollo et al., 2005). Bound sentences are sentences that cannot stand alone as complete utterances or be the opening paragraphs or discourses without the help of context or other sentences.

Intonation is one of the most important syntactic tools. Intonation can be in the form of pressure, tempo and tone. Pressure is a suprasegmental characteristic that accompanies speech sounds. Tempo is the time it takes to pronounce a utterance. Tone is a suprasegmental element that is measured based on the loudness of a segment in a speech stream. There are several kinds of modes, namely: Indicative mode or declarative mode, namely the mode that shows an objective or neutral attitude. Optative mode, namely the mode that shows hope or desire. Imperative mode, which is a mode that states commands and prohibitions. The interrogative mode is the mode that states the question. The obligative mode is the mode that expresses necessity. Desiderative mode, which is a mode that expresses a desire or will. Conditional mode, namely the mode that states the requirements.

Aspect is a way of looking at the formation of time internally in a situation, situation, event, or process. Types of aspects, namely: Continuative aspect, which states an

ongoing action. The inceptive aspect, which states that new events have occurred. The progressive aspect, which states the action is in progress. The repetitive aspect, which states that the action occurs repeatedly. The perfective aspect, which states the action has been completed. Imperfective aspect, which states that the action lasts for a while. The perverted aspect, which states the action ends tenses is information in a sentence that states the time of the occurrence of the action, event, action, or experience mentioned in the predicate.

Modality is a statement in a sentence that states the speaker's attitude towards the thing being discussed. This attitude can be a statement of possibility, desire, and permission (Hutzler et al., 2004; Galambos & Goldin-Meadow, 1990). Focus is an element that highlights part of the sentence so that the attention of the listener or reader is focused on that part. In Indonesian, the focus of a sentence can be done by: Putting emphasis on the part of the sentence that is focused. Putting the part of the sentence in focus. Using the particle *pun*, which, about, and *is* in the focused sentence. Using an antecedent anaphoric possessive construction.

Diathesis is a description of the relationship between the actor and the participant in the sentence with the actions stated in the sentence. Types of diathesis, namely: Active diathesis, namely the subject who does or does an action. Passive diathesis, the subject becomes the target of action. Reflexive diathesis, the subject acts on himself. Reciprocal diathesis, a subject consisting of two parties taking reciprocal actions. Causative diathesis, the subject is the cause of something happening.

Discourse is a unit of language that is intact and complete. It means that in discourse, the unit of idea or message conveyed will be understood or understood by listeners or readers without hesitation, or without feeling that there is a lack of information from the de or message contained in the discourse. Each discourse will be divided into several parts. There are several sub-chapters and each sub-chapter has a paragraph and also a sub-paragraph. Each paragraph contains ideas and main thoughts.

Semantics, with its object, namely meaning, exists in all or all of these constructive levels: meaning lies at the levels, morphology, and syntax. Semantics is not one level in the sense of an element of building another larger unit, but is an element that is at all of those levels. One structuralist states that language is a complex system of habits. The language system consists of five subsystems, namely the grammatical subsystem, the phonological subsystem, the morphophonemic subsystem, the semantic subsystem, and the phonetic subsystem. Grammatical, phonological, and morphophonemic subsystems are central. While the semantic and phonetic subsystems are peripheral.

The semantic subsystem is called peripheral because the meaning of the semantic object is very unclear, cannot be observed empirically. Likewise, Chomsky, the father

of transformational linguistics, in his first book (1957) does not mention the problem of meaning. Only later in his second book (1965) he stated that semantics is one component of grammar, and the meaning of sentences is largely determined by the semantic component (Jónsdóttir et al., 1996). Semantics is no longer a peripheral object, since Chomsky stated how important semantics is in linguistic studies. According to the theory of the father of modern linguistics, Ferdinand de Saussure, that a linguistic sign consists of a signifier and a signified component, then actually linguistic studies without semantic studies are meaningless.

According to Ferdinand de Saussure, every linguistic sign or language sign consists of two components, namely a significant component or "which interprets" which is in the form of a sequence of sounds, and a significant component or "which is interpreted" whose form is an understanding or concept. In its use in real speech, the meaning of the word or lexeme is often independent of the basic meaning or concept and also from its reference (Plaza & Cohen, 2004; Kibler, 2010). Because language is arbitrary, the relationship between words and their meanings is also arbitrary. We cannot explain why the liquid that we always use for bathing, drinking, cooking, and so on is called water. Likewise with other words; we cannot explain the relation of the words to the meaning they have.

Lexical meaning is the meaning that belongs to or exists in a lexeme even without any context. For example, the lexeme horse has the lexical meaning of 'a kind of fourlegged animal that is usually ridden'. With that example it can also be said that the lexical meaning is the actual meaning, the meaning according to our senses observation, or the meaning as it is (Goswami et al., 2005; Ziegler et al., 2003). In contrast to lexical meaning, grammatical meaning only exists when grammatical processes occur, such as affixation, reduplication, composition, or sentenceization. For example, the process of composition of satay base with chicken base gives birth to the grammatical meaning of 'material'; on the basis of Madura gave birth to the grammatical meaning of 'origin'; with the basis of lontong giving birth to the grammatical meaning of 'mixed'.

A word or lexeme is called referential if there is a referent or reference. Words such as horse, red, and pictures are referential meaning words because there are references in the real world. On the other hand, words like and, or, and because are words that have no referential meaning, because they have no reference, or referents. There are a number of words called deictic words, the reference of which is not fixed in one form, but can move from one form to another. Included in these deictic words are words that include pronouns, such as he, I, and you; words that express space, such as here, there, and there; words that express time, such as now, tomorrow, and later.

The denotative meaning is the original meaning, the original meaning, or the actual meaning possessed by a lexeme. The denotative meaning is actually the same as the

lexical meaning. Connotative meaning is another meaning that is "added" to the denotative meaning that is related to the sense of value of the person or group of people who use the word. The connotation of a word can be different from one person to another, from one region to another, or from one period to another.

Meaning into conceptual meaning and associative meaning. Conceptual meaning is the meaning that a lexeme has regardless of any context or association. Associative meaning is the meaning that a lexeme or word has regarding the relationship of the word to something outside the language. For example, the word jasmine is associated with something sacred or sacred. The meaning of this association is also included what is called connotative meaning, stylistic meaning, effective meaning, and collocative meaning. Collocative meaning relates to certain meaning characteristics that a word has from a number of synonymous words, so that the word is only suitable to be used in pairs with certain other words. For example, the word handsome is actually synonymous with the words beautiful and beautiful.

Each word or lexeme has a meaning. In language development there are a number of terms, which because they are often used, then become common vocabulary. That is, the term is not only used in the scientific field, but has also been used in general, outside the field. Idiom is a unit of speech whose meaning cannot be "predicted" from the meaning of its elements, both lexically and grammatically. For example, the form of working hard with the meaning of 'work hard', the green table with the meaning of 'trial', and having a tin roof with the meaning of 'older'. Idioms are divided into two types, namely full idioms and partial idioms. Full idioms are idioms in which all the elements have been fused into a single unit, so that the meaning it has comes from the whole unit ([Jared & Kroll, 2001](#); [Georgiou et al., 2016](#)). Partial idioms are idioms in which one of the elements still has its own lexical meaning.

Meaning relations are semantic relationships that exist between one language unit and another. The unit of language here can be in the form of words, phrases, or sentences. Semantic relations can express similarity of meaning, conflict of meaning, inclusion of meaning, multiple meanings, or also excess of meaning. In the discussion of relations, usually discussed issues called synonyms, antonyms, polysemy, homonymy, hyponymy, ambiguity, and redundancy.

Conclusion

Words or lexemes in each language can be grouped into certain groups based on the similarity of the semantic characteristics of the words. For example, the words yellow, red, green, blue, and purple are in one group, namely the color group. Words that are in one group are commonly called words that are in one meaning field or one lexical field.

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