

Susi Herti Afriani

An Introduction to Linguistics

A Practical Guide



Second Edition

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Undang-undang Republik Indonesia Nomor 19 Tahun 2002 tentang Hak Cipta

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Foreword

By Deirdre Hand

English Language Fellow

U.S Dept of State

This book is the first comprehensive Introduction to Linguistics specifically targeted towards English Department students in Indonesia. Over the past three years, the English Department and the Linguistics Department of Institut Agama Islam Negeri (State Institute for Islamic Studies-IAIN Raden Fatah Palembang) have been engaged in a close and highly productive partnership with the English Language Fellow Program through the United States Department of State. This partnership has promoted the study of English at IAIN, and this book is a result of Mrs. Susi's commitment to educating English students at IAIN and across Indonesia.

The following chapters provide a basic, solid framework for English students in their first Linguistics course. The basics are explained in a clear and concise way, and the examples that follow each concept accurately illustrate the concepts. This text is especially helpful for students just entering the Linguistics field of their English Education. Such a subject can often be intimidating to non-native speakers training to be English teachers, yet the following work does an excellent job of bridging that gap.

An Introduction to Linguistics is an effective handbook for English Department students in Indonesia and is an excellent contribution to the field of Linguistics.

Deirdre Hand

M.A. TESOL

Preface

Language is a means to understand life

Alhamdullillahirobilallamin. Thanks to the grace and guidance of Allah SWT, I can finish this book. He who has endowed health and vigor to the writer that arrive at the final phase of the journey which, works in the world of education. This book takes longer than expected, and resulted in much support from other parties which cannot be written in the pages one by one. Nevertheless, I shall mention with respect the help of various parties that have made me indebted.

Thank you, gratitude, and respect which is the highest and deepest I gave to Prof. Dr. Gunarwan Asim, M. Sc., (Deceased) as the supervisor, and the inspiration which has directed, gave attention, and provided knowledge, and showed “my weaknesses” in writing this book. He is a true master, expert, and a scientist who has inspired me to love, to understand, and to explore the field of Linguistics. He can be considered as a pragmatics expert and other experts in the fields of science, capable of teaching Linguistics with the “way” himself, especially teaching something with humor but keep it within the discipline, and through. May Allah SWT give the best to him.

Gratitude and sincere respect that I gave to Prof. Dr. Anton Moeliono (deceased) and Umar Muslim, Ph. D, who has been a teacher

and the best teacher when I was studying at the University of Indonesia, and correct my writing and considering my writing, so with attention, this book materialized. Criticism and constructive suggestions from them will add the quality of each sections of this book.

Big family in Lahat and Palembang, (my lovely father Supomo, the hero of my life), my lovely mother Hermawati, my beloved husband (Coky Fauzi Alfi) and my lovely daughter and son (Najwa Alisha Fauzi and Muhammad Emil Fauzi Pohan), as well as my beloved brother and sisters (Deti, Ria and Aam) who have supported every effort and donate prayer and spirit, so that this book can be realized. Thank you all. Speech is never enough for all the sacrifices of yours. May Allah SWT rewards your kindness.

Friends and colleagues in the Faculty of Adab and Humanities, and friends in the English Department Faculty of Tarbiyah IAIN Raden Fatah Palembang, which has loved me as your sister in a big family, especially Miss Deirdre Hand M.A. TESOL, English Language Fellow U.S. Dept of State who has corrected my writing and written the foreword. . Thank you. May Allah SWT rewards all the good pleasure to all those who helped, and to reward them all. Amen.

This first edition consists of nine chapters; They are Morphology, Syntax, Semantics, Sound Segment and Suprasegmental in Phonetics, English Language in Society, English Change, Pragmatics, Semiotics, and Typology. I do realize that my writing is far from being perfect, I do really hope that this book will give some contributions and I will have some constructive comments and suggestions in order to improve the quality of this book. Thank you very much.

Palembang, April 2013

Susi Herti Afriani

Chapter 1

Morphology

Introduction

Morphology is the study of the internal structure of words, and of the rules by which words are formed (Fromkin, et al 2003: 76). This chapter aims to elaborate some important concepts of English morphology. The discussion is taken from three sources, **Bauer, Laurie.** 1998. *Introducing Linguistic Morphology*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press. **Fromkin, et al.** 2003. *An Introduction to Language* (seventh edition). Boston: Thomson Heinle and **Katamba, Francis.** 1993. *Modern Linguistics Morphology*. London: The Macmillan Press Ltd.

ENGLISH MORPHOLOGY CONCEPTS

In starting our discussion, let us consider some definitions of morphemes proposed by some competent writers in the field of Morphology. According to Fromkin, et al, **morphemes** are the linguistic terms for the most elemental unit of grammatical form (2003: 76). It means that morphemes are the minimal units of linguistic form and meaning and how they make up word. For example, the English words of *cats*, *working*, *shorten* and

boyishness. Most of these words can be divided up into identifiable parts, each of which has some kinds of independent parts, each of which has some kind of independent status, as evidenced by the fact that it occurs in other words. A single word may be composed of one or more morphemes.

- (1) a. one morpheme *cat*
 b. two morphemes *cat + s*
 work + ing
 short + en
 c. three morphemes *boy + ish + ness*

A morpheme may display allomorphy, i. e. have more than one form. Each of the forms of a particular morpheme is called an **allomorph**. For example:

- (2) a. /s/ *bits, tips, tacks*.
 b. /ðz/ *sneezes, bosses, fishes*.
 c. /z/ *dogs, sods, slabs*.

The variants in the pronunciation of the plural are phonologically conditioned allomorph because the choice depends only on the phonological characteristics of the element to which it attaches. In the other examples, we will see morphologically conditioned allomorphy, where the choice of the allomorph – *ceive-* or *-cept* is systematically determined by the morphemes added to them. Now let us have a look at examples (3) in order to get a more clear comprehension.

- (3) a. *receiver, receivable, deceiver, deceivable, conceivable*
 b. *reception, receptive, deception, concept, conception, conceptual*.

There are two basic types of morphemes, free and bound morphemes. **Free morphemes** are contain root which are capable of standing indepedently (Katamba, 2002: 41). It can occur as separate words, for example *bicycle, car, yes, no*, etc. In a morphologically complex word, a word composed of more than one morpheme, one constituent may be considered as the basic one, the core of the form, with the others treated as being added on. The basic or core morpheme in such cases is referred to as the *stem, root, or base*.

According to Katamba (2002: 41), a **root** is the irreducible core of a word with absolutely nothing else attached to it, and root which are capable of standing indepedently are called free morphemes, for examples:

- (4) *boy* (noun); *walk* (verb); *beautiful* (adjective); *quickly* (adverb); *from* (preposition).

Those examples are free morphem. They are also called **lexical** morphemes, which have semantic content (meaning). *Boy* is a count noun refers to items which can be counted. i.e., which can be co-occur with a numeral. *Walk* is a verb which generally indicates an action. *Beautiful* is an adjective that decribes a property or characteristic of a noun. *Quickly* is an adverb used for a variety of purposes, in this case, it is a manner function. *From* is a preposition that indicates the relation of a noun phrase to the rest of the sentence.

By contrast, there are many free morphemes are **function words**, which have a grammatical function. It is sometimes called *closed class* words. For examples: *a, an, the* are articles; *this, that, these, those* are demonstratives; *I, you, we, they, them, my,*

your, his, her, who, whom, which, whose are pronouns; *and, but, however, yet* are conjunctions; *to, by, from, with* are prepositions. In conclusion, a root that is free morphemes can stand alone, but not every root can stand alone.

Stem is that part of a word that in existence before any inflectional affixes (i. e) those affixes whose presence is required by the syntax such as, markers of singular and plural number in nouns, tense in verb etc have been added (Katamba 1993: 45). Let us look at the examples below.

(5) noun stem	plural
<i>dog</i>	-s
<i>employer</i>	-s

In the word- form *dogs*, the plural inflectional suffix –s is attached to the simple stem *dog*, which is a bare root, i. e., the irreducible core of the word. In *employers* the same inflectional –s suffix comes after a slightly more complex.

Base is any unit what so ever to which affixes of any kind can be added. The affixes attached to a base may be inflectional affixes selected for syntactic reasons as derivational affixes which alter the meaning or grammatical category (Katamba 1993: 45). The examples will be shown below.

- (6) a. Suffix: follows the base, -ful in *eventful*
 b. Prefix: un- in *unhappy*

In conclusion, every root is base and every base is stem which is only resulted from inflectional morphology context.

The other basic type of morphemes is **bound morphemes**. It cannot occur on their own as full words, and it also called **affixes**.

Affixes that precede the stem are of course *prefixes*, while those that follow the stem are *suffixes*. For example:

- (7) a. -de in *detoxfy*
b. -tion in **creation**
c. -s in *cats*
d. -cran in *cranburry*

In linguistics, a **Prefix** is a type of affix that precedes the morphemes to which it can attach. Prefixes cannot occur as independent words. Although they are rare than suffixes, prefixes work in very much the same way (Bauer 1988: 21). For instances:

- (8) a. un- is a prefix in *unfinished*
b. re- is a prefix in *rearranged*
c. dis- is a prefix in *discharge*
d. pre- is a prefix in *preschool*

Morphemes can also be **infixes**, which are inserted within another form, but English does not really have any infixes except for certain expletives in expression, *Miss-ing-ssippi*. This is infixation because the expletive goes inside a morpheme, not between morpheme. While a suffix is an affix that succeeds the morphemes to which it can attach. **Suffixes** are used for all purposes in morphology (Bauer 1988: 19). For examples:

- (9) a. *establishment*, -ment is a suffix
b. *quickly*, -ly is a suffix
c. *tenderness*, -ness is a suffix
d. *affection*, -ion is a suffix

A **circumfix** is an affix, a morpheme which is placed around another morpheme, but it is probably the only circumfixes in

English are:

- (10) a. en- -en in *enlighten*
 b. em- -en in *embolden*

We cannot say *enlight*, though *lighten* is correct. *Embold* and *bolden* are both incorrect.

English morphology is also talking about **multiple affixation**. It is attaching several affixes to the root (Katamba 1993: 52-53). He adds that the process can take place in a number of rounds, with the output created by one round of affixation. For example:

- (11) *contradictoriness*: contradictory- contradict- dict.

Let us now consider some signs language morphology in order to sharpen our understanding of the notion of *compounding*, *acronyms*, *back-formations*, *abbreviations* and *blends*. One of them is **compound** words. According to Fromkin, et al (2003: 93), two or more words may be joined o form new is compound words. Let us look at the examples.

- (12) a. FIRE + WOOD = FIREWOOD
 b. FIRE + WORK = FIREWORK
 c. ART + SHOP = ARTSHOP
 d. BLACK + BOARD = BLACKBOARD
 e. GREEN + HOUSE = GREENHOUSE

As we briefly saw in (12) examples, a compound word contains at least two bases which are both words, or at any rate, root morphemes (Katamba 1993: 54). In order to get a clear comprehension, now let us have a look at examples (13) and (14) below.

- (13) a. [tea]-noun [pot]-noun [teapot]-noun
 b. [week]-noun [end]-noun [week-end]-noun
- (14) a. [hair]-noun [[dress]verb-er]-noun
 [hairedresser]-noun
 b. [kind]-adjective [[heart]-noun-ed]adj
 [open-ended]adj

Compounding is a very important way of adding to the word stock of English as we will see. Sometimes it is bare roots that are combined in compounds as in (13a), and sometimes an input base contains an affixed form as in (14a). In conclusion, compounding is a common and frequent process for enlarging the vocabulary of all languages (Fromkin, et al 2003: 95).

Acronyms are words derived from the initials of several words (Fromkin et al 2003: 95). It was originally a pronounceable word formed from the initial letter or letter of words, such as:

- (15) NATO /neltou/ or RADAR /reldar/, from Radio Detection and Ranging,
 the word acronym is used nearly universally for both meanings.

A new word may enter the language because of an incorrect morphological analysis is called **back-formations** (Fromkin, et al 2003: 97), for example:

- (16) *peddle* -*peddler*

the word *peddle* was derived from *peddler* on the mistaken assumption that the *er* was the **agentive suffix**.

An abbreviation is a letter or group of letters, taken from a word or words, and employed to represent them for the sake of

brevity. For example, the word *abbreviation* can be abbreviated with *abbr.* other example will be shown below.

- (17) a. a= adjective
b. adv= adverb
c. imp= imperfect
d. pass= passive
e. subj= subjunctive

Two words may be combined to produce **blends** (Fromkin et al 2003: 98). Blending is the merging of two words in which at least one of them is distorted phonologically, often not at a morpheme boundary, for example:

- (18) a. *smog*, from *smoke+fog*
b. *motel*, from *motor+hotel*
c. *carjack*, from *hijack+car*
d. *stagflation*, from *inflation+stagnation*
e. *reagonomics*, from *economics+reagan*

In conclusion, this book is only 'skimmed the surface' of the whole matter (English morphology). It is far from comprehensive, of course. For all its deficiencies and shortcomings, it is hoped that it will not fall short of its main goal: to make people and include myself, *think* and *understand* some basic concepts of English morphology.

Chapter 2

Syntax

...The game is to say something new with old words...

RALPH WALDO EMERSON, *Journals* (1849)

The part of the grammar that represents a speaker's knowledge of sentences and their structures is called **syntax** (Fromkin, et al 2003: 118). It is also the study of grammatical relations between words and other units within the sentence (Matthews 1997: 368). This chapter aims to elaborate some important concepts of English syntax. The discussion is taken from five sources, Blackford (1998), Fromkin, et al (2003), Matthews (1997), O'Grady, et al (1997) and Robert (1964).

Let us start our discussion by understanding the study of grammar by stating what is meant by **grammar**, since the term has been used to mean many different things. In this chapter, we shall mean by grammar "the description of the sentences of a language", and it is a grammar of English. A sentence itself is "a group of words expressing a complete thought" or "a group of words that begins with a capital letter and ends with a period" (Roberts 1964: 1). From this definition, there are two important questions. "What groups of English words express complete

thoughts?” and “what groups of words are written with a capital letter at the beginning and a period at the end?”.

The question will be answered from this paper. In getting a more clear comprehension, let us have a look at (1) and (2) examples below.

- (1) House painted student a the.
- (2) A student painted the house.

In relation to sentence (1), we could say that an utterance is **grammatical** if speakers judge it to be a possible sentence of their language, example (2) is a grammatical sentence of English, but (1) is not. In English and in every language, every sentence is a sequence of words, but not every sequence of words is a sentence (Fromkin, et al 2003: 119). They add that sequences of words that conform to the rules of syntax are **well-formed** or **grammatical**, and those that violate the syntactic rules are **ill-formed** or **ungrammatical**. Let us indicate strings of words as grammatical or ungrammatical below.

- (3) Me and him done it.
- (4) Did it he and I.
- (5) Plane landed smoothly.

There is a sense in which (3) is an English sentence. Its forms are used commonly and consistently by people whose native language is English (Roberts 1964: 9), though usually not by educated people. Therefore, there is some sense in which it is grammatical. However, there is no sense in which (4) is grammatical, because it is not English at all. We call it ungrammatical and indicate that we do so by marking it with an **asterisk**, in work on syntax since

the 1950s, to mark forms judged to be ungrammatical (Matthews 1997: 29).

Sentence (5) is also not a grammatical English sentence, and in order to make “plane landed smoothly” grammatical, we have to add such a word as *the* or *this* or *every*. These words all belong to the structure called **determiner** (Roberts 1964: 11). They have the characteristic of occurring before nouns in the noun phrase. Let us consider some examples below.

- (6) The pilot needed a plane.
- (7) An orange was in the dish.

The nouns in (6) are *pilot* and *plane*. The plane in (6) are *the*, *a*, while the determiners in (7) are *an* and *the*. We have seen that some noun phrases, *the pilot*, *an orange*, consist of a noun preceded by a determiner. The most common kind of determiners are words called **articles**. The English articles are *the*, *a* (*n*) and *some*. The point is that the definiteness in such constructions is not conveyed by the article, whereas *the* does convey the meaning of definiteness (Roberts 1964: 12). In conclusion, grammaticality does not depend on the truth of sentences (Fromkin, et al 2003: 121). They add that untrue sentences can be grammatical, sentences discussing unicorns can be grammatical, and sentences referring to pregnant fathers can be grammatical.

Syntactic knowledge goes beyond being able to decide which strings are grammatical and which are not (Fromkin, et al 2003: 121). It explains **ambiguity**. Now let us have a look at examples below in order to get a more clear comprehension.

- (8) Jane saw the man with the telescope.
- (9) I love you to come late.

The example (8) has two meaning. They are “Jane really saw a man who had a telescope” and “Jane used a telescope to see the man”. In the sentence (9), the first meaning is “I really like when you come late” and “it is too late for you to express your love”. This ambiguity is happened because of the syntactic problem.

Syntactic knowledge also enables us to determine the **grammatical relations** in a sentence, such as **subject** and **direct object** (Fromkin, et al 2003: 122). Some examples will be shown below.

(10) The dog barked.

(11) The dog bit the man.

(12) The man bit the dog.

(13) The man was bitten by the dog.

In the example (10), we saw that a sentence contains at least two elements: an action and somebody or something doing that action. The action is referred to as the finite verb. The person or thing doing the action is called the subject. In this example, the person or thing doing the action is the *dog*, so *dog* is the subject; the action being done is the barking, so *barked* is the finite verb.

In the example (11), *the dog* is the subject, the action is that of biting (so *bit* is the finite verb), and the person which is receiving the action is the man (so *man* is the direct object). In (12) *the man* is the subject and *the dog* is the direct object. From the examples (11) and (12), we can see the meaning is changed. In (13), the grammatical relationships are the same as (12), but we understand it to have the same meaning as (11), despite the structural differences between (11) and (13).

Fromkin, et al (2003: 123) said that syntactic rules reveal the grammatical relations among the words of a sentence and tell us when structural differences result in meaning differences and when they do not. They add that the syntactic rules in a grammar account for at least:

- The grammaticality of sentences.
- Word order.
- Hierarchical organization of sentences.
- Grammatical relations such as subject and object.
- Whether different structures have differing meanings or the same meaning.
- The creative aspect of language.

So far, we have been using the word “sentence” to talk about the “thing” in which subjects, finite verbs and direct objects appear, because “sentence” is a common. However, in order to really know what a sentence is, we have to know two other terms: **clause** and **phrase**. Sentences are made out of clauses and phrases. Obviously, the definition of a clause makes it very similar to what a sentence is; the difference is that a single sentence may be made up of many clauses as well, some clauses can stand on their own as sentences, but other sorts of clauses cannot. The examples below are some comparison of clauses and sentences.

(14) the dog barked.

The above example is a real sentence and it also happens to be a clause; it is a clause because it has a subject (*dog*) and a finite verb (*barked*). Let us look at the examples.

(15) although the dog barked.

The above statement is not a sentence, because (15) cannot stand on it's own. Let us consider the example below.

(16) although the dog barked, John slept all night.

This sentence is a real sentence. It contains not one, but two clauses. The subject of the first clause is "dog" and the finite verb of the first clause is "barked". The subject of the second clause is "John" and the finite verb of the second clause is "slept". In conclusion, the sentences and clauses are closely related, but that one sentence may be made up of several clauses.

We have already known what a clause is, but another term that we need to know in order to understand sentences is the word **phrase**. According to O'Grady, et al (1997: 167), sentences have a hierarchical design in which words are grouped together into successively larger structural units. Such units are called **phrases**. For instance, these are phrases.

(17) to scream loudly.

(18) running down the street.

Phrases cannot stand on their own (17 and 18), so they have to be attached to something else in a sentence. For example:

(19) Coky began to scream loudly.

(20) Fauzi went running down the street.

There are many different kinds of phrases in English, but the most common is the prepositional phrase. A prepositional phrase is one that begins with a preposition. It is words which help to describe how something was done or how something looked.

They are *to, on, along side, next to, away from, through, in front of, of, out, in, beside, down, from, over, up* and *with*.

According to O' Grady, et al (1997: 167), phrases are built around a 'skeleton' consisting two levels, as depicted below. (the symbol *p* in the top level stands for 'phrase'.

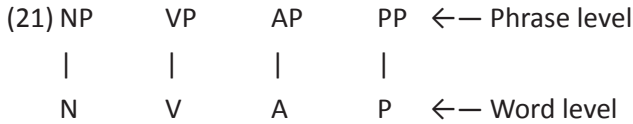
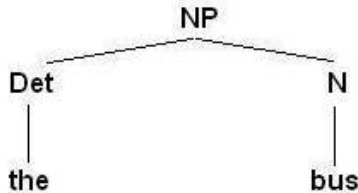


Figure 1. The organization of phrase structure.

The phrase structure rules provide the syntactic structure of the sentence (Blckford 1998: 48). They also specify the structures of a language precisely and concisely (Fromkin, et al 2003: 138). They express the regularities of the language, such as the head complement order, and other relationship. For instance,

(22)



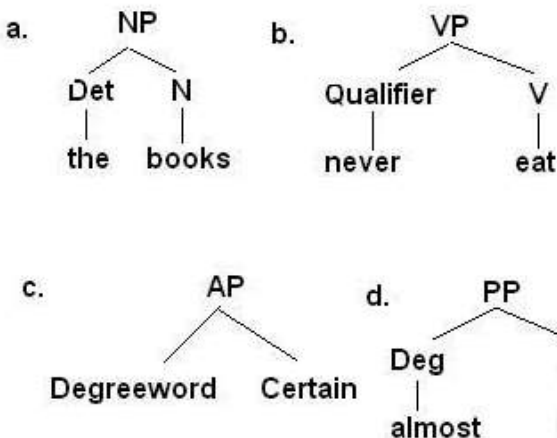
The phrase structure rule that makes this explicit is: NP-----Det N
According to Fromkin, et al (2003: 139), this rule conveys two facts:

- A noun phrase can contain a determiner followed by a noun.
- A determiner followed by a noun is a noun phrase.

In English, such words (determiners such as *the*, and *a*, qualifiers such as *never* and *often*, and degree words such as *quite* or *almost*) are said to function as **specifiers** (O'Grady, et al 1997: 168). They add that syntactically, specifiers typically mark a phrase boundary.

In English, specifiers occur at the left boundary (the beginning) of their respective phrases. In a tree diagram, they are attached to the top level of phrase structure, to the left of the head. Together, these two elements from the phrase structures depicted in the following tree diagrams.

(23)



In addition to a specifier and the underlined head, the phrase in (24) below also contain **a complement**. In a tree diagram, complements are attached to the right of the head in English, but to the left in many other languages. Figure in the (24) illustrates the structure of a phrase consisting of a specifier, a head and a complement. The NP serving as complement of a V is often called **direct object**.

(24)

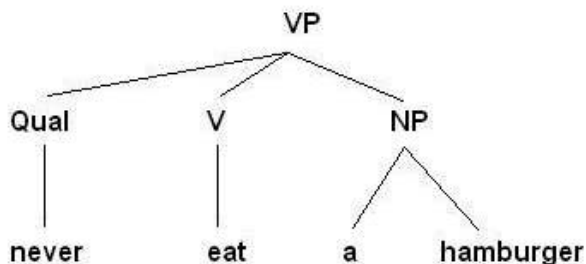
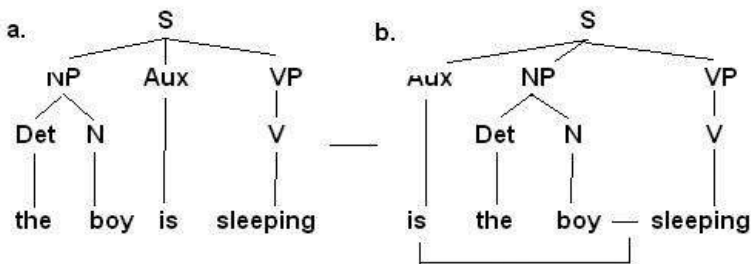


Figure 2. A VP consisting of a head, a specifier, and a complement.

From the figure, we can see that the complements are themselves phrases. Thus, the complement of the V *eat* is an NP that itself consists of a determiner (*a*) and a head (*hamburger*). This phrase then combine with the verb and its specifier to form a still larger structural unit.

Even though the phrase structure rule we have been using interacts with the set of complement options permitted by individual heads to form a very wide range of patterns, there are syntactic phenomena that this system cannot describe in an entirely satisfactory way. That is the **transformation**. According to Fromkin, et al (2003: 153), a way to capture the relationship between a declarative and a question is to allow the phrase structure rules to generate the structure corresponding to the declarative sentence, and have another formal device called, **transformation rule**, move the auxiliary in front of the subject. For instance:

(25) the boy is sleeping → is the boy → sleeping



Questions are generated in two steps (Fromkin, et al 2003: 153).

1. The phrase structur rules generate a basic structure.
2. Aux movement applies to produce the derived structure.

The basic structures of sentences called **deep structures**, are specified by the phrase structure rules, while the structures that result from the application of transformational rules are called **surface structures** (Fromkin, et al 2003: 154). They add that if no transformations apply, then surface structure is the result after all transformations have had their effect. In conclusion, much syntactic knowledge that is not expressed by phrase structure rules is accounted for by transformation, which can alter phrase structure trees by moving, adding, or deleting elements.

Below is the example of a paper on Syntaxis

Compound English with Word Based Model

1. Introduction

The shape of the roots, the base, and the base will undergo a morphological process when used in discourse. According to Matthews (1997: 232), the morphological process is a formal process of word formation derived from the base or root. In general, Bauer (1988: 19) says that the various morphological processes is from word formation process. This process consists of various processes such as affixation, reduplication and compounding. Affixation is the process or result of adding affixes to the root, base or pedestal (Kridalaksana 1993: 3), which consists of several morphological processes such as prefixation, suffixation, infixation, etc.. Reduplication is a morphological process in the form of repetition of form (Matthews 1997: 311).

Meanwhile, compounding is one of morphological processes that can create a form of the word with a new meaning. Katamba

(1993: 54) explains that compounding is formed by the root morpheme. In English, many phenomena regarding *kompositum* among others; plural form can be idiomatic although the forms usually contain real meaning. For example, a magnifying glass means a glass that magnifies (magnifying glass) or compound form that does not contain the true meaning as a cathouse (a house of prostitution), which means a place of prostitution or prostitution.

English *kompositum* phenomenon that raises a new and slightly different meanings of the word is the basic constituent, occurs in many contexts as well as interesting to study. Haspelmath (2002: 45) suggests two models of analysis is the morpheme-based models and the word-based models. The morpheme-based models to analyze word by decomposing into smaller parts as forming words, while the word-based models can be analyzed as a whole word. For the first time, this model is taken from the English language analysis model and emphasize the word, even the relationship between complex words are treated with no dividing it into parts, but the word scheme representing the general characteristics of a series of morphologically related words. This analysis model is used as needed, and for high productivity. Therefore, this analysis model will be applied to the English *kompositum*. Gordon (1985) in Hayes said that the irregular plural nouns *kompositum* (example: mice- eater) in English is more productive than regular plural nouns *kompositum* with (example: rats-eater). The author will search for words as the core analysis of the phenomenon of English *kompositum* and explain the analysis of complex words, particularly English *kompositum* by word analysis techniques based models.

2. Discussion

2.1. The Form of compound in English Language

It has been mentioned that compounding is a merger of two or more words to form new words. In English, the process of formation of compound words is called compounding. Results compounding called *kompositum*. In English, *kompositum* vary. Some use a space, hyphen, forms of ownership, there are not any spaces. Understanding *kompositum* in English is very diverse, but has the same concept, namely the merger of two or more words with new meanings. Fabb in Spencer and Zwicky (1998: 66) states that *a compound is a word which consist of two or more words*. For example, the sun, the eye (eye)-day (day), furthermore, he said that *compounds are subject to phonological and morphological processes, which may be spesific to compounds or may be shared with other structure*. Furthermore Fabb (1998: 66-68) outlines *kompositum* be (i) *kompositum endosentris* and *eksosentris*, for example a *sneak-thief* for example *kompositum endosentris*, while *eksosentris bahuvrihi* (the Sanskrit name), (ii) *kompositum coordinates*, for instance, *student-prince* (iii) *kompositum* who see the semantics relationship (meaning) between the parts, such as *sunrise* and *pull-chain*.

Not much different from the above definition, Matthews (1991: 82) mentions that compounding is a process by which a compound lexeme is derived from two or more simpler lexemes. For example, *blackbird* is a plural noun form of black and bird. From the definitions above, we can see two ways of compounding. First, compounding obtained from combining two words that have

the same grammatical category. For example, a noun plus noun, such as *blackbirds*, *girlfriend* and *fireman*, adjective or adjective coupled with the word *red-hot* and *icy-cold*. Second, by combining two words which have different grammatical categories. If a word is formed from nouns and adjectives, the class he would be adjectives. For example, *Headstrong*. Meanwhile, a word formed from the verb and noun, noun class will be. For example, *Pickpocket* and *daredevil*. Let's look at the table below to see *kompositum* used in the context of English.

Group	The example of sentence in context	English <i>kompositum</i>
1. Nomina kepemilikan	<i>Last week, I left my prse in a London taxi. Luckily, I managed to signal to the...</i>	<i>Taxi driver</i>
2. Nomina jamak beraturan	<i>I feed four cats, a Burmese, a Siamese and two lovely old Persians. I enjoy being a cats...</i>	<i>Cats feeder</i>
3. Nomina jamak tidak beraturan	<i>Women always get lowly jobs. In the nursery rhyme the farmer's wife is nothing more than a...</i>	<i>Mice chaser</i>
4. Komparatif atau superlatif	<i>Greg is very modest. He was amazed to hear that his song is still the record company's ...</i>	<i>Biggest seller</i>
5. Nomina tunggal berakhiran fonem /s/	<i>We'll have a larger lawn and mowing the grass will take longer. I'm thinking of employing a...</i>	<i>Grass cutter</i>
6. Nomina tunggal berakhiran fonem selain /s/	<i>Stephen is so skilled at mixing cocktails that the hotel want him to work permanently as a...</i>	<i>Drink server</i>

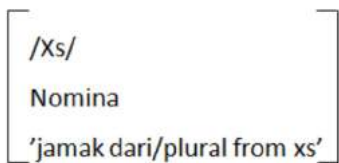
(Source: Hayes et al (2005: 4))

The above examples are part of the English *kompositum*. The combined meaning of these two words give rise to a new meaning that can be explained through *word-based models*.

2. 2 Word Based Model

This model was first introduced by Aronoff 1976. In Kridalaksana (1989: 10), Aronoff says “All regular word-formation processes are word-based”, namely that the word-based is all the process of formation of irregular words. This model was then developed by Haspelmath. Word-based model is a model of the analysis of the complex relationships between words, is not seen by way of sorting out the word into its constituent parts, but more to the explanation of the word formation process (Haspelmath 2002: 47). This analysis model is related to the concept of word-and-paradigm. Paradigm in question is the relationship between words vertically. The most basic thing in the word-based models are analytical form whole words. For this reason, we can formulate schemes word representing the main features of morphologically related word. For example, words such as tables, chairs, bowls, cats, can be described as below:

(1)

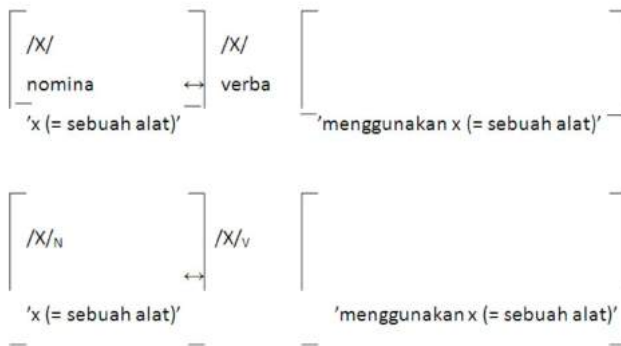


Thus, the above scheme describes and contains information such as the pronunciation, syntax and meaning of the word property. In this way, word-based models describing the characteristics common form. The scheme shows that these words ending with / s /, indicating plural nouns. While x in the scheme

explained that the series of phonological before the -s form varies, so be replaced by a variable. So, this word describes the scheme of the whole words, it is not for morpheme standing alone.

The second thing that is very important in a word-based models is that all kinds of related processes can be described by nature, where the phenomenon is difficult to describe in a morpheme-based models. In English, the noun to verb changes can be described as the following scheme:

- (2) hammer_N/hammer_V, saw_N/saw_V, spoon_N/spoon_V, funnel_N/funnel_V...



The advantage of this analysis model is a process that does not require the incorporation of a morpheme, can be explained through the process. As an example, it can be seen from words like *Goose* became *geese*, *foot* becomes *feet*, and *tooth* into *teeth*. If it is using a morpheme-based model requires segmentation, it will be hard to do, the chances will be explained with the help of a zero morpheme. However, by using word-based models can be explained the process of the plural form.

- (3) $\begin{array}{ccc} /XuC1/ & & /XiC1/ \\ N & \leftrightarrow & N \\ \text{'x (= sebuah benda)'} & & \text{'bentuk plural x'}$

From the above examples, it can be seen that there has been a change in the formation of a phonological form the plural of the word *goose*, *foot*, and *tooth*. Letters *u* and *i* symbolize pronunciation, while *C* represents a consonant. Word-based model can be applied to cases of reduplication, turning derivation and compounding. Another thing that is also an advantage in this analysis model, was the model which can explain the relationship between more than two groups of words. In English, for example:

- | | | |
|-------------|------------|------------|
| (4) Attract | attraction | attractive |
| Suggest | suggestion | suggestive |
| | illusion | illusive |
| | aggression | aggressive |

For the first two in the example (4) is still possible to analyze the morpheme-based models, because they have a verb that can be combined with morpheme *{-ion}* and *{-ive}*. For the first two schemes can be made as follows.

- (5)
- $$\left[\begin{array}{c} /X/ \\ V \\ \text{'melakukan x'}$$

For the first two in the example (4) is still possible to analyze the morpheme-based models, because they have a verb that can

be combined with morpheme {ion} and {-ive}. For the first two schemes, it can be made as follows.

$$\left[\begin{array}{c} /X/ \\ V \\ 'melakukan x' \end{array} \right] \leftrightarrow \left[\begin{array}{c} /Xive/ \\ A \\ 'kecenderungan melakukan x' \end{array} \right]$$

However, for the latter two forms of the sample (4) is not an amalgamation morpheme, so it would be difficult to be segmented. By using the word-based models, it needed a new word schema to describe the relationship of two forms of the past.

(6)

$$\left[\begin{array}{c} /Xion/ \\ N \\ 'tindakan melakukan x' \end{array} \right] \leftrightarrow \left[\begin{array}{c} /Xive/ \\ A \\ 'kecenderungan melakukan x' \end{array} \right]$$

The schema can be united, it can be completed each other.

(7)

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \left[\begin{array}{c} /Xion/ \\ N \\ 'tindakan melakukan x' \end{array} \right] & \longleftrightarrow & \left[\begin{array}{c} /Xive/ \\ A \\ 'kecenderungan melakukan x' \end{array} \right] \\ & \nwarrow \quad \nearrow & \\ & \left[\begin{array}{c} /Xion/ \\ N \\ 'tindakan melakukan x' \end{array} \right] & \end{array}$$

(8) 2. 3 English *kompositum* with Word-Based Model

From various English *kompositum* example above, the writer will take some examples to be analyzed.

a. *bedroom, blackbird, lipstick*

b. / X / N / Y / N / xy / N

‘X’ and ‘y’ y complement x ‘

Haspelmath (2002: 85) noted that the spelling in English *kompositum* was inconsistent; *kompositum* sometimes written as a word, sometimes in some cases, in particular, noun plus noun separated by spaces, such as syntactic phrases (sugar plantation), but in this analysis (Example 8), which needs to be explained is the problem of the combination of two words that have formed a nominal new meaning, which slightly different from the base constituent. *Bedroom* for example, means the *bedroom, blackbird* means *species of birds* or if it is different emphasis and writing separately, (*black bird*), means that every bird is black, while the lipstick is ‘something’ (can *dye solid, liquid*) that is worn on the lips.

3. Conclusion

From the above examples, it can be concluded that the word-based models are better in explaining the process and apply to the whole word. Moreover, the word-based models can explain the phenomenon that is found in the words that can not be segmented. Furthermore, the word-based models can explain the relationship between more than two groups of words easily, which will be difficult to do in morpheme-based model that is more focused on sorting word individually. With the scheme above, the word-based models can explain the English *kompositum*, where in the placement, it can be more clear and precise.

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Chapter 3

Semantics

Fromkin et al (2003: 173) say that the study of the linguistic meaning of morphemes, words, phrases and sentences is called **semantics**. This chapter will discuss some interesting topics in semantics, they are: thematic role, cooperative principles, speech act and deixis. Let us start our discussion by stating what is meant by thematic roles. Thematic roles is “a semantic role which is used to describe the part played by a particular entity in an event” (O’Grady et al 1997: 262). There are at least five thematic roles in most linguistic analyses.

- The entity that performs an action is called an *Agent*.
- The entity undergoing an action is called a *theme*.
- The starting point for a movement is called a *source*.
- The end point for a movement is called a *goal*.
- The place where an action occurs is called a *location*.

Let us consider the following examples.

- (1) a. *The senator sent the lobster for Boston to Seattle.*
b. *the athletics practiced in the Athena.*

In all two of these sentences, *the senator* of (1a) and *the athletics* of (1b) are the agent, the theme of (1a) is *the*

lobster, the source of (1a) is *Boston* and the goal is *Seattle*, while sentence (1b) explains that the location is *Athens*.

In order to provide a more comprehensive discussion, it is useful to take the notion pragmatics into account. It is usually conceived as a branch of semantics concerned with the meanings that sentences have in particular contexts in which they are uttered (Matthews 1997: 290). In this paper, it deals with topics which are normally held to fall under the heading of pragmatics, that is cooperative principles. According to Saeed (2003: 204), “a cooperative principle is a kind of tacit agreement by speakers and listeners to cooperate in communication”. In more simple terms, we can say that the cooperative principle provide that we should say what we have to say, when we have to say it, and the way we have to say it.

Grice in Leech (1983: 85) says that a maxim is a principle to organize a conversation in the communication process. It is supported by (Cruse 2004: 367), he says that the principles is elaborated by means of a set of maxims. He adds that in most circumstances, the assumption of cooperaton is so pervasive, which it can be stated as a cooperative principle of conversation and elaborated in four maxims, as shown below.

1. Maxim of quantity. It means that we have to make our contribution as informative as is required, but not more than informative than required.
2. Maxim of quality. It means that we have to try to make our contribution one that is true. That is do not say anything we believe to be false or lack adequate evidence for.
3. Maxim of relation. We have to try to make our contribution relevant to the aims of the on going conversation.

4. Maxim of manner. Be clear. We have to try to avoid obscurity, ambiguity, wordiness and disorderliness in the use of language.

Why are the cooperative principles and those maxims necessary? Basically, because without them, communication would be very difficult. Let's take a look at the following dialogues in order to get to the point.

- (2) a. Police officer: what is your name?
b. Witness: Joe.
- (3) a. Child: does your dog bite?
b. Dog owner: No
- (4) a. John: Have you ever been to Italy?
b. Chaterine: last year I was in Canada. I saw a real grizzly bear there.
- (5) a. Patient: what do I have?
b. Dentist: A diffuse symmetric hypomineralization disorder of ameloblast.

In all four examples, the communication is unsuccessful because the interlocutors do not cooperate. In (2b), the witness conveys not enough information since especially his family name is important (maxim of quantity). In (3b), the dog owner lacks adequate evidence for his answer and takes the risk that the child might be bitten by the dog while petting it (maxim of quality). Chaterine's answer in (4b) is off topic and has no relevance for John who wants to talk about Italy (maxim of relation). In (5b), the dentist does not cooperate because the information he offers is not perspicuous (maxim of manner), for his patient who would

have appreciated a simpler answer like “your teeth contain too much fluoride”.

In these examples, the refusal of cooperation equals impolite behaviour. Nevertheless, people can flout maxims of the cooperative principle on purpose which then gives another twist to communication. Grice is also sure that all of these maxims will guide people to hold a conversation maximally, efficiently, effectively, rationally and cooperatively. To be able to interpret what is said or implied in a conversation, we should consider the context and speech act. It is important to know the speech act because the function of the speech act helped us to interpret the intention or the message of the utterances.

Austin in Saeed (2003: 228) isolates three basic senses in which in saying something or doing something and hence three kinds of acts that are simultaneously performed.

1. **locutionary act:** the utterance of a sentence with determinate sense and reference.
2. **illocutionary act:** it is the function or purpose of locution, for example, the making of a statement, offer, promise, ask, request in uttering a sentence.
3. **perlocutionary act:** it is the result of using a piece of language for a certain function, for example, the laughter. The perlocution is not only in verbal form, but also in non verbal language.

“To communicate we must express propositions with a particular illocutionary force, and in so doing we perform particular kinds of action, such as stating, promising, or warning, which have

come to be called **speech acts**" (Cruse 2004: 345). In relation to this statement, Searle in Saeed (2003: 228) divides that there are just five basic kinds of action that one can perform in speaking by means of the following five types of utterance.

1. **Representatives**, which commit the speaker to the truth of the expressed proposition, for instance: asserting, concluding.
2. **Directives**, which are attempts by the speaker to get the addressee to do something, for instance: requesting, questioning.
3. **Commissives**, which commit the speaker to some future course of action, for instance: promising, threatening, offering.
4. **Expressives**, which express a psychological state, for instance: thanking, apologising, welcoming, congratulating.
5. **Declarations**, which effect immediate change in the institutional state of affairs and which tend to rely on elaborate extralinguistic institutions, for instance: excommunicating, declaring war, christening, marrying, retiring from employment.

The fifth Searle's categorization, that is declaration does not have illocutionary force, but it is conventional speech act (Leech 1983: 206). However, most of the verbs related to declaration such as adjourn, veto, sentence and baptize, so the point is that it is not only show speech acts, but also social acts. Therefore, we have to consider a speaker and a hearer, the ability of the person and the authority. Hence, Saeed (2003: 230) divides speech acts into **direct** and **indirect speech act**. Let's take a look to the example that Saeed explains:

- (6) a. Can you pass the salt?
b. Please pass the salt.
- (7) a. I wish you wouldn't do that
b. Please don't do that.
- (8) a. Aren't you going to eat your cereal?
b. Please eat your cereal.

What Saeed wants to reveal with the example above is that how do people recognize the indirect act. He answered by Searle's approach. The example (6a) is direct act and in the form of request in the indirect act. (7a) is a statement in direct act and in the form of request in indirect act as well as (8a). Furthermore, (6a) is a direct act for making request. Searle in Saeed (2003: 231) describes conditions for requesting.

- (9) (Abbreviations: *S*= Speaker, *H*= Hearer *A*= the future action)
 - a. Preparatory condition: *H* is able to perform *A*
 - b. Sincerity condition: *S* wants *H* to *A*
 - c. Propositional condition: *S* predicates a future act *A* of *H*
 - d. Essential condition: Counts as an attempt by *S* to get *H* to do *A*

About sentence (6a), the hearer is able to perform the future action. So, we can see that actually (6a) is an indirect request, but in the form of asking. Example (7a) means that speaker wants hearer to do the future action, lastly (example 8a), Searle in Saeed (2003: 232) considers that the indirect directive is made by questioning this for being more polite, because the form of the sentence is a question even though it is directive.

In order to provide a more comprehensive discussion of semantics. It is useful to take the notion deixis into account.

“Elements of language that are so contextually bound are called **deictic**, from the noun **deixis** (from classical Greek *deiknymi* ‘to show, point out’)” (Saeed 2003: 182)). Furthermore, Saeed proposes five kinds of deixis, they are spatial deixis, grammaticalization of context, extension of spatial deixis, person deixis and social deixis. While we are talking about deixis, we have to consider the way in which the interpretation of utterances depends on the analysis of the context of utterance.

1. spatial deixis.

It shows us the place, we have to consider the speakers’ position when they are talking, or the position of speech event, such as: this, that, these, those, here, there, away, the names of city. Let us take a look at example 10 below.

(10) we are happy we studied **here**, we won’t study over **there**.

The adverbs *here* and *there* are spatial deixis. *Here* in (10) refer to University of Indonesia since me (the speaker) is studying in the location (UI) while *there* in (10) can be anywhere, the university except UI. If I were move, automotically, *here* and *there* could be changed.

2. grammaticalization of context.

In English, the use of deixis does not distinguish the gender of adreesee, for example when, someone refers to a single addressee.

(11) I love *you*

The word *you* in (11) can be everybody. It depends on the context of an utterance. when someone or the speaker say (11) to his/her mother, *you* refer to his/her mother. While if someone says (11) to her boyfriend, the word *you* refer to her boyfriend.

3. Extension of spatial deixis.

In English, spatial deixis terms is also called time deixis, such as demonstrative, they are refer to time (Saeed 2003: 186). For example: now, then, soon, recently, Monday, January, week and tense. Let us have a look at examples (12) below in order to get a more clear comprehension.

(12) *He* is lecturing semantics *now*.

Now in (12) means the time when the speaker uttered. What must be considered is that the word *he* in (12) means everyone (teacher or lecturer). It depends on when the speaker uttered, for example, if the speaker uttered the word *semantics* of (12) in “Matrikulasi Class” at University of Indonesia on Monday morning, *he* refers to Prof. Anton, but if the speaker uttered on Wedenesay morning, *he* refers to Mr. Liberty. Let us see other types of deixis in order to sharpen our understanding.

4. person deixis.

We have to consider the roles of participants in the communication process. For instance:

(13) *I*’ve lost the contract.

The first person singular pronoun *I* is deictic. When Sabine Latour says (13), the word *I* refers to Sabine Latour, and when John Holmes says “*I* will go to hospital”, the word *I* here refers to John Holmes.

5. social deixis.

In considering social deixis, we have to see the social identity or the relationship of the participants in the conversation, the

calculations of relative intimacy and formality to their addressees (Levinson in Saeed 2003: 188). For instance:

(14) Prof. Deborah Tannen is discussing language and gender in George Town University.

How to call Deborah Tannen as Professor is different when the student call the other lecturers at the University of George town who have not become Professor yet. It is done because the student appreciate the social identity, the relationship and the ability of the Professor.

Below is one of the examples of a paper in Semantics

Semantics Meaning Complexity in Combination of Predication (The Negated Antonyms) on English Paraphrase: Linguistics and Materials Developments

Abstract

Material development is basically dealing with selection, adaptation, and creation of teaching materials (Nunan, 1991). This paper attempts to comprehensively describe the complexity of the semantic meanings in the English paraphrase predication combination with antonyms. The paper will analyze some English words to observe the meaning of the words in English paraphrase of combination of predication with antonyms. The problem is some verbs and some adjectives, which related to the negated antonyms deal with the complexity of semantics meaning, the meaning cannot use its contradictory. Terms and explanation of data obtained through library lexical semantics and grammatical semantics. The combination of predication is negated antonyms

in English paraphrase cause problems of its own. The complexity of the semantic meaning was derived from the dimensions of the conflict of meaning, which was already questioned by Leech in 1981. This paper is the first step to look at the complex problems antonyms, which of course requires further research in view of the diversity dimension to declare two or more meanings.

Keywords: *Antonym, combination of predication, linguistics and materials development, and semantic meaning.*

1. Introduction

There are two goals in the traditional descriptive of lexical semantics, namely: (1) determine the meaning of each word in a language; and (2) show how the meanings of words in a language are interrelated (Saeed 2000: 53). In this paper, the writer will analyze the words in the English language with a focus on the first goal, which to look at the meaning of words in the English paraphrase predication combination with antonyms. The main problem here is that sometimes the type of verb or adjective related to antonyms predication is negated in a combination of English paraphrase experiencing the complexity of semantic meaning, so the meaning cannot directly use the contradictions. Parera said that antonyms with the type of contradiction remains a problem because not all words can contradict by single. For example, the Indonesian phrase “**tidak**” (no) cannot guarantee contradiction, because it should be tested again in another proposition according to context (2004: 71), how the complexity of meaning in English paraphrase, need a separate study.

2. Literature Review

2.1. The concept of antonyms (lexical semantics)

In traditional terminology, antonyms are words whose meaning opposition (Saeed 2000: 66). Furthermore, Saeed , mentioned five types of opposition (66-68), namely:

- a. **Simple antonyms**, namely the relationship between pairs of words that if one positive, the other negative. The pair is often called a complementary pair or binary pairs. For example: *dead* “mati” by *Alive* “hidup”
- b. **Terraced antonyms**: the relationship between the opposition if one positive , the other does not have to be negative. For example: *hot* “panas” with *cold* “dingin”
- c. **The reverse (reverses)**: relation that shows the movement in the opposite direction. For example: *push* “dorong” and *pull* “tarik”.
- d. **Conversion (converses)**: The relationship between the two entities from the viewpoint changed. For example: *employee* ‘pekerja’ with *employers* “pemberi kerja”.
- e. **Taxonomy (taxonomic sisters)**: the relationship between the words in the classification system. For example: *red* “merah” and *blue* “biru”.

2.2. The concept of predicator’s role (grammatical semantics)

Kridalaksana (2002: 59) says that the theory of semantic function involves interaction between one element with another element. That is, a grammatical unit is stated to be function only when there are certain other functions. Semantic interaction between grammatical units can be defined as the relationship

between predicator with arguments in a proposition. Predicator include the meaning of such actions, how, process, position, location, direction, conditon, quantity, quality, or identity in the form of verbs, adjectives, adverbial, prepositional, numeralia or zero (\emptyset). While the argument categorized nouns or pronouns that are objects, in addition, the relationship between each argument and predicator called roles. In this case, the semantic function is how much a role as universal and specific, and what role there.

3. Discussions

3.1. The complexity of the semantic meanings in combination predication (antonyms which negated) English paraphrase.

Let us consider the problem (1) in view of the following roles, which can be characterized to explain its function.

(1) *It's still clean, but it's dirtier than before.*

Clean and **dirtier** are two contradictory meanings that can be said really contradictory in meaning, or are in a contradictory position, meaning that there are two meanings are mutually exclude and reject appearance together in a single proposition or sentence statement .If one is true, then the other one is wrong. The test tool is negation. Then the meaning of clean “bersih” should negate with negation **not dirty** “tidak kotor” but, here dirtier “lebih kotor” instead of negation’ “bersih”. The complexity of this meaning we can test further by incorporating both *clean* and *dirtier* meaning into a single proposition, for example, *that house is still clean and dirtier than before*. The proposition is still not acceptable. If we look at the predicator function of his role,

then *clean* and *dirtier* is a significant predicator that have meaning of condition, it is still not able to resolve the complexity of semantic meaning. Antonyms in the negated phrase still remains a problem because not all words can contradict by single.

Let us consider the example (2) below:

(2) *I agree with her, but my husband disagree.*

In English, **agree** and **disagree** are the word contradiction, because those two words might not appear together in any proposition how thin the opposition. The English word contradicts the bound morpheme means im - as - allomorph in meaningful negation. However, how if the combination of predication in English paraphrase is not as simple as the example (2), but more complex as in antonyms as in the example (3) below.

- (3) *a. Place the mixture in a cool oven.*
 b. This substance burns with a cool flame.
 c. Put it in the warm part of the refrigerator.

The word **oven** in the example (3a) and flame (3b) actually refers to the meaning of something hot (Cruse 1986: 213), while refrigerator refers to the meaning of something cold. However, the problem is that the example above, the word **warm** to (3c) actually negate with the word **cool** in (3a and 3b), although in fact, a contradiction of the word **cool** in English is the word **hot**. Therefore, the meaning of which is called Cruse as **overlapping antonyms**, raises the complexity of semantic meaning. It means that, *a cool oven* in the example (3a) cannot be interpreted as a furnace or stove, which is warm or hot spot, but the stove is warm or hot, which in English is warm, not hot. That is the negation of

hot of *cool* cannot be used and interpreted here, “a cool oven” is not the same as ‘furnace/ cool stove’. Cruse (1986: 213) explains that the above pair antonyms can be *hot* and *cold*; *warm* and *cold*; *hot* and *cool*; *cold* and *warm*. Therefore, the issue of any antonyms above can be questioned and dealt with as the figure below, which is referred to as level of antonymys.

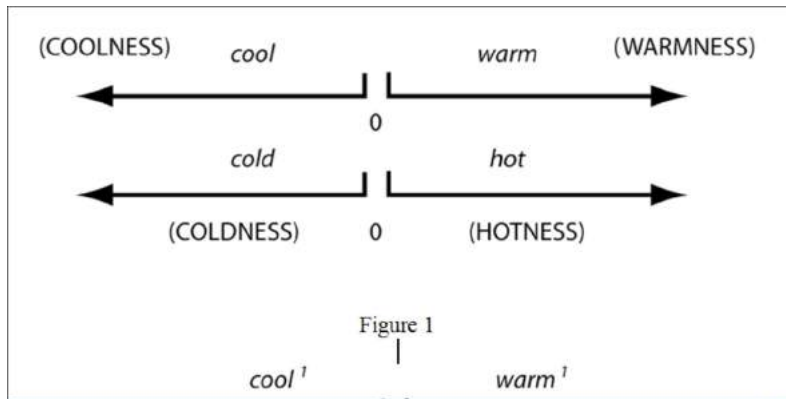


Figure 1

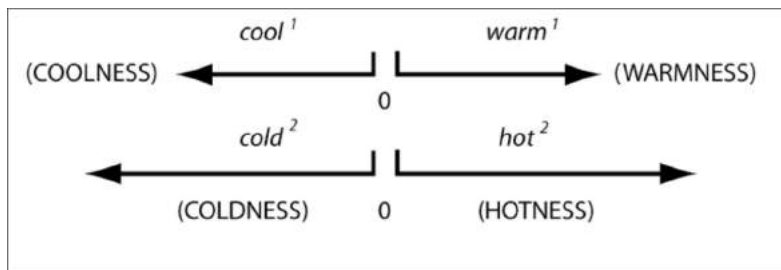


Figure 2

From the figure above, we often have some questions, for example, ‘how hot this room’ (*berapa panas ruangan ini*)?, but it is rarely heard to us of a question ‘how cool this room’ (*berapa dingin ruangan ini*)?. Therefore, this terrace antonyms happened, because of the relationship between the opposition. if one

positive, the other should not be negative. Among the word *cold* (negative pole). There is still another word, they are the word of *suam suam kuku, hangat* (warm), and hot, which is called polar (positive pole). Another interesting case is the type of antonyms to the size of logic called **kontrer** (Parera 2004: 73), and it is usually found in the meaning of the adjective in the following example.

(4) *He is not old and not young*

In giving the meaning to the phrase above (4), it is quite difficult because, in terms of meaning, the above phrase is meaningless and no contents ('he is not old and not young' *la tidak tua dan tidak muda*). In English, the word *old* and *young* are contradictory, but the negation becomes meaningless, because there is a meeting and within the meaning of Indonesian, predicate negation with '**tidak/not**' are contradictory. That is, the statement can be tested with another predicate negation in Indonesian ' *bukan/not* ' and the results still show the content meaningless.

- (5) a. *He is not old and not young (la tidak tua dan tidak muda)*
 b. *He is not young and not old (la bukan muda dan bukan tua)*

It means that the type of contradictory antonyms remains a problem in itself because the word **old** and **young** cannot be a single contradiction with the addition of negation **not**. The examples of the type of **kontrer** antonyms also present in the example below:

(6) *John is not rich and not poor*

'John is not rich and not poor (John tidak kaya dan tidak miskin)' means that there is a contradiction. In this case, we can be said , that " John is not rich and not poor (John tidak kaya dan tidak miskin)" , it means that there is a norm between rich and

poor; simple example . Word meaning of rich and poor included in *polaris* contention. The effort of systematized within relation of the antonyms meaning has been done by experts including Lyons (1996); Leech (1981); (Cruse 2004) and Parera (2004) . The systematize effort helps people in the process of thinking in the face of complexity in the semantic meaning.

4. Conclusion

The negated antonyms in predication combination of English paraphrase cause problems of its own. The complexity of the semantic meaning was derived from the dimensions of the conflict of meaning, which was already questioned by Leech in 1981. This paper is only the first step to look at the complexity problems of antonymys, which of course requires further research in view of the diversity dimension to declare the two or more meaning.

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Chapter 4

Sound Segment and Suprasegmental in Phonetics

Phonetics is the study of speech sounds (Fromkin et al 2003: 232). This chapter aims to describe sounds in English. This discussion is taken from eight sources, they are Carr (1999), Catford (1990), Clark and Yallop (1991), Fromkin et al (2003), Ladefoged (1993), Matthews (1997), O'Grady et al (1997) and Robins (1989/1992).

Actually, phonetics includes in multidicipline study, it means that it is not only refer to certain language but all languages. It can be applied in many languages. In line with speech, phonetics relates to anatomy, particularly in providing means of describing and classifying all the sound that can be produced by human vocal tracts (Catford 1990: 1). Generally, phonetics can be viewed into three parts as a group of phonetic sciences: (i) **articulatory phonetics**, it is often tends to deal with the identification and classfication of individual sounds (Clark and Yallop 1991: 1); (ii)

acoustic phonetics, it is restricted to instrumental analysis and measurement of sound waves (Clark and Yallop 1991: 1); (iii) **auditory phonetics**, it is concerned with the perception of speech sounds (Matthews 1997: 29), and this paper only focuses on articulatory phonetics.

Every speech sound belongs to one or other of the two main classes known as vowels and consonants. According to O’Grady et al (1997: 32), “vowels are sonorous, syllabic sounds made with the vocal tract more open than it is for consonant and glide articulation”. In English, vowels are divided into two major types, **simple vowels** and **diphtongs** (O’ Grady et al 1997: 32). Simple vowel is also called **monophthongs** (Fromkin et al 2003: 255). Vowel itself can be viewed as three positions: the tongue movement (high and low), (back and front position) and rounding lips. To test this, let us take a look at example below:

- (1) a. *he* and *paw*.
- b. *paw* and *pat*.
- c. *he* and *who*.

If we pronounce the vowels of (1a), we will feel the tongue move from a high front to a low back position, while if we pronounce (1b), we will feel the tongue moving from the the low back to low front position and besides moving a tongue between the high front and high back position, we are also rounding our lips in pronouncing (1c). Therefore, the tongue position and transcription for three English vowels above can be concluded as [ij], [a] and [uw].

In addition, we can see vowel from rounding lips. **Rounded vowels** can be found in the vowels [u], [U], [o] and [], while

unrounded vowels can be found in the vowels [a] and [i] (Fromkin et al 2003: 254). Another examples of rounded and unrounded vowels take place in the (2) and (3) below:

(2) *code* and *soak*:

(3) *made* and *fame*:

The vowel of (2) is mid, back and rounded ([ɔ], [ʊ]). The front vowel of English (3) is mid, front and unrounded ([ɛ], [e]). Generally, there are eight vowels in certain language. It is called **cardinal vowel**, which can be articulated by tongue and lips in consistent position, that is in four front vowel and four back vowel. It is transcribed as [i], [e], [ɛ], [a], [ɔ], [o], [u] (Robins 1989: 111). In order to sharpen our understanding on the notion of cardinal vowel, let us see figure 1 below.

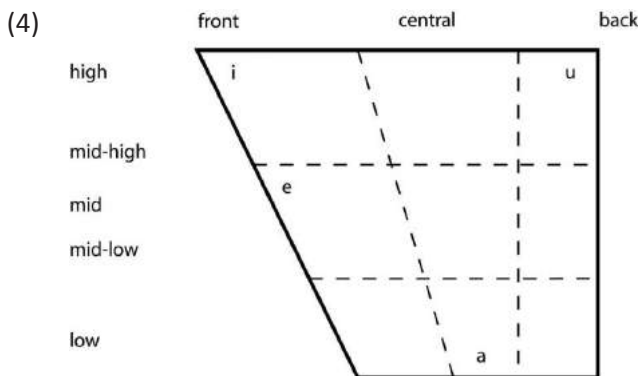


Figure 1. “A vowel chart showing the relative vowel qualities represented by some of the symbols used in transcribing English. The symbols [e, a, o] occur as the first elements of diphthongs” (Ladefoged 1993: 38).

Another English vowels is **diphthongs**. It is a sequence of two sounds which consist of vowel and glide (Fromkin et al 2003: 255), while Clark and Yallop (1991: 102) referred to

diphthongization as a complex articulation combining pure vowels. For example:

- | | |
|------------------|--------------|
| (5) a. heat [ij] | e. lose [uw] |
| b. say [ej] | f. grow [ow] |
| c. buy [aj] | g. boy [j] |
| d. cow [aw] | |

Now, let us consider another types of sounds, that is consonants. According to Fromkin et al (2003: 242), “consonants are produced with some restriction or closure in the vocal tract that impedes the flow of air from the lungs”. Consonants can be viewed into two parts, we can see from its places of articulation and manners of articulations (Robins 1989: 105). Furthermore, Ladefoged (1993: 6-7) divides places of articulation as describe in the figure below:

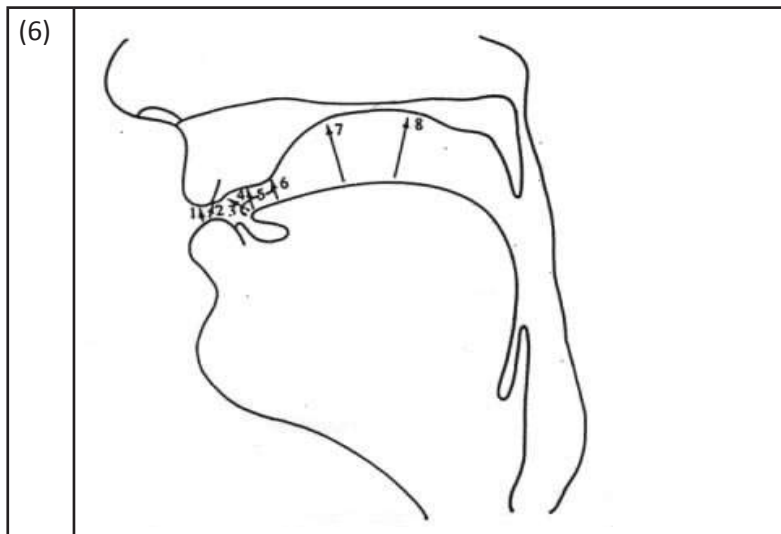


Figure 2. *Places of Articulation*

Ladefoged (1993: 6) says that the term number (1) in the figure above is **bilabial**; the sound is called bilabial because it is made with

the two lips, such as [p], [b] and [m] (Fromkin et al 2003: 242), for instance, when speaker utters words such as *pie*, *buy*, *my*. Number (2) is **labiodental**, speaker articulates the sound by touching the lower lip and upper front teeth, such as *fie*, *vie* informing [f] and [v] (Fromkin et al 2003: 242). Number (3) is **dental**, Ladefoged (1993: 6) says that there is the differences between American and British English pronunciation. In American English, the speaker has the tip of the tongue protruding between the upper and lower front teeth, while speaker in British English has it close behind the upper front teeth. The dental itself is the process of pronouncing the words when tongue tip or blade and upper front teeth but if there is a distinction between the teeth, it will be called **interdental**. For example, when saying the words *thigh*, *thy*.

Number (4) in the figure above is **alveolar**, [t], [d], [n], [s], [z], [l], [r] (Fromkin et al 2003: 242), which is resulted from tongue tip or blade and the alveolar ridge (Ladefoged 1993: 6), for instance, when saying words such as: *tie*, *die*, *nigh*, *sigh*, *zeal*, *lip*. He gives the example in pronouncing *ten* and *tenth* for differentiating dental and alveolar. Fromkin et al (2003: 242- 43) say that retroflex (number 5) is also called an **alveolar trill** (tongue blade and the back of the alveolar ridge (Ladefoged 1993: 7). In English, for example, when saying words such as *rye*, *row*, *ray*. Number (6) is called **palato alveolar** (tongue blade and the back of the alveolar ridge), for instance, when saying *shy*, *she*, *show* (Ladefoged 1993: 7). Fromkin et al (2003: 243) say that (7) is **palatal** and sometimes is also called **alveopalatal** which is resulted from front of the tongue and hard palate [ʃ], [ʃ̺], [ʒ], [ʒ̺], [č], [j], for example, when producing the sounds in the middle of the words *mission* [miʃən]

and *measure* [mɛʒər]. Lastly, (8) is **velar** [k], [g], [ŋ] is resulted from back of the tongue and soft palate (Ladefoged 1993: 7). In English, for instance, when saying the words *hack*, *hag*, *hang*.

Based on manner of articulation, consonant can be divided into **voiced** and **voiceless sounds** and **nasal** and **oral sounds**. If the sound produces when the vocal cords are vibrating are said to be **voiced** (Ladefoged 1993: 2). Let's take a look at example (7) and (8) below in order to get to the point.

(7) *seep* [sip], *seat* [sit], and *seek* [sik]

(8) *bate* [bet], *date* [det], *gate* [get], *cob* [kab], *cod* [kad], *cog* [kag] and *daze* [dez]

About (7), they are voiceless sounds. The sounds produced in [p], [t], [k], and [s]. while (8), such sounds are voiced and are illustrated by the sounds [b], [d], [g], and [z] in those words. The voiced and voiceless distinction is very important in English (Fromkin et al 2003: 244). This phonetic feature, distinguishes the word pairs like the following:

(9) a. rope/robe

[rop]/[rob]

b. fate/fade

[fet]/[fed]

c. rack/rag

[ræk]/[ræg]

d. wreath/wreathe

[riθ]/[rið]

Fromkin et al (2003: 246) add that "if the sounds produced with the velum up, blocking the air from escaping through the nose are **oral sounds**", but if the sound produced with removing the air through nose, it is called **nasal sounds** (Robins 1989: 119).

Ladefoged (1993: 8-11) discusses some ways of classifying consonants based on the air obstruction to the outside. They are

oral and nasal stops, fricative, affricates, liquids and glides. **Stops** is complete closure of the articulators involved, so that the airstream cannot escape through the mouth (Ladefoged 1993: 8), such as [p], [b], [m], [t], [d], [n], [k], [g], [ŋ], [č], [j], [ʔ] (Fromkin et al 2003: 247). In **oral stop**, “if in addition to the articulatory closure in the mouth, the soft palate is raised so that the nasal tract is blocked off, then the airstream will be completely obstructed” (Ladefoged 1993: 8). Let us consider the example below:

- (10) a. *pie, buy* (bilabial closure)
 b. *tie, dye* (alveolar closure)
 c. *kye, guy* (velar closure)

Nasal stop happens “if the air is stopped in the oral cavity but the soft palate is down so that it can go out through the nose”, (Ladefoged 1993: 8). For example:

- (11) a. *my* (bilabial closure)
 b. *nigh* (alveolar closure)
 c. *sang* (velar closure)

Nasal and oral sounds of course, could be classified as stops, but the term stop is almost often used to indicate an oral stop and the term nasal to indicate a nasal stop (Ladefoged 1993: 9). Fromkin et al (2003: 248) propose **fricative** as [f], [v], [θ], [ð], [s], [z], [š], [ž]. It is close approximation of two articulators, therefore, the airstream is obstructed and turbulent airflow is produced. For example:

- (12) a. *fie, vie* (labiodental)
 b. *thigh, thy* (dental)
 c. *sigh, zoo* (alveolar)
 d. *shy* (palato alveolar)

Sometimes, the words such as *sigh* and *shy* in (12c) and (12d) are called **sibilants**.

An affricate [č], [j] is a sequence of a stop plus a fricative (Fromkin et al 2003: 248). For instance:

- (13) a. *church* and *judge*.
 b. *white shoes* and *why choose*.

The words (13a) are voiceless and voiced affricates because the palatal sound in the beginning words (Fromkin et al 2003: 248), while (13 b) expressions are indistinguishable by pronouncing (13b) rapidly. **Liquids** [l], [r] is resulted from obstructing the airstream in the mouth, so that it is not easy in resulting friction, for example,

- (14) *please* and *price*

In English, [l], and [r] are voiced because, when they follow voiceless sounds as in (14), they probably partially devoiced, and the voicing does not begin until part way through the consonants (Fromkin et al 2003: 242). **Glides** [j], [w], there is only a little or no obstruction of the airstream in the mouth (Fromkin et al 2003: 250). For instances:

- (15) a. *jod*.
 b. *yes* and *boy*.
 c. *wet* and *now*.

The two glides of American English are the (15a) [jad] (North American ‘y-glide). [j] of (15b) and the w-glide [w] of (15c). The [j] in IPA transcription corresponds to the [y] of North American transcription. Let’s take a look to the new table that Fromkin et al (2003: 251) draws:

(16)		Bilabial	Labiodental	Interdental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
	Stop (oral)							
	voiceless	p			t		k	
	voiced	b			d		g	
	Nasal (stop)	m			n			
	Fricative							
	voiceless		f		s			
	voiced		v		z			
	Affricate							
	voiceless							
	voiced							
	Glide							
	voiceless					j		
	voiced							
	Liquid				l r			

Table 1. *Minimal Set of Phonetic Symbols for American English Consonants.*

In **suprasegmental** or **prosodic** properties, we will find stress, pitch and length. The stress is different from prominents although we can made prominence involve in speech event (Robins 1989: 127), while O'Grafy et al (1997: 42) say that the result of stress is prominence, it is a cover term for the combined effects of pitch, loudness and length. Another factors that influences the stress is **sonority**. Robins (1987: 127) says that it is the sounds of language which inherently has the highest stress than another language, for example:

- (17) a. (an) export [ɛks pɔrt] e. telegraphic [t^hɛl gr fɪk]
 b. (a) present [prɛz nt] f. (to) export [ɛks pɔrt]
 c. telegraph [t^hɛl gr f] g. (to) present [prɪjz ɛnt]
 d. telegraphy [t^h lɛgr fɪj]

In English, (17a) is a noun and (17f) is a verb which are differentiate based on marking stress. In the (19 (d, e, f, g)) examples, we can see that the quality of certain vowels varies

depending on whether they are stressed or unstressed. This phenomenon is common in English.

Pitch is an acoustic result from the speed of vocal cords vibration in voice utterances (Robins 1989: 126). Two kinds of controlled pitch movement found in human language are called **tone** and **intonation** (O’Grady et al 1997: 37). They add that a language is said to have tone or be tone language when differences in pitch. For instance:

(18) *a car?*

When a speaker of English says (18) with a rising pitch, the word *car* does not mean anything different from the same form pronounced on a different pitch level or with a different pitch counter, while languages that are not tone languages such as English are called **intonation languages** (Fromkin et al 2003: 261). It is supported by Carr (1999: 129) that “the speakers of English do not exploit pitch differences in the way that speakers of tone languages do. Let us consider some examples below:

- (19) a. Are you going to the / shops?
b. John is going to the shops?\

In English for example, we put the symbol of a rising pitch in (19a) before the relevant syllable, while (19b) puts it on the last stress syllable. So, we can see that there is typically a rising pitch or a rise counter and a falling pitch in English, of course, the difference pitch will describe the different meaning. (19a) is a question, but (19 b) is a statement while **length** is also part of suprasegmental feature which have duration more than normal (Fromkin et al 2003: 259), and it also helps to differentiate the meaning in English

Understanding Indonesian Directive Intonation by Praat Software: Utilizing the Educational Technologies in Learning

Abstract

Recently, the trends in teaching and learning process is by utilizing the educational technologies. One of the educational technologies is *praat software*. This software is beneficial to assess whether student's intonation is appropriate or not to the native speaker of language. The writer has conducted one study by utilizing this software to Japanese student. One of the factors that makes a listener could understand an utterance is an intonation of a speaker. Intonation is a symptom of prosodic , which closely related to sentence structure and interrelated to a sentence in a discourse. It is especially discussed in acoustics phonetics, which studies a language feature as sound waves that distributed through air. Sounds or utterances of Indonesian will be audible if uttered by a native speaker of Indonesian, but it will be strange if it is uttered by foreign student who was studying Indonesian. This study examined how foreign speaker intonation (a native Speaker of Japanese) in uttering Indonesian directives. This research describes suprasegmental sound, which related to Indonesian intonation, such as intonation pattern, juncture group, and contour (pre contour/primer contour). It is a qualitative research with Linguistics-phonetics approach. Furthermore, it is a case study of a Japanese student who was studying Indonesian at BIPA University of Indonesia on the year 2005/2006. The data is taken from Miss Maki's utterances, which recorded in FISIP UI

laboratory. The result shows that *praat software* is very helpful in analyzing the first record, segmentation result, and data manipulation result. Therefore, this study is expected to provide us with an opportunity to utilize the educational technologies in learning in more beneficial and attractive way.

Key Words: *Understanding Indonesian Directive, Intonation, Praat Software, Educational Technologies*

1. Introduction

Speaking and listening are two important processes in communication. If the listeners can better understand the content or the message conveyed by the speaker, then of course the listeners were able to capture sounds or speech delivered by air. Sounds themselves have no meaning, but in the structure of the language, either stand alone or in combination with others, these sounds can carry meaning (Lass 1991: 3). In this case, sound and speech produced by the human vocal organs. Vocal organs and the physical characteristics of each human different organs, resulting in a different sound and speech as well. One factor that makes the listener understand an utterance, whether it is a command line prompt, or intonation of the speaker or speakers. Intonation is itself a symptom of prosody, closely conjunction with sentence structure and interrelation sentence in a discourse (Halim 1984: 77) , in particular, it will be discussed in acoustic phonetics , which is investigating the physical characteristics of the sounds of language, which distributed through air (Rahyono 2005: 32).

Sound or Indonesian utterances would sound commonly if they are spoken by the ordinary people of Indonesia. It will be

different if it is pronounced by a foreign speaker who studied Indonesian, Japanese, for example, which has a spotty accent (pitch accent) or accent tone, which is very different from the pressure accents in English, German, European, and other Asian languages, including Indonesian (Yasuo 1999: 2). Similarly, the intonation, so that Japanese speakers who utter sentences in Indonesian, that is usually fixed in the Japanese accent or intonation (the exception, when it learned Indonesian and long stay in Indonesia, although this does not necessarily guarantee), because it has a typical Japanese of its own, namely the Japanese syllable is an open syllable, and always end with a vowel sound .So it can be used as syllables hana ha - na , and Paipu be pa - i - pu .Moreover, the Japanese are also the same sound, so that all syllables have nearly the same sound time. The phenomenon of Japanese speakers who spoke or uttered Indonesian utterances with Japanese intonation interesting to be investigated.

According to Halim (1984 : 79-80), intonation has two main functions, namely: (i) the grammatical function; meaning that the fundamental or primary function; (ii) emotional function; these two functions have an important role, because if the speaker or speakers change intonation in an utterance, then the tone of the speaker can show emotion. This argument is similar to that expressed by Lehiste (1970: 95) that “ nonlinguistic intonation also carries meanings, in this respect it is analogous to the tempo , i . e , the use of features of duration at the sentence level to reflect the attitudes of the speakers and the relative urgency of the message” . Whether or not it (intonation shows emotion), will not be evidenced by a small study and in a relatively short

time, but this study will focus on the opinion of Halim. It is said that to understand the tone of a speaker, the introduction of characterization required Indonesian intonation, as (i) the intonation pattern (total), (ii) the interval group, (iii) contour, or pracontour either principal or primary contours and (iv) phoneme intonation which includes a high -level tone (TT), pressure, and pause. However, this study only describes the command sentence intonation problems by Indonesian speaker with Indonesian intonation characterization analysis proposed by Halim (1984 : 80), which is limited to proving the hypothesis that Japanese native speakers who speak Indonesian has a different intonation patterns of the characterization of Indonesian intonation.

2. Formulation of the Problem

This study focuses on how the intonation of foreign speakers (the native speakers of Japanese) in Indonesian uttered the Indonesian directive (command).

3. Objectives and Scope of Research

The purpose of this study is to describe the tone of command Indonesian sentence uttered by the Japanese (the Japanese student, who studies BIPA at University of Indonesia in 2005/2006 which has been studied Indonesian for one year). This study is a case study that describes the sound of suprasegmental (prosodic) directly related to the characterization of Indonesian intonation of sentences such as intonation patterns, group pause, contour (pra contour/primary contour).

4.Theoretical Background

4.1. Previous Research

There is a small number of Indonesian Intonation (Halim 1984: 17). Furthermore, Halim said that intonation only very briefly discussed and even if discussed. The previous research has much to learn about word stress in auditory impressions recorded in the notation ortography. Therefore, the theoretical framework of the intonation is still very limited. The author in this case will take some theories of earlier research by Halim (1984: 17-37) as follows.

4.1.1William Marsden

Marsden (1812) in Halim (1984: 17) gives the following definition of prosody:

“ ... grammar section that discusses stress, quality or size of syllables, as well as proper arrangement in shaping the composition of metrics, or poem that due to be distinguished with the prose ... “ (*“...bagian tata bahasa yang memperbincangkan tekanan, kualitas atau ukuran suku kata, serta susunannya yang tepat dalam membentuk komposisi metrik, atau syair karena diperbedakan dengan prosa...”*)

This study is the earlier study on the placement of word stress in Indonesian. The stress in the Indonesian language is a matter of quantity or length. Marsden concludes two rules, namely: (1) the pressure falls on the second syllable of the word basis with the exception of; (i) if the basic word is monosyllabic word, in the case of stress placement rules, it is not necessary because there is only one syllable. It means that the basic word given stress if it says its

contains to a stress basis; (ii) if the second syllable of the last word contains the sound of *pepet*, the stress falls on the last term; (2) if a word consisting of one or more base words and affixes one or more , the stress shifts from the second syllable of the word or words into the second term that is the basic principal of the word derivation.

4.1.2. Tassilo Adam and James P. Butler

It still the same as Marsden, Adam and Butler also limited the research on Indonesian word pressure. They added that if the Malay language is written with the Arabic alphabet letters, stressed vowel is lost, then the rules of the stress can be used. Furthermore, they added a suffix when added to a base word, keep the stress falls on the last two parts which were combined.

4.1.3. Hans Kahler

It is still reviewing the word stress. The important thing to note from this study is the power of the word stress, it means that the high altitude tone syllables are under stress, is proportional to the specific emotional factors. Kahler in Halim (1984: 20) states that the speakers were passionate and excited the higher the pitch, and putting stress regulated to grammatical words.

4.1.4. J.Verguin

Verguin is still reviewing the word stress. His research proves that in general, the first vowel gets longer span of time stress, stronger power of articulation, higher pitch level than the second vowel base words studied. The most prominent thing in this study is not a characteristic that determines the intensity of the stress of the Indonesian word.

4.1.5. S.Takdir Alisjahbana

Intonation has been discussed by Alisjahbana. He connects with Indonesian grammar. Alisjahbana (1964: 23) in Halim defines two types of stress, which is as follows: word stress and sentence stress. Indonesian word stress falls on the last syllable of a word, except if the word ends with the suffix pronouns like *me* and *her*. Technically, Alisjahbana split sentence of three types of stress: (1) the dynamic pressure or *aloud*; (2) the high pressure or high tone of voice; and (3) pressure durational or *tempo*.

Establishment Alisjahbana about stress is that stress in the Indonesian language is not supported by instrumental assessment, such as pitch, intensity, and time span. Further, he argued that the intensity of a characteristic peculiar to the less pressure, which stands out is the high tone and timescales. It should be noted that the intensity, pitch, and duration is not stated the emotional meaning (1984: 25). That marks the grammatical features are not characteristic of the intensity of stress, but the placement of the stress in a sentence and intonation characteristics such as displacement of pitch, pauses, and so on.

Alisjahbana proposed one to one equivalence between intonation and form sentences when talking about: (1) basic song of declarative; (2) basic song of interrogative; (3) basic song of imperative.

In connection with this study, Alisjahbana suggests basic song of imperative sentences. He explained that the basic song consists of two parts, the first part has a high rising tone, while the second has a pitch down. The song has a basic sentence pause command, which form a single vertical line. Transcription

of the intonation patterns are 233n/231t # found in declarative sentences, interrogative and imperative.

4.1.6. Armijn Pane

Stress and intonation can be seen and started on oral language (Pane in Halim 1984: 27). Pane started his research of sound, stress, and then to the morphology and syntax. The approach is done through psychological and sociological approaches. He argues that the psychological approach is done because of the language should be taken into account, whereas the sociological approach because language serves as a basic means for social interaction and communication within the community. Different from previous studies, Pane found in Indonesian that there are only a pressure, which is the determining characteristic timescales, and concluded that the pressure of the Indonesian temporary or durative. However, his opinion contrary to his own invention (Halim 1984: 28).

4.1.7. A.A. Fokker

Fokker in Halim (1984: 31) argues that “the tone of a single criterion which gives the final decision on whether an Indonesian linguistic unit we are talking about is a sentence or not”. The results of the formulation are that a sentence is a meaningful linguistic expression, which ultimately limits marked by a decrease in sound or pitch. Fokker further added that a principal component is *tamber* intonation, pitch, duration, rhyme and pause.

5. Theoretical Framework

From the above description of the previous research, the authors did not look at the theory behind this small study. Therefore,

this study only refers to the opinion of Halim in accordance with the characterization that he put forward. If the pattern is not the same as intonation on the analysis, the researchers put forward the hypothesis, which is correct (that the Japanese speakers when speaking Indonesian with the command (directive) does not correspond to a command sentence intonation patterns as proposed by Indonesian (Halim). For example:

(1) a. Bagaimana kalau saya kembalikan saja buku ini?

2- 32t/221t #

b. Jangan sekarang!

2- 31t #

c. Masih perlu?

2- t31t #

d. Ya, besok boleh!

231#2-33n/2-31t#

When we look at an example (1b), the intonation pattern is 2-31t with command sentence “Not now” (*Jangan Sekarang!*). We will see the comparison on the command sentence of the book *Clean!*, When the pattern was different, then the command Indonesian sentences spoken by Japanese people is not the same as Indonesian intonation patterns.

Characterization of Indonesian intonation as proposed by Halim can be explained as follows: (1) intonation pattern, which consists of a group pauses or more (2) The group pauses, which consists of basic contour (actually a (benar-benar sebuah)) and combined with core contour and pracontour. (3) Contour is only one of each contours; contour is itself a unity configuration

consisting of patterns of pitch, pitch motion and stress. A contour and contour consists of primary pracontour can be seen from the original form.

Pracontour and primary contour difference can be seen in two ways: (1) a contour should contain a primary contour (except contour symbolized by 211t), but not necessarily containing a pracontour. Pracontour must precede the primary contour. (2) Only the primary contour containing a stress.

6. Method

6.1. Methods of Data Collection and Data Processing

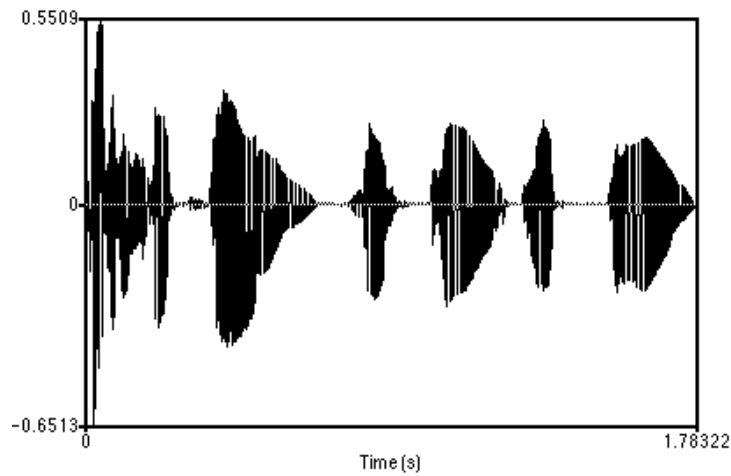
The data in this study was obtained through the study of literature, the Internet, and electronic scientific journals. Electronic device used is a recording device that is in the laboratory FISIP University of Indonesia to record the sentence *ambilkan buku itu!* of Indonesian speakers with native language is Japanese. Informants are BIPA UI students who have studied Indonesian for one year (the biodata and photo attached).

6.2 Result Data Processing and Data Analysis

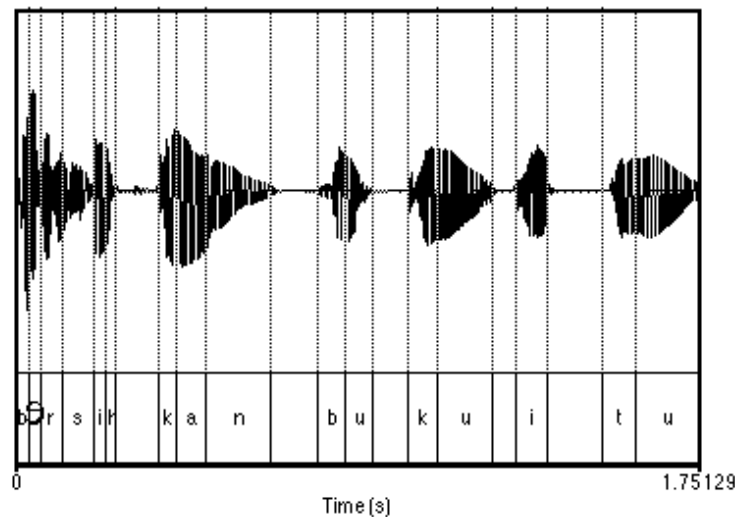
The results of the processing of audio recording software praat is as follows: Researchers present results from the initial recording, segmentation results, the results of the data manipulation of the recording of the informant, which is divided into three sentences command 'Clean up that book!' (*Bersihkan buku itu!*). Furthermore, the researcher did a comparison of the command sentences. There are three records of the sentences.

7. Result and Discussion

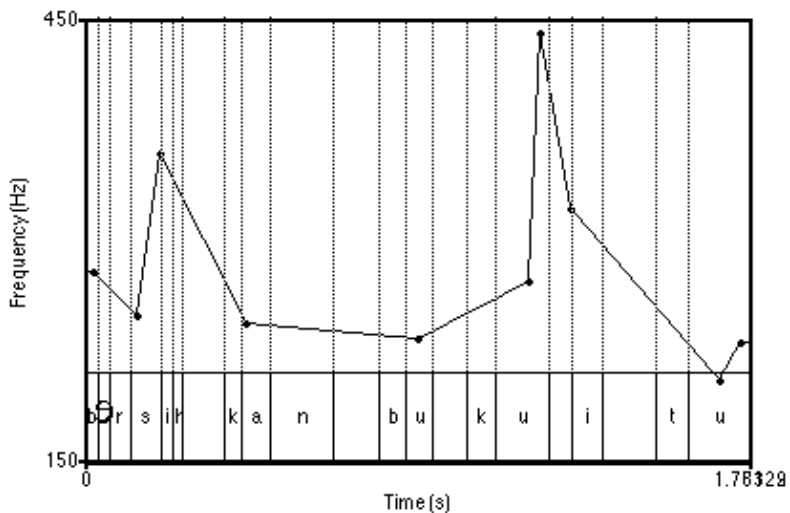
7.1. The result of recorded data on directive intonation 1
'Bersihkan buku itu!'



Picture 1. Audio Record on Indonesian Directive 1 *'Bersihkan buku itu!'*



Picture 2. Audio Record and text grid (1) Indonesian Directive 1
'Bersihkan buku itu!'



Picture 3. The result of audio record manipulation on Indonesian Directive 1 '*Bersihkan buku itu!*'

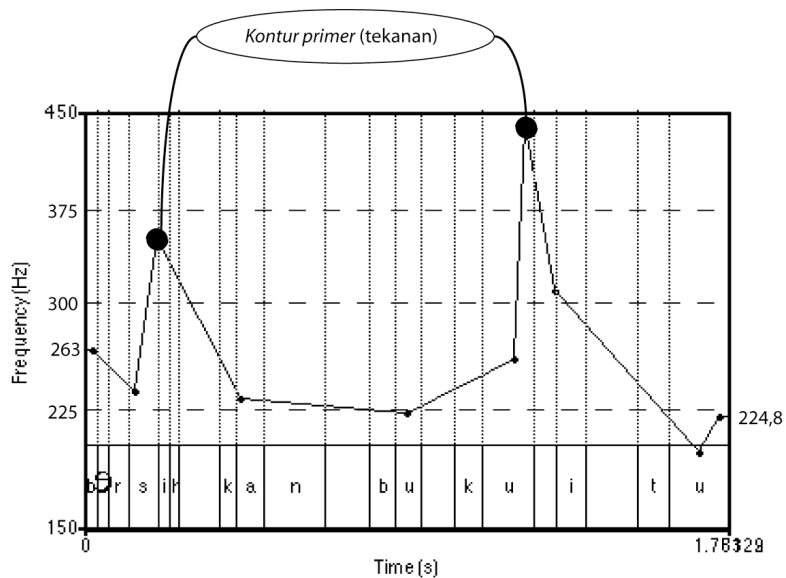


Figure 4. Analysis of the frequency and audio recordings contour command line 1 'Clean up the book!' *Bersihkan buku itu!* • indicates a pause or a terminal limit group

Analysis of the data recording command sentence 1 In figure 2, i and u vowels spoken louder than the other letters.

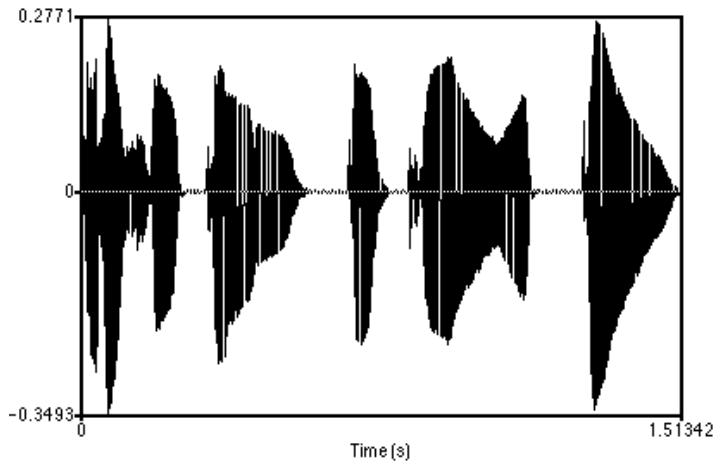
This is shown by the large amplitude, so the pronunciation of vowels in the command line, spoken louder than the other letters. Figure four shows the following results:

Intonation: command line 1 'Clean up that book!' Started pronounced at frequencies around 263 Hz beginning and ending at a frequency of about 224.8 Hz. This means that the speech command sentence 1 'Clean up that book!' Intonation decreased. Researcher use the term intonation up and down in this analysis, so it can be said that the intonation rising at the sound of the word clean anyway, and intonation down at the sound of the word tu.

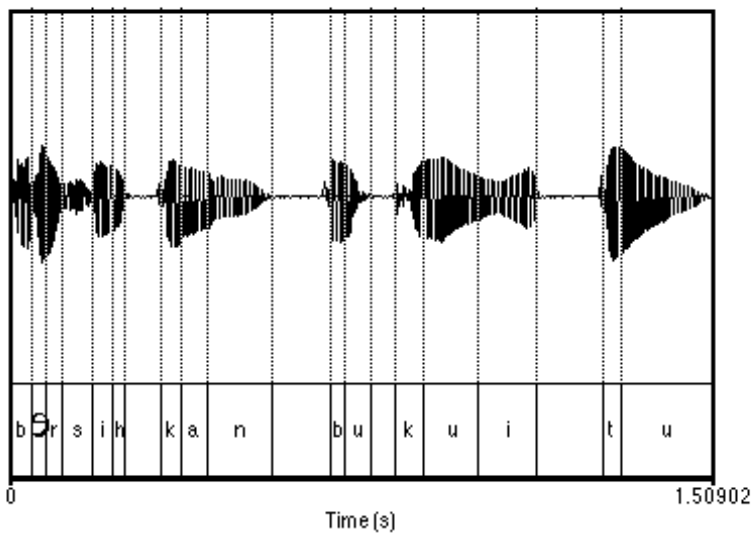
Intonation patterns: one group consists of pause Contours: 1 command sentence has two primary contour shown in figure 4 where the pressure lies in syllable-syllable.

Motion pitch: there are two primary contour, which has decreased and there is a characteristic pressure terminal decline. This indicates that the motion of the pitch tends to decrease. Or pitch motion moving from low frequency to high frequency.

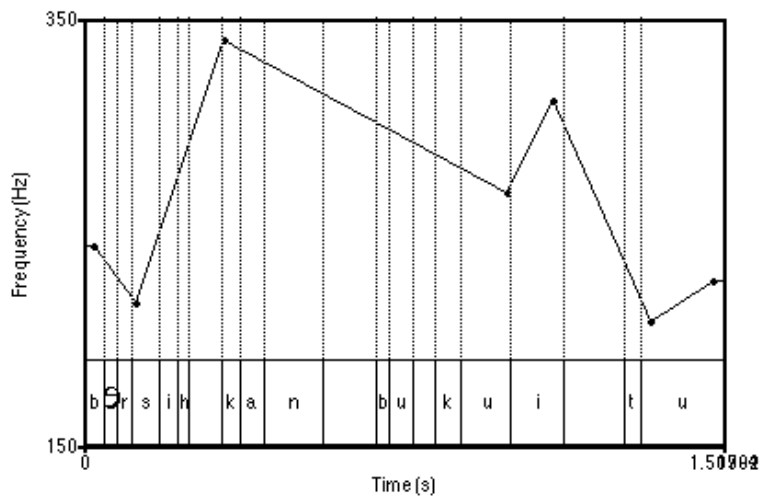
7.2. The result of data processing of audio record on Indonesian Directive 2 'Bersihkan buku itu!'



Picture 5. Audio Record on Indonesian Directive 2 'Bersihkan buku itu!'



Picture 6. Audio record and text grid (1) Indonesian Directive 2 'Bersihkan buku itu!'



Picture 7. The result of audio record manipulation on Indonesian Directive 2 ‘Bersihkan buku itu!’

Audio record data analysis Indonesian Directive 2

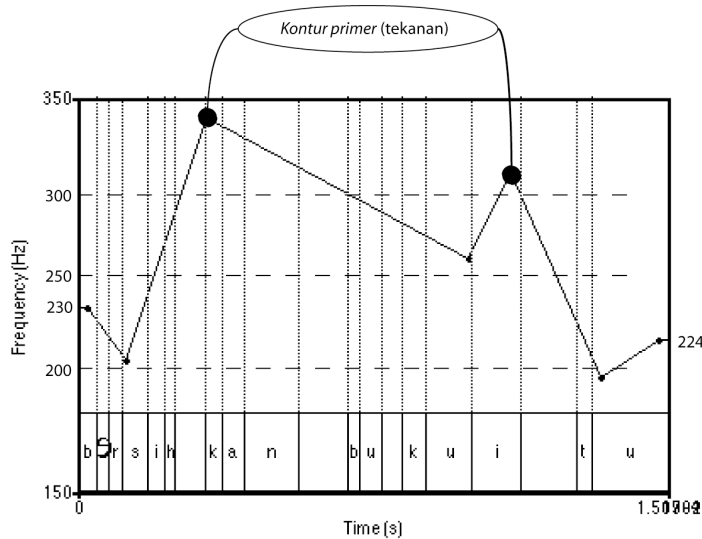


Figure 8. Analysis of the frequency and audio recordings contour command sentence 2 ‘Clean up the book!’ • indicates a pause or a terminal limit group.

Analysis of the data recorded audio 2

Figures 5 and 6 show that the vowels *a* and *i* spoken louder than the other letters. This can be seen in the picture with a large amplitude. Figure 8 clarifies the analysis.

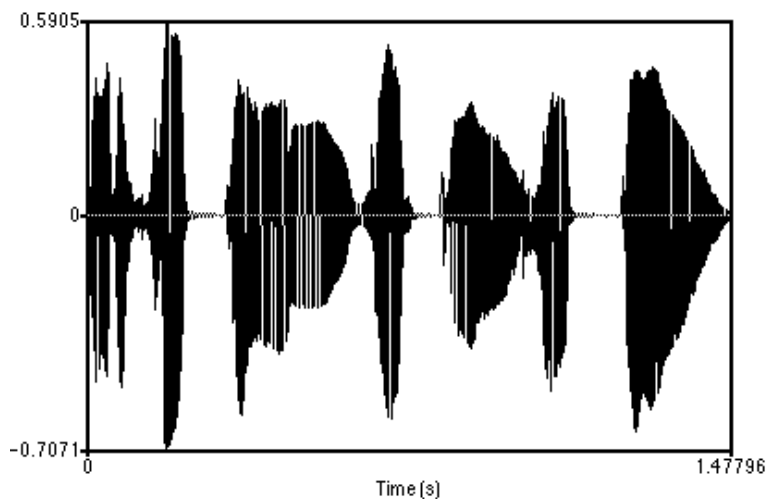
Intonation: 2 imperative sentences ranging pronounced at frequencies around 230 Hz and ends at a frequency of about 224 Hz. Overview not seen a decline by a margin of 6 Hz. However, this frequency difference indicates that the sentence order 2 ‘Clean up that book !’ Intonation decreased. Figure 8 shows that the intonation rising at the sound of the word.. *it clean* , and tone down the sound of the word *tu* . Down the same intonation patterns intonation pattern down on the command line 1 .

Intonation patterns: one group consists of pause

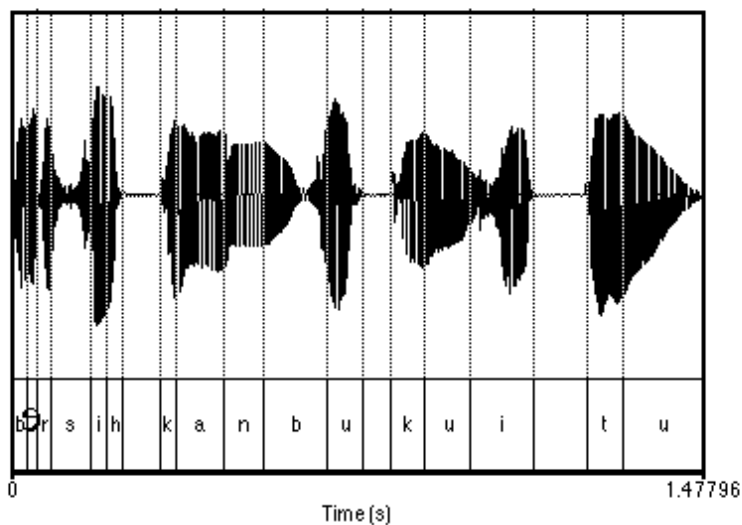
Contour: There are two primary contour on the command line 2

Motion pitch: there are two primary contours that has decreased and there is a characteristic pressure terminal decline. This indicates that the motion of the pitch tends to decrease, or pitch motion moving from low frequency to high frequency.

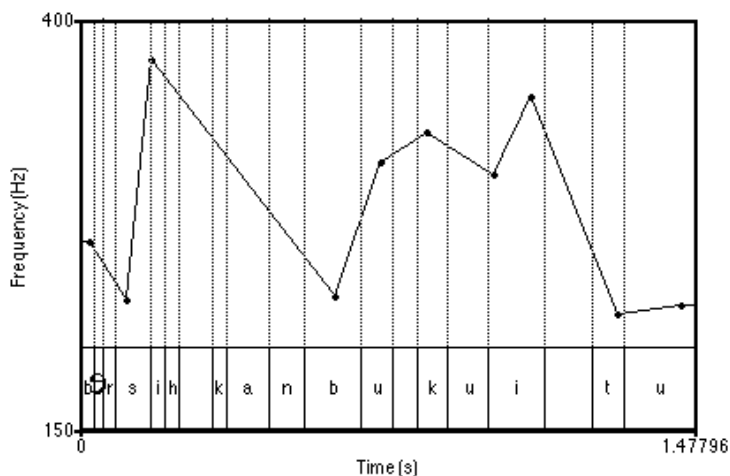
7.3. The result of audio record data processing on Indonesian Directive 3 '*Bersihkan buku itu!*'



Picture 9. Audio record on Indonesian directive 3 '*Bersihkan buku itu!*'



Picture10. Audio record and text grid (1) Indonesian Directive 3 '*Bersihkan buku itu!*'



Picture 11. The result of audio record manipulation on Indonesian Directive 3 '*Bersihkan buku itu!*'

Record data analysis on Indonesian directive 3

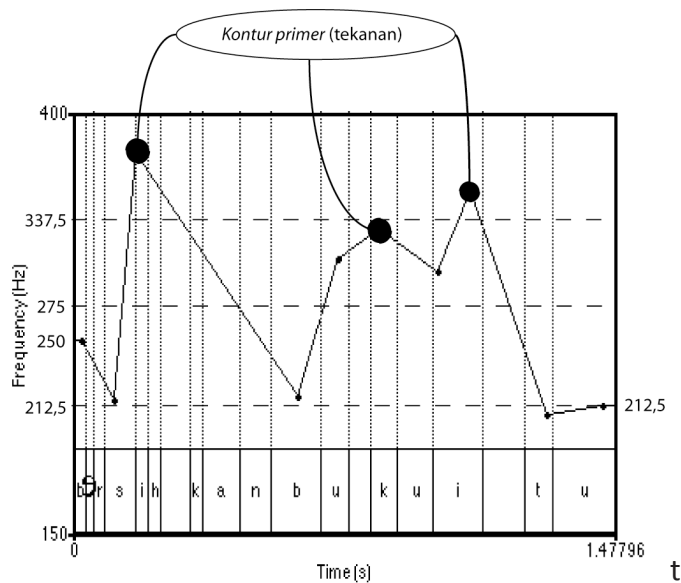


Figure 12. Analysis of the frequency and audio recordings contour command sentence 3 'Clean up the book!' • indicates a pause or a terminal limit group.

Figure 10 shows that the vowel *i* is pronounced harder than the other letters. This can be seen in the picture with large amplitude. Figure 12 shows the intonation as follows: Intonation: 3 command sentence spoken at a frequency of 250 Hz and ends at a frequency of 212, 5 Hz. This shows clearly that the sentence order 3 'Clean up that book!' Intonation decreased. Intonation rising at the sound of the word *clean-bersihkan*, and *i* in the word, and intonation down at the sound of the word *bu-tu* and the books of the word. Intonation patterns: one group consists of pause. Contour: There are three primary contours. This indicates that the motion tends to decrease pitch, or pitch motion moving from low frequency to high frequency.

7.4. Combination of the result of audio record manipulation Indonesian Directive 1, 2 and 3

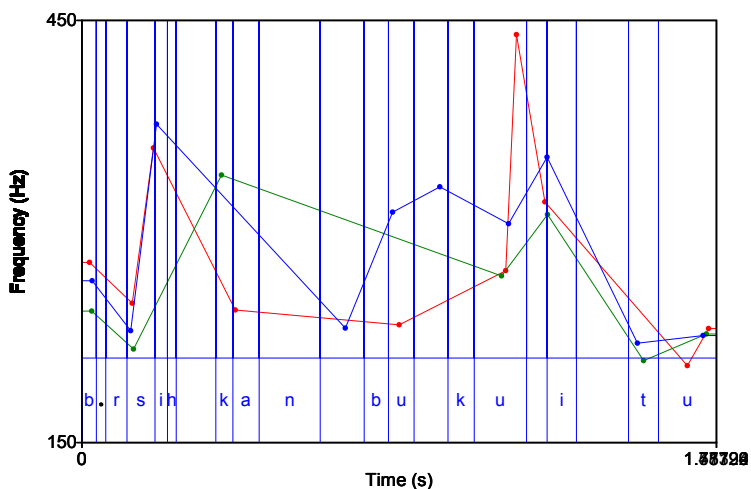


Figure 13 shows the results of the combined graph manipulation command line audio recording 1, 2 and 3 'Clean up that book!'. Text omitted grid to see the movement of high-level tone and the changes that occur.

Data Analysis of command sentence 1, 2 and 3 explained as follow: Figure 13 shows the change of incomplete contour (green, blue and red). Contour command sentences 1 and 2 tend to be the same, the pronunciation of the initial sentences are at different frequencies but almost the same at the end of the pronunciation. There is an increasing stress on the command line 3, which is characterized by the vowel u in five syllables to me. The stress is due to changes in emotions and influence the situation in the text spoken by the speakers. The equation of speech commands sentence 1, 2, and 3 is the increase in frequency and decrease the frequency of the speech beginning at the end of the speech.

If we look at the pattern of command Halim for example sentences *Not now!*, The pattern obtained is 2 - 31t, compared with the results of the command line '*Clean up that book!*' Which has the following pattern:

Bersihkan buku itu!

2 3- 2 2 2 3 1t

Sentence command 'Clean up that book !' has decreased tone or frequency is higher than the initial utterance final frequency . It also means that the sentence order 'Clean that book! ' is a complete sentence , whereas the example Halim (1984: 78), not a complete sentence 'Not now !'. Fokker (1960) in Halim said that a complete sentence would have decreased when spoken intonation (1984: 78-79) . This study has weaknesses of which researchers were unable to compare the theory with the Japanese command line because of the limitations of Indonesian literature, which can only be shown is that Japanese speakers who pronounce the sentence does not follow the characterization of

Indonesian intonation patterns as proposed by Halim. However, a small study and the relatively short time may indicate that the command Indonesian sentences spoken by Japanese speakers have tone down, and it can be developed.

5. Conclusion and Remark

The conclusion of this small study are as follows: 1. Sentence orders 1, 2 and 3 'Clean up that book!' Have decreased tone or frequency is higher than the initial utterance final frequency. This shows that the sentence order 'Clean that book!' has decreased intonation. 2. The results show that data manipulation commands sentence 1 and 2 have almost the same contour, while the 3 different command line, especially at word stress on the word-*buku* book. (The difference will be found in the stress contours words) 3. Such vowels i and u have a greater amplitude than consonants, vowels, this resulted in a sentence command 'Clean up that book!' Spoken louder than consonants.

Suggestions for this small study are as follows:

1. This study has the weaknesses of a lack of data and informants as comparative material to be analyzed, because the research is fairly short time. Therefore, the data and the intended informants must be carefully prepared.
2. Researcher has not found references to a research on Japanese command sentence intonation, thus requiring the literature to support the hypothesis. Hopefully a little research and the relatively short time can be developed into larger studies and more comprehensive way.

3. The result shows that *praat software* is very helpful in analyzing the first record, segmentation result, and data manipulation result. Therefore, this study is expected to provide us with an opportunity to utilize the educational technologies in learning in more beneficial and attractive way.

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APPENDIX 1.



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Chapter 5

English Language in Society

Languages provide a variety of ways of saying the same thing.

Janet Holmes

Dialect and Accent

The study of the relationship between language and society is called sociolinguistics (Holmes 2001: 1). It describes and explains why we speak differently in different social context as well as identifies the language's social functions and the ways of conveying social meaning. This chapter will explore aspects of sociolinguistics study. The discussion is taken from five sources, they are Chaika (1982), Fromkin et al (2003), Holmes (2001), Robins (1989) and Wardaugh (2000).

Nobody speaks exactly the same (Fromkin et al 2003: 445). Sometimes, it makes us difficult to differentiate between language and **dialect**, but Chaika (1982: 132) says that everybody speaks a dialect, and she defines dialect as all the differences between

varieties of a language, the differences are in syntax, word usage and pronunciation. Similarly, Fromkin et al (2003: 445) say that if the speakers of a group speak a language in several systematic differences, we call it that they speak a dialect, and if there is a unique feature of the language of the speaker, we call it **idiolect** or in simple term, the habit of a speaker in speaking a language (Robins 1989: 61). In understanding dialect, we can use a rule of thumb definition. Fromkin et al (2003: 446) propose: “when dialects become mutually unintelligible, when the speakers of one dialect group can no longer understand the speakers of another dialect group, these “dialects” become different languages”

English recognizes several languages which can be called dialect, such as Britain, America, and Australia. The languages have their own characters and they change in variation from one region to another. It results a **regional dialect**, and the movement of several variations and greater uniformity is called **dialect leveling** (Fromkin et al 2003: 447). For example, a few major dialects on national radio and television are spoken less of dialect variation in the United Kingdom, and now, how do we recognize someone or a speaker having a dialect? Of course, we can recognize it by knowing her or his **accents**, because accent only refers to differences in pronunciation between one variety of a language and another (Chaika 1982: 132). Fromkin et al (2003: 447) more clearly defines an accent as a speech of someone who speaks a language nonnatively. It refers to phonetic distinction, and phonological differences. For instance, an Indonesian person speaking English is described as having Malaysian accent.

English Dialects

The most widely spoken language in the world is English (Fromkin et al 2003: 449). It has several dialects, for example, in Barbados, the English dialect associates with Blacks (Chaika 1982: 132). Sometimes, it is called “talking bad”, for this reason, Barbados English dialect is difficult to be understood which is spoken by many Blacks and by white natives (Chaika 1982: 133). Fromkin et al (2003: 448) say that the speakers who settled in North America are the origins of many regional dialects of American English, and the speakers who are from different parts of England are the early settlers. Furthermore, Fromkin et al say that there are three main dialects areas in the British colonies of the American revolution, they are New England and around Hudson River which speak the Northern dialect, Pennsylvania that speak Midland dialect and the dialect of Southern (2003: 448).

The changes in the pronunciation of words with an *r* describes the English regional dialects development (Fromkin et al 2003: 449), for instance, the British in Southern England pronounces *farm*, *father*, and *mother* as [fa:m], [fa:ðə], and [ma:ðə] by dropping their *r*'s before consonants, and this feature is still maintained in Boston, New York and Savannah (Fromkin et al 2003: 449). Furthermore, there are many speaking immigrant, and new residents who enrich the English, such as Cuba, Puerto Rico, Central America, Mexico, Japan, Cina, Korea, Samoa, Malaysia, Vietnam, Thailand, including Indonesia. Let us have a look at examples of English dialects from phonological , lexical, and syntactic distinction.

Phonological differences

In American English, students pronounce words differently (Fromkin et al 2003: 450), for example the word *Mary*, they pronounce /Meri/, /Mæri/, and /Məri/. It is different from British English. British pronounces the word *luxury* as voiced /l g əri/, while American pronounces as voiceless /l kʃ əri/. English itself is quite distinct from England people (Holmes 2001: 124), and there is a little variation in Scotland, for instance, the people of English speaking area pronounce the letter *r* in words, such as *star* and *girl*, while Scotland is certainly one of them (Holmes 2001: 124). In addition, /h/ is dropped from most words such as house /aws/, hero /iro/ and heaven /evən/ in America, and it indicates a lower socio economic background if the speakers often dropping the initial [h] in words (Holmes 2001: 124).

Lexical differences

This differences show us how people use the different words for the same object (Fromkin et al 2003: 450). Determine which British or American are in the following examples.

- (1) Do you get to the top of the building in an *elevator* or a *lift*?
- (2) Do you have a match?
- (3) Have you got a cigarette?
- (4) She has gotten used to the noise?
- (5) She's got used to the noise.
- (6) He dove in, head first.
- (7) He dived in he head first.
- (8) Did you eat yet?
- (9) Have you eaten yet?

The example (1) describes that people mention *an elevator* in the United States, and they mention *lift* to the first floor in England (Fromkin et al 2003: 451). British English take *have you got* as in (3), but Americans prefer *do you have* as in (2). Americans say *gotten* as in (4), and the people take *got* as in (3) in England. British English prefers *dived* as in (7) and Americans use *dove* as in (6). Americans prefer (8) while the English prefer (9) (Holmes 2001: 125). Generally, a language relates with its tribe, politics, and the universe. For this reason, the development of a language, particularly word usage and various pronunciation will create **dialect areas** (Fromkin et al 2003: 451). In other concepts, they say that **isogloss** is the areas separation on the map.

Syntactic Differences

Dialects can be also differentiated from syntactic differences, let us have a look at 10 and 11 examples of the ambiguous sentence “George wants the presidency more than Martha”

(10) George wants the presidency more than he wants Martha.

(11) George wants the presidency more than Martha wants the presidency.

There is a process of transformation of the example (10 and 11), *he wants* of the structure (10) and *wants the presidency* (11) are deleted. It indicates that English dialect does not have a rule that deletes the second verb phrased in conjoined sentences (Fromkin et al 2003: 453).

Dialects develop and is developed into a **standard** and it provides a useful tool of communication across areas of dialect

diversity (Holmes 2001: 77), and naturally, in standard of English, it emerged in 15th century from a variety of regional English dialects. The English regional dialect used by the court and influences London, Putterham where are the largest population lived at that time. Court was based includes Oxford and Cambridge, the two popular universities (Holmes 2001: 76). So, it was the basis what we think of as standard English.

Another an interesting linguistic phenomena in English and every language is a **lingua Franca** where one language becomes a lingua Franca in areas where many languages are spoken (Fromkin et al 2003: 468). Furthermore, they say that Lingua Franca of the whole world is English, and if the speakers of different language meet and create a new language and the language is only understood by them, it is called **pidgin** (Wardough 2000: 57). He says in simple definition “a pidgin is a language with no native speakers” and then if the language is used by their children and they learn it as their first language, it is called **a creole** and become **creolized** (Fromkin et al 2003: 472).

In seeing the huge language riches, the speakers of all languages in the world use different styles, slang and jargon. According to Holmes (2001: 223), style is our choice of code or variety of a language, for example, let us have a look at the examples 12, 13 and 14 of the stylistic differences from the different request for information:

(12) Where were you last night? I rang to see if you wanted to come to the pictures.

(13) Could you tell the court where you were on the night of Friday the seventeenth of March?

(14) I know some of you went trick or treating last night and so I thought we might talk a bit today about how you got on. Did you go out last night Jimmy?

The utterance in example (12) is request for information from a friend, the example (13) is from a lawyer and the example (14) is from a teacher to his students in school on the day after Halloween (Holmes 2001: 223).

Slang and jargon are used by a group who has a close relationship in a community (Robins 1989: 62). Furthermore, he says that in English, for example, people talk about human sexuality (*dirt, obscenity*), the activity of self professionalism (*talking shop*), and self success (*swank*), while Jargon and argot refer to a unique vocabularies which used by trade groups and profesional (Fromkin et al 2003: 475). In English, for instance, the computer tools is described as follow: *modem* (modulator-demodulator); *bit* (binary digit); *byte* (eight bits); *ROM* (read only memory); *RAM* (random access memory); *CPU* (central processing unit); *CD* (compact disc).

In every language, certain acts or behaviours can be considered as **taboo** if those are considered *dirty* (Fromkin et al 2003: 489). They say that it gives rise to **euphemism**, they are phrases and words that replace the expressions to be avoided (2003: 490). English, as the most widely spoken language in the world have been claimed by feminist as **a sexist language**, but the English can contribute to the maintenance of social inequalities between women and men. Recently, this paper cannot explain what sociolinguistics does and why, and is far from comprehensive, of course. it has only skimmed the surface of the whole matter, but hopefully it will gain familiarity with the English language in society.

Chapter 6

English Change

Language is always changing and the language change itself is an interesting topic which probably more than most others, spreads itself over a wide range of areas (Aitchison 1991: ix). Furthermore, she says that the study of language change is labelled **historical linguistics**. It changes across space, social groups and time. There are many theories about why language change and why do language change? However, this chapter only focuses on lexical and semantic change in English. The discussion is taken from six sources, they are Aitchison (1995), Barnet (1993), Crowley (1997), Fromkin et al (2003), McCrum (1992) and Robins (1989).

The English language, observed Ralph Waldo Emerson “is the sea which receives tributaries from every region under heaven” (McCrumb et al 1992: 1). They say that the story of English is the extraordinary tale of a language which came from nowhere to conquer the world. The story is started when Julius Caesar invaded Britain in 55 BC, and English did not exist. English, in the five hundreds years later incomprehensible to modern eras. Fromkin et al (2003: 500) more clearly describe the stages of English change. The first stage of English is **Old English** (449-1066):

in 449, the *Saxons invade Britain*, 6th century is signed by *religious literature*, 8th century is *Beowulf* and 1066 is marked by *Norman conquest*.

The second stage is **Middle English** (1100-1500), *Canterbury tales* written by Chaucer in 1387, *Caxton's Printing Press* in 1476 and *Great Vowel Shift* in 1500. it is a huge change in English during two hundred years which results new phonemic representation of words and morphemes (Fromkin et al 2003: 504)

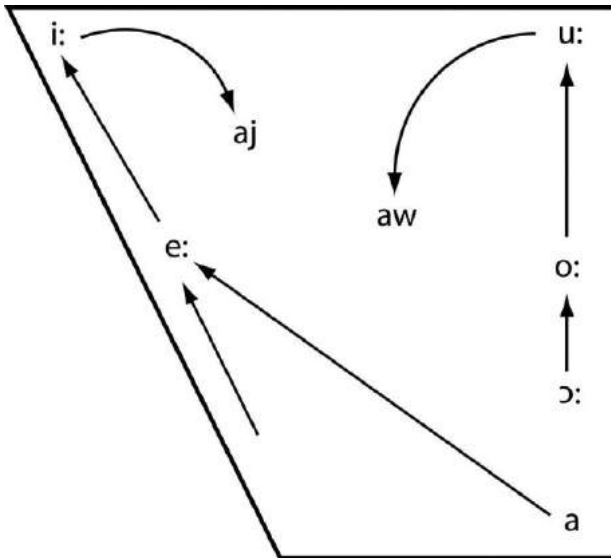


Figure 1. The Great Vowel Shift (1450-1700)

Great Vowel Shift is part of English change in Middle English. Robins (1989: 422) explains that all vowels are raising except /i:/ and /u:/. Both of these vowel are changed into diphtong. They change into /əɪ/ and /əʊ/ and /aɪ/ and /aʊ/. /e:/ is from /ɛ:/ in the figure above are the same as /i:/ from /e:/. /o:/ changes into /ou/. The third stage in the story of English is **Modern English** in 1500, and it is marked by birth of *Shakespeare* in 1564.

Lexical change in English

Lexical change is known as **etymology** (Crowley 1997: 154). It studies the particular words history rather than the changes of actual pronunciation. An important source of new words is **borrowing** (Fromkin et al 2003: 512), but Crowley prefers to use the term **copying** rather than borrowing (1997: 155). Furthermore, he says that both of the terms refer to the same process. The process of copying words from other languages in one area prefers **cultural vocabulary** rather than **core vocabulary**. Core vocabulary is vocabulary which can be found in all human languages (Crowley 1997: 155), while cultural vocabulary is vocabulary which can be found through the experience from everyone's culture. It refers to **culture specific**.

Core vocabulary is not culture specific meanings (Crowley 1997: 155). The next examples for culture specific meanings proposed by Crowley: "*tepee* and *peace pipe* (in North America), *frost* and *snow* (in non tropical climates), *kava* and *tapa cloth* (in the South Pacific), *dreamtime* and *rainbow serpent* (in Aboriginal Australia), *earthquake* and *lahar* (in geologically unstable areas), *television* (in western technological societies), *holy war* and *muezzin* (in Muslim societies), and *trinity* and *resurrection* (in Christian societies)". In addition, in western habit, the verbal expression of *thank you* is one good example (Crowley 1997: 155), and the expression *thank you* has also copied into Indonesian where it has reshaped into phrase and single word (*terima kasih* and *makasih*).

As we have discussed in previous paper (morphology paper), new words can enter the language through various ways, such

as deriving words from names (*sandwich*), blends (*motel*), back-formations (*peddle*), acronyms (*NATO*), and abbreviations or clippings (*adv*) (Fromkin et al 2003: 511), or by derivational processes, as in *uglification*, *finalize*, and *finalization*. The second way in creating new words is compounding, where two or more words may be joined to form new (Fromkin et al 2003: 93). For instance: *firewood*, *firework*, *artshop*, *blackboard* and *greenhouse*. Thirdly is word coinage, for example, a new word in the concealment of information in an electronic document, *steganography*: the prefix *e-* as in *e-commerce*, *e-mail*, and *e-trade* in those words means *electronics*. Words are not only can be added, but also loss. Fromkin et al say that loss of words can be happened if nobody think of it, nobody uses it, and it fades away (2003: 515). For instance, let us consider *sonnet 116* by William Shakespeare below (Barnet et al 1993: 565).

*Let me not to the marriage of true minds
 Admit impediments; love is not love
 Which alters when it alteration finds,
 Or bends with the remover to remove
 O, no, it is an **ever-fixed mark**
 That looks on tempests and is never shaken;
 It is the **star** to every wand'ring bark,
 Whose worth's unknown, although his height be taken
 Love's not **Time's fool**, though rosy lips and cheeks
 Within his bending sickle's **compass** come;
 Love alters not with **his** brief hours and weeks
 But **bears** it out even to the edge of **doom**
 If this be error and upon me proved,
 I never writ, nor no man ever loved*

English has lost many words as described in the sonnet above: *eve-fixed mark* “guide to mariner”, *star* “the North Star”, *time’s fool*, “plaything”, *compass*, “range”, *his* “time’s”, *bear* “endures” and *doom* “judgment day”.

Semantic change in English

In contrast to the established view of sound change and morphological change, which seem to be governed by clear restrictions and principles, the prevailing view on semantic change has been for a long time and probably still receiving a lot of attention from linguists (Crowley 1997: 151), and then he divides four basic types of changes in meaning, they are: *broadening*, *narrowing*, *bifurcation* and *shift* (1997: 151- 54).

Broadening is a change in meaning of a word, where the new meaning is a part of the original meaning (Crowley 1997: 152). Similarly, Fromkin et al 2003: 515) say that word means everything. It used to mean and more when the meaning of a word becomes broader, for instance, the earlier English word is *bridle*, currently, we recognize it as *a bird*, that refers to any birds at all. **Narrowing** is “the exact opposite of the previous kind of change” (Crowley 1997: 152), for instance, the word *gobbet* means only a small part in the script for giving several comments in an examination paper. Previously, *gobbet* means a slice of bread (Robins 1989: 424). The meaning of *sofa* has been narrowed to a particular kind of sitting for pleasure. It once mean *sofa* or *small writing desk* from the word *davenport* (Fromkin et al 2003: 516).

Bifurcation is called semantic split (Crowley 1997: 152), furthermore, he says that the original meaning of *pitch* has split

into two quite different meanings. For instance, in English, the phrase *pitch black*. Nobody realizes that the word *pitch* is from the name of the very black substance like tar. The English speakers probably simply regard as meaning *completely* or *very*. The final semantic change's kind is **shift**. It is a word which really loses his original meaning and acquires a new meaning (Crowley 1997: 152), for instance, the meaning of the word *silly* in English. It cognates with the German word *selig* 'blessed' and it represents the original meaning of the word, and currently, the meaning in the modern English is *stupid* or *reckless*. Therefore, there has a major semantic shift to get the meaning (1997: 153). Furthermore, he divides as well as discusses again the four number of different forces that operate in influencing the directions, they are, *metaphor*, *euphemism*, *hyperbole* and *interference*.

Metaphor is an expression that describes two things which is similar (Crowley 1997: 153), while Robins (1989: 425) says that one of the extensive broadening is the use of metaphor. For instance, the word *insult* means to *jump on*. A metaphor also asserts the identity, without a connective such as *like* or a verb such as *appears* of terms which are literally incompatible (Barnet et al 1993: 458). For example, the phrase *the bonsai tree* in the poetry entitled *A work of Artifice* by Marge Piercy (American; 1936) is connected with *hair in curls*. Another example is *o western orb sailing the heaven* (Whitman in Barnet et al 1993: 459), notice that the term *orb* is stated and the other *ship* is implied in *sailing*.

Secondly is **euphemism**. According to Crowley (1997: 153), "it is a term that we use to avoid some other term which has some kind of unpleasant associations about it, or a term which is completely

taboo in some context". For example, people call Melanesians as *natives* in the colonial Papua New Guinea for avoiding touchiness. Then, the word *national* is accepted to replace it. Thirdly is **hyperbole**, it is two words which refer to the same thing, but one of them is felt stronger in expressing the meaning (Crowley 1997: 154), for example the word *fantastic* describes a greater impact than the word *good*.

Interference is the final force which operates in the semantic change. It means that there is the same form of two words or more but totally different meanings (Crowley 1997: 154), for instance, the word *gay* means *happy* or *cheerful*, currently people are more likely to say that they are *guy* rather than state that they are *defiant* or *homosexual*.

Chapter 7

Pragmatics

Introduction

In the long term, as revealed by Yule (1996: 6), the study of language is dominated by the tendency to describe formal languages based systems, it means systems that are lower in mathematics and logic, and ignore the element of language users. For the latest level in linguistics, pragmatics is the only level that also takes into account human as language users. Despite having a focus of study similar to semantics, the meaning, as I will explain later, meaning that studied in pragmatics differs from meanings which, studied in semantics.

This chapter aims to explain the importance of pragmatic areas to be studied in the development of teaching materials, the teaching of linguistics. To that end, I began this chapter with a discussion of the pragmatics understanding, briefly explain topics development, and, by looking at the difference in studies with another fields in linguistics, showing the importance of pragmatics.

Pragmatics Understanding

The experts define the term pragmatics differently. Yule (1996: 3), for example, cites four pragmatics definitions, namely (1) a

field, that examines the meaning of the speaker, (2) a field, that examines the meaning according to the context, (3) field, beyond the study of meaning which is uttered, examines the meaning of the communicated or communicated by the speaker, and (4) field, that examines forms of expression by restricting the social distance of the participants which involved in a particular conversation.

Thomas (1995: 2) mentions two tendencies in pragmatics which is divided into two parts, first, by using a social perspective, connecting with the pragmatic meaning of the speaker (speaker meaning), and second, by using a cognitive perspective, connecting with the pragmatic interpretation of utterances (utterance interpretation). Furthermore, Thomas (1995: 22), assumes that meaning is a dynamic process that involves negotiation between speaker and listener and the context of utterance (physical, social, and linguistic) and the potential significance of the speech utterances may, defines pragmatics as a field of study meaning in interaction (meaning in interaction). Leech (1983: 6 (in Gunarwan 2004: 2)) sees pragmatics as a field of study in linguistics that is concerned with semantics. This is as semantics he called, which is seen as part of the semantic pragmatic; which is seen as part of a pragmatics semantics, and complement each other, or look at the semantics and pragmatics as two complement areas.

Pragmatics developments

Mey (1998), as quoted by Gunarwan (2004: 5), revealed that pragmatic grow from four trends or tradition, namely: (1) insyntaxism tendencies; (2) socio-critical tendencies; (3) the philosophical tradition; and (4) ethnometodologytradition.

The first tendency, led by George Lakoff and Haji John Robert Ross, rejected the view Chomsky's syntaxism, that the study of language is central to syntax, and that the phonology, morphology, and semantics are peripheral. According to Lakoff and Ross, *good* syntax (well-formedness) is not everything, because, as we often see, communication is still able to walk with the use of a form that is not slick syntactically (ill-formed), and even semantic (Gunarwan 2004: 6).

The second trend, which is growing in Europe, specifically in Britain, Germany, and Scandinavia (Mey 1998: 717 (in Gunarwan 2004: 6)), arises from the need for the science of language that is socially relevant, not that busy with mere description language independently. The third tradition, pioneered by Bertrand Russell, Ludwig Wittgenstein, and particularly John L. Austin and John R. Searle, is a philosophical tradition. The experts examined the language, including its use, in conjunction with logic. Leech (1983: 2), as quoted Gunarwan (2004: 7), suggests that the influence of the philosophers of language, such as Austin, Searle, and Grice, in a pragmatic greater than the effect of Lakoff and Ross.

The fourth tradition is tradition of ethnomethodology tradition, the branch of sociology that examines how the members of the speech community (*speech community*) organize and understand their activities. In ethnomethodology, language is not based on aspects grammatical studied, but based on the way in the mutual interaction of the participants understand what they uttered. In other word, the study of language in ethnomethodology is more emphasis on communication, not grammar (Gunarwan 2004: 6).

Some of the discussion topics in Pragmatics

Followed Speech Theory Through his book, *How to Do Things with Words*, Austin can be considered as the main trigger of interest in the study of pragmatics, because as revealed by Marmaridou (2000: 1 (in Gunarwan 2004: 8)), since it is the field of study that has been developed further, so that we can see a number of trends in the pragmatics, the pragmatic philosophical (Austin, Searle, and Grice), pragmatic neo-Gricean (Cole), cognitive pragmatics (Sperber and Wilson), and interactive pragmatics (Thomas).

Austin, as quoted by Thomas (1995: 29-30), means that the notion of logical positivism philosophers such as Russell and Moore, who argued that the language used in everyday life which is full of contradictions and ambiguity, and that statement is only true if both analytical or if can be empirically verified. For examples:

- (1) *There are six words in this sentence (in Indonesian: Ada enam kata dalam kalimat ini)*
- (2) *The President of Indonesia is Susilo Bambang Yudhoyono*

From the above examples, it is understood that the philosophers who criticized Austin evaluated based on true or false statement (truth condition), which, according to the example above, the sentence (1) is analytically true and sentence (2) is true because it corresponds to reality. Terms truth was later adopted by the linguistic as truth conditional semantics (Thomas 1995: 30).

Austin (in Thomas 1995: 31) argues that one way to make a good distinction is not according to their truth or falsity, but by how language is used every day. Through its performative

hypothesis, on which the speech-act theory (speech-act), Austin argues that by speaking we do not just say something (**to make-statements**), but also to do something (**perform actions**). Speech aimed at describing something called **constative** and speech that aims to do something called a **performative**. The first subject to the requirements of truth (truth condition) and the second is subject to the terms of validity (felicity condition) (Gunarwan 2004: 8). For examples:

(3) *With this, I marry you (performative)*

(4) *Joni's house burned (constative)*

In addition, Austin, as well as further emphasized by Searle (in Gunarwan 2004: 9), enter the constative utterances, because it has a structure that contains the meaning of the performative, as part of the performative (Austin 1962: 52 and Thomas 1995: 49). In example (4), the structure of the speech may have sounded *I said that Joni's house was on fire*.

Action generated by the speech contains the three other action related, it means locutions (*locutionary act*), *illocutionary act*, and *perlocutionary act* (Yule 1996: 48). The **Locutionary Act** related to the production of meaningful speech, The **Illocutionary act** primarily concerned with the intention or purpose of the speaker, and the **perlocutionary act** related to the effects of listener understanding the speaker's intentions are realized in action (Thomas 1995: 49). Moreover, as further developed by Searle (in Gunarwan 2004: 9), may be a followed-speech (direct speech act) and the followed-speech (indirect speech act). In a direct-speech act direct relationship exists between the sentence structure to function, whereas in indirect speech act, it does not

directly use the (form) other speech-acts (Gunarwan 2004: 9;, and Yule 1996: 54-55).

In addition, Searle also mention five kinds of speech act function, which is *assertive*, *directive*, *commissive*, *expressive*, and *the declaration* (Littlejohn 2002: 80, and Yule 1996: 53 -54). **Assertive** or representative is a follow-speech which says about something the speaker believes is right; **directive** is a speech-act that requires the listener to do something; **commissive** is a follow-speaker speech used to express something that is going to do; the **expressive** speech is a follow-stated feelings speakers, and a follow-speech **declarations** is that change the status of something.

Principles of Cooperation (*Cooperative Principle*)

The theory of The Cooperative Principles is proposed by Grice. Grice argued that the conversations that occur in members of the community guided by a basic principle, namely the principle of cooperation (cooperative principle) (Yule 1996: 36-37 and Thomas 1995: 61). The cooperation in communication is realized in four maxim (maxim), namely (1) maxim of quantity (*quantity maxim*), provide information as requested, (2) maxim of quality (*quality maxim*), stating only that we think is right or sufficient evidence of its truth, (3) the maxim of relation (*relation maxim*), contributing relevant information, and (4) the maxim of manner (*Manner maxim*), avoiding disclosure obscurity, avoid ambiguity, revealed briefly, expressed uniformly (Gunarwan 2004: 11 and Thomas 1995: 63-64).

The ***maxim of Quantity*** is a maxim which (1) make your contribution as informative as required; don't say too much or

too little; (2) make the strongest statement you can; The **Maxim of Quality** is a maxim which tell us that (1) do not say what you believe to be false; (2) do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence; **The maxim of Relation** is a maxim which tell us about be relevant (stay on topic); **The Maxim of Manner** is (1) a maxim which tell us to avoid obscurity of expression; and (2) avoid ambiguity

In connection with the cooperative principle Grice above, in fact, in communication sometimes, we do not abide by these principles. It is, as revealed by Gunarwan (2004: 12-14), based on several reasons, such as to provide information implicitly (implicature) and keep the other person's face (politeness). **Implicature** is an additional unstated meaning that has to be assumed in order to maintain the cooperative principles.

Implicature's Grice, as revealed by Thomas (1995: 57), referring to two kinds of implicatures, namely conventional implicature and conversational implicature. Conventional implicature is an implicature generated from logical reasoning, speech containing implicatures this type, as revealed by Gunarwan (2004: 14), can be exemplified by the use of words even. Conversational implicature is an implicature is generated due to the demands of a particular context (Thomas 1995: 58). For examples:

- (5) *Even the Minister of Religion attend my son's circumcision*
- (6) *I happened to England to study for two years and leave tomorrow*

The example (5) above is a conventional implicature that means the Minister of Religion usually does not attend the circumcision ceremony, while the sample (6) is a conversational

implicature which means 'no' and the answer to the question would you like to attend my son's circumcision salvation?. Unlike Grice, according to Gazdar, using the principles of cooperation Grice, implicature implicatures can be divided into specific and general implicature. The first is because of the context of the speech, such as example (6) above, while the second does not, such as the example (5) above.

In conclusion, implicature is a component of speaker meaning that constitutes an aspect of what is meant in a speaker's utterance without being part of what is said. What aspeaker intends to communicate is characteristically far richer than what she directly expresses.

Relevance Theory

Relevance Theory is developed by Sperber and Wilson. It is a critique of the four maxims contained in the principles of cooperation Grice. According to them, the most important maxim in the theory of Grice is the maxim of relevance, and the conversation can continue to run even if only through these maxims. In the theory of relevance to learn how a message payload can be understood by the recipient. Sperber and Wilson (1995), as quoted by Renkema (2004: 22), states that the use of language (language in used) can always be identified by the called indeterminacy or underspecification. Through this, the recipient (addressee) just pick something that it deems relevant to what was to be conveyed by the message sender (addresser) in the context of a particular communication. For examples.

7) *Ensure that all doors are locked when leaving the room.*

Each reader can understand that the message is valid only if he would leave the room for the last time, not every time they leave the room, for example, to go to the bathroom. In other words, the message is given in the specification agreed by the addresser and addressee in the context of the communication.

Furthermore, to explain how a receiver understood the message, Sperber and Wilson (1995), as quoted by Renkema (2004: 22), set three kinds of relationships between the cue and implicature, namely: first, the speech is a form of communication ostensifaction, such action to make things clear and understandable to the recipient, and second, communication not only include what is in the mind of the sender to the recipient in mind, but include the expansion of the area of cognitive (cognitive environment) on both sides. For example, in the example (7) above, the sender of the message, the recipient can expect a reaction to the message it conveys, it means that no need to lock the door if exit within a time limit and the situation is assumed to be safe, and the third, or the degree of relevance explicature, steps should skipped to understand the implicature in conversation. For instance, a description which is written by Renkema (2004: 23) below will give a pretty clear picture.

(8) A: *Well, there is a shuttle service sixty euros one-way, when do you want to go?*

B: *At the weekend.*

A: *What weekend?*

B: *Next weekend. How does it works? You just turn up for the shuttle service?*

A: *That might be cheaper. Then that's fifty.*

In the conversation above, an understanding of what the recipient would be submitted by the sender of a message going through several stages. In conversation, B thinks A understands that at the weekend means next weekend, but clearly a need to ensure every book purchase tickets. So is A, it assumes that B can understand that might be cheaper could mean If you purchase a ticket now, you have booked seat roommates costs 60 euros. If you buy tickets when you turn up, it costs 50 euros. In this case, the speech at the weekend, in terms of degree of relevance, relevance is low and speech processing require greater effort, while that might be cheaper is better relevance speech, because the higher the lower the contextual effect he needs processing effort.

Politeness

Politeness Strategies

The concept of politeness strategies is developed by Brown and Levinson's adaptation of the concept of face, which is introduced by a sociologist named Erving Goffman (1956) (Renkema, 2004: 24-25). According to Goffman (1967: 5), cited by Jaszczolt (2002: 318), "face is a picture of self-image in the social attributes that have been agreed upon". In other words, the face can mean honor, self-esteem, and self-image in public (public self-image). According to Goffman (1956), as quoted by Renkema (2004: 25), each participant has two needs in every social process: namely the need to be appreciated and needs to be free (not bothered). Needs of the first so-called *positive face*, while the second is *negative face*. In conclusion, face is the public self image that every adult tries to project. On 1987, Brown and

Levinson defined positive face in the two ways: as “the want of every member that his wants be desirable to at least some other executors”, or alternately, “the positive consistent self-image or personality”. Furthermore, negative face was defined as “the want of every competent adult member that his actions be unimpeded by others”, or “the basic claim to territories, personal preserves, rights to non distraction, it means that the freedom of action, and freedom from imposition.

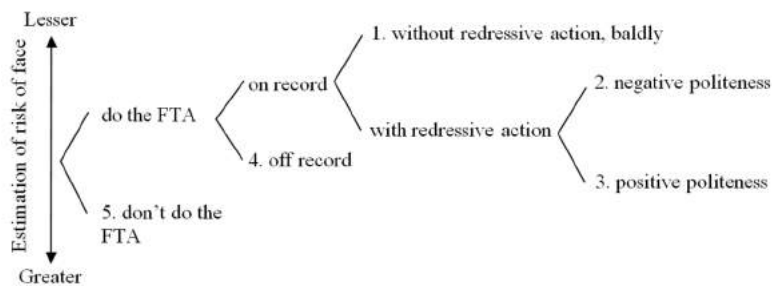
Based on the concept of face which is proposed by Goffman, Brown and Levinson (1978) build a theory about the relationship intensity FTA (Face Threatening Acts) with the political reality in the language of politeness (Renkema, 2004: 25). FTA (Face Threatening Acts) intensity expressed by weight or weight (W), which includes three social parameters, namely: first, the degree of disturbance or rate of imposition (R), in terms of absolute weight (absolute weight) a particular action in a particular culture, such as request “May I borrow your car?” have different weights with the request “May I borrow your pen?” and second, the social distance or social distance (D) between the speaker with his interlocutor, for example, the weight of both the above request is not too large if the two expressions are intended to his own, and Third, authority or power (P) owned by other person (Renkema, 2004: 26). Examples.

- (9) a. *Maaf pak, numpang tanya?*
b. *Numpang tanya, Mas?*

In the example above shows clearly, speech (9a) may be pronounced speaker socially lower than his interlocutors, such as student to faculty or the young to the old, while speech (9b) might

say to people who are socially closer distance (9a).

Politeness (civility) in this case can be understood as an effort to prevent and or repair of damage caused by the FTA; FTA threatens the stability of the intensity of communication, it is increasingly necessary politeness strategy. Politeness, face work technique, which aims to get the so-called solidarity politeness positive face, it can be done, for example, with honors, while politeness is done for the purpose of politeness instead called respect, it can be done, for example by performing cooperative actions in communication (Renkema 2004: 25). In connection with this strategy politeness, Brown and Levinson (1978), as revealed by Renkema (2004: 26), the research shows that there are many ways to avoid the FTA to be reduced to five kinds of the ways listed in the chart below.



(Brown and Levinson 1978: 60)

The five strategies are sorted according to their level of risk “losing face”; higher the risk of losing face, the less likely the speaker did FTA. In this case, Renkema (2004: 27) gives an example of this strategy.

- (10) a. *Hey, lend me a hundred dollars. (baldly)*
 b. *Hey, friend, could you lend me a hundred bucks? (positive polite)*
 c. *I'm sorry I have to ask, but could you lend me a hundred dollars? (negative polite)*
 e. *Oh no, I'm out of cash! I forgot to go to the bank today. (off the record)*

The example above show the realization of Brown and Levinson theory, that is politeness strategies. The participants involved in interactions are not living in context which has created rigidly fixed social relationship. The example (10a) is the example of bald on record strategy. It represents the speaker who says something that represents a threat to another individual's expectations regarding self-image, it is described as a **face threatening acts**. In contrary, the example (10e) is given the possibility that some action might be interpreted as a threat to another's face, the speaker can say something to lessen the possible threat. This is called a **face saving act**. The concept of face refers to a speaker's sense of social identity. Every speaker has his or her own strategies for lessening the threat.

Politeness Principle

Another politeness theory discussed by Leech (1983). Leech defines politeness as a type of behaviour that allows the participants to engage in a social interaction in an atmosphere of relative harmony. Expert discusses the theoretical framework of civility in interpersonal rhetoric (Eelen 2001: 6). In this case, Leech (in Eelen 2001: 8) mentions six maxim of politeness, the

thimble wisdom (*Tact maxim*), thimbles generosity (*generosity maxim*), thimbles praise (*approbation maxim*), thimbles humility (*modesty maxim*), thimbles agreement (*aggreement maxim*), thimbles sympathy (*sympathy maxim*), and, as revealed by Gunarwan (2004: 19), plus a thimble consideration (*consideration maxim*). ***Tact Maxim*** in directive or impositive and commissive is minimize cost to other, and maximize benefit to other. ***Generosity Maxim*** in directives and commissives, minimize benefit to self, and maximize cost to self; ***Approbation Maxim***, in expressives and representatives (assertives): minimize dispraise of other, and maximize praise of other; ***Modesty Maxim*** in expressive and representatives, minimize praise of self, and maximize dispraise of self; ***Aggreement Maxim*** in representative is minimize disagreement between self and other, and maximize agreement between self and other; ***Sympathy Maxim*** in representatives is minimize antipathy between self and other, and maximize sympathy between self and other.

Pragmatics in Linguistics

As I described above, one of the underlying trend is the development of pragmatic antisyntaxisme by Lakoff and Ross. In the syntax, as proposed by Yule (1996: 4), learned how linguistic relations, how these forms are strung together in a sentence, and how the circuit may be expressed grammatically or well-formed. In general, the syntax does not ask question the meaning of the designee or the user of language, so it forms like a cat raking leaves, although it cannot be empirically verified, it still can be expressed syntactically slick.

In everyday life, the use of language is not solely based on the principle of well-formedness in the syntax, but on the basis of interest in order to keep the communication going. More precisely, following the trend in ethnomethodology, the language used by the speech community as a way of understanding in the interaction of the participants what they uttered. On this basis, first, to understand, and often we find that communication can be still run even if the language is not syntactically slick, and second, for the needs of the members of the speech community to organize and to understand their activities, in addition to grammar, meaning also a thing that cannot be ignored in the analysis of language. Thus, it is understood that the main difference between syntactic and pragmatic, as well as stating the importance of pragmatic which studies in linguistics, is the meaning of the user's speech and language.

The discussion of the meaning brings us to the importance of semantics, namely the level of linguistics which studies the relationship between linguistic forms (linguistic forms) and entities that are outside of the language, the language analysis. Based on the truth of conditional semantics, to be declared righteous, a statement must be empirically verified or should be analytical. Thus, *swept the cat form* is a form that is semantically unacceptable, because it cannot be empirically verified and not including a statement of logic. However, the discussion of the semantic meaning is inadequate, because they overlooked the language of the user, so the form as if I could stand I would not be able to stand and I will come tomorrow morning, although this form may be encountered, cannot be substantiated for the first violation, and a second logic could not be verified immediately. In

other words, to explain the phenomenon of the use of everyday language, in addition to syntax and semantics, it is also pragmatic, and in this case, I understand as a field that examines the relationship between the structure used speakers, the meaning of what is spoken, and the purpose of the speech. Pragmatic usefulness, that are not in syntax and semantics, in this case it can be demonstrated by, for example, how politeness strategies affect the use of language, how to understand conversational implicatures, and how Felicity conditions that allow for a follow-up speech.

Furthermore, to see the importance of pragmatics in linguistics, I will express an opinion which described by Leech (1980). According to Leech (in Eelen 2001: 6) the difference between semantics and pragmatics is, first, semantics examines meaning (sense) sentences which are abstract and logic, while pragmatics examines the relationship between the meaning of speech and power (force), and second, semantically bound the rules (rule-governed), while bound to the pragmatic principle (principle-governed). On the difference of the first, although the meaning and power are two different things, they cannot really be separated, because the power includes the meaning. In other words, the semantic meaning of the speech reviewing spoken, while study pragmatic meaning of utterances are communicated or communicated. Furthermore, in contrast to the principle of rule by its nature. Descriptive rules, absolute or absolute, and it has clear boundaries with other rules, while the normative principles can be applied or relative, may conflict with other principles, and have restrictions pertaining to other principles.

Furthermore, in language teaching, as expressed by Gunarwan (2004: 22), there is a relationship, that pragmatic knowledge, in a practical sense, it should be known by teachers to equip learners with the knowledge about the use of language in a particular situation. In the Indonesian language teaching, for example, this knowledge is essential for guiding learners to use a variety of language appropriate to the situation, because in addition to true, the language used should be good. In foreign language teaching, knowledge of the pragmatic principles in language that is essential for good communication skills in the language. In general, it can be concluded that the relation between pragmatics and language teaching is in terms of communicative competence that includes three kinds of competencies other than grammatical competence (grammatical competence), the sociolinguistic competence (sociolinguistic competence) related to socio-cultural knowledge of a specific language, discourse competence (discourse competence) that are associated with the ability to pour a good idea, and strategic competence (strategic competence) that relates to the ability of exploring ideas through a variety of styles that are specific to each language.

Conclusion

As already mentioned above, the purpose of this chapter is to show that pragmatics is important to learn the teaching of linguistics. Based on the explanation above, I see the importance of pragmatics in linguistics at least two things: first, pragmatics is the only level in linguistics which studies language by taking into account also users and secondly, relates to the inability of syntax

and semantics to explain the phenomenon of the use of everyday language I see the position of the semantics and pragmatics as two complementary terms. Furthermore, with regard to the teaching of language, pragmatics plays a role in the development of communicative competence.

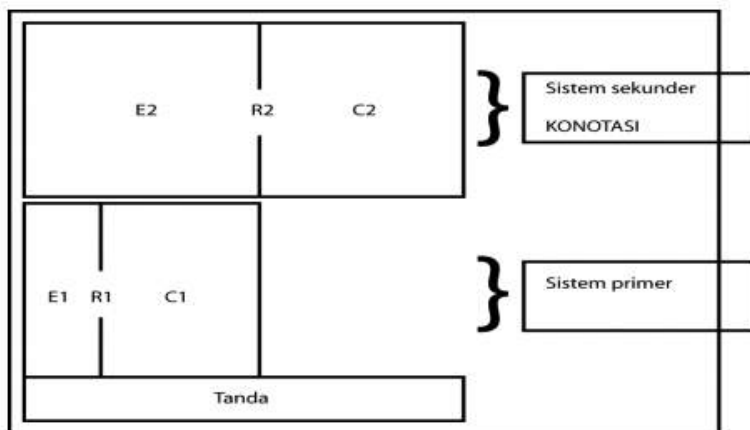
Chapter 8

Semiotics

Introduction

Semiotics is the study of sign. To start how we can see signs in Text or in every languages, specifically in English, we can begin to understand the semiotics in general of a question: how the theory of de Saussure develops signs on Roland Barthes' what theory later developed in the study of culture? The answer is the theory of de Saussure, Barthes developed to assess cultural aspects related to the division of the *signifiant* and *signifie* sign. With this, de Saussure tried to see as a sign of unity between the two entities comprising mental signifiant (signifier or marker), which ACOUSTIQUE image or image noise, and signifie (signified or marker), which he called the concept (de Saussure 1973: 146). De Saussure saw language as a system of signs. According to him, the sign (language) is a psychical entity duplicity, it means signifiant (marker, signifier) and signifie (signified). Signifiant is the image of the sound / sound psychological impression that arises in our minds, while signifie is the concept / meaning that there is an impression in our minds. Sign concept is then taken by Roland Barthes. Barthes was a French semiotician. He built a framework

of analysis in his book *Elements of Semiology*. The book is clearly visible in the influence of Ferdinand de Saussure, linguist who gave birth to the term of **semiology** and Louis Hjemlev influence. Barthes took Hjemlev term for signifiant as expression (E) and signifie as content (C). Barthes borrows theories of Ferdinand de Saussure, who explained that the mark consists of a marker and marked. The most popular example of a relationship characterized marker and this is a tree. Row of letters **P O H O** and **N** is the marker. While the tree is marked in the mind / our heads; eg *cashew trees*, *teak trees* and *mango trees*. In this case, the approach of De Saussure brings deeper. Barthes saw the presence of secondary significance or (secondary sign) to show that a mark has another meaning that might be hidden. Barthes called secondary significance as connotation and primary (primary sign) as the denotation (Noth 1990: 311). For more details, let us consider the image below:



Barthes (1973: 89-94) in giving a sign developed two levels of meaning that allows result which also stratified. He defines a sign as a system of consisting of E, expression or related markers

(R) with C, content or markers. This system (ERC) is called the primary sign system. The primary sign system can be developed into an element of the sign system more comprehensively. If the development occurs at the level of content (C), the primary sign system (E1 R1 C1) will be the expression (E) of the two sign systems, namely E2 (E1 R1 = C1) C2 R2. In this case, the primary sign is denotative, while the second is a connotative sign. **Denotation** is giving a sign of level that explain the relationship between signifier and signified, or between sign and referent in reality, which results in an explicit meaning, straight and sure. Denotative meaning is the meaning of what it seems.

The connotation is giving a sign of level that explain the relationship between signifier and signified, in which operational meaning is not explicit, indirect, and certainly not open to the possibilities (Piliang, 2004: 94). If the development occurs at the level of expression (E), the primary sign system (E1 R1 C1) will be the content (C) of the second marking system, namely E2 R2 C2 (C1 = E1 R1). This process is also called **a metalanguage**. In the metalanguage, a sign will have more than one E to C which is the same, the opposite of connotation where a sign has more than one C to the same E (Hoed, 2004: 53). Connotations of theory, Barthes then develop it as a tool to examine culture. Through semiotic connotations, Barthes saw language as part of the culture.

Connotation evolved along with the cultural influences of the given of meaning. Mark a particular connotation when we look at the use of the mark in advertising. For example, a photo of "car" has a reference to the car in the real world, and has connotations of freedom, power, modernity, and status. A *Mild* version of image

advertising chair with the words ““Kalo nggak di bersihin KUTU BUSUKNYA nggak bakalan PERGI!”. The chair seat is certainly not what we understand as a seat, but it refers to a particular position. If we look at the emergence of this advertisement in 2004, which coincides with the election of representatives who sit in the DPR / MPR, of course, is a marker of social class or a particular position at that time. This connotation is also called by Roland Barthes as a **second-order of signification**.

The connotation of the concept, then be developed into a myth. In his mythologies (1973), Barthes shows how semiotics and explains what is meant by the myth (Myth). Myth is not an object, concept, or idea. Myth is a way of signification ‘symbolism’ of a form. Myth is a speech (parole), “The myth is types of speech” (Barthes 1973: 109), and all of which can be considered discourse (discourse) may be a myth. Thus, the myth cannot be found either orally, in writing or the performances but in the form (Zaimar, 1991: 22). Barthes also explains myth as a semiotic system. He stated that as a study of speech, **mythology** is a fragment of a vast science of signs, namely semiotics. Actually, a fundamental aspect is the distinction in the use of mythologies denotation with connotation meaning. To understand the myth, Barthes theorized significance with the following chart.

1. Denotatif Penanda	2. Denotatif Petanda
3. Tanda Denotatif I. PENANDA KONOTATIF	II. PETANDA KONOTATIF
III. TANDA KONOTATIF	

One example is found in his book *Mythologies* (1957/1973), that there is a soldier blacks were saluted the flag of France. To explain the meaning of this picture, it can appear through everyone's experience, and we should have the association that we have learned to pair with the meaning of a sign.

Foto prajurit berkulit hitam memberi hormat pada bendera perancis	Prajurit berkulit hitam memberi hormat pada bendera Perancis
PRAJURIT BERKULIT HITAM MEMBERI HORMAT PADA BENDERA PERANCIS	NEGARA KERAJAAN PERANCIS YANG BESAR, SEMUA ANAK NEGERI BERADA DALAM KESETARAAN
III. TANDA KONOTATIF	

In operation this myth, a marker mark the second order (second order signifier). The signifiant France as the country is large and regardless of skin color, all children will devote herself to her country. The conclusion from exposure to the above is the connotation, which cannot be separated from the culture in which we live and grow together with the influence of culture on the meaning given. This brings us to what Barthes referred

to as a myth. If the myth to settle, then it would be ideological. The following sentences arranged in a certain order, and the relationship between words lead to certain forms which have to accordance with the rules of grammar. This can be explained as follows:

- (1). Ali beat Amat.
- (2). Amat beat Ali.

Are rules applied to the sentences that follow the paradigmatic or syntagmatic axis? The difference between the two can be seen in Barthes, *Elements of Semiology*. If we see sentences (1a) and (1b) as a separate entity, then the rules in the following sentences syntagmatic axis, because it has relationships between components in the same structure. However, if the sentence (1a) and (1b) is seen as a system (structure in the system), then we look at the sentences following the paradigmatic axis (associative). According to Barthes (1973: 58), syntagmatic and paradigmatic differences (associative) are as follows:

- Syntagmatic relations in a preasentia, the relationship between the mark on the time/space the same, or the relationship between syntagm-forming units with contrasting units and other units that follow or precede it.
- Is a paradigmatic relationship between the mark on different time and space. This relationship is usually associated with an associative relationship, i.e the relationship between units of language and other language units, which have a relationship because there are similarities of form and meaning, for example, said the campus has an associative relationship with the university.

In (1a) above, the relationship between Ali, hitting, and Amat was given according to the order and has a particular meaning. If the order is changed, then the meaning will be changed; the meaning, linguistic signs are very attached to the order as a sentence: that is, (1a) / Ali beat Amat / can not be converted into (1b) / Amat beat Ali /, because of course semantically and syntactic, second sentence either (1a) and (1b) have different meanings. In the matter of (1a), semantically, Ali is an actor, and Amat is the target / object that is action. Instead, the problem (1b), is an actor and Ali Amat is an object / target was hit. Syntactically in question (1a), Ali is the subject, predicate and Amat is hitting an object, whereas (1b), Amat is the subject, predicate and Ali hit an object. This proves the theory of metaphorically 'keberurutan' or sequence of sign language: one component comes after other components. Meanings are generated by the sequence (syntagmatic).

In addition to the rules of order (syntagmatic), other linguistic signs have called paradigmatic rules, ie rules that are more "mewaktu" by introducing similar meaning in a set of thought or point of view. For example, (1a) / Ali beat Amat /, has a meaning component which may be represented in different ways:

- He hit Amat
- Someone beat Amat
- or
- Ali hit him
- or
- Ali hit him

Potentially underlined word, is part of a paradigm and can replace other words. Thus, a word can be collected from the various possible origins that still exist in one set, of the sentence, which can be concluded that each mark must be considered in relation to other signs in the same time (synchronous). At the same time, a sign is also associated with the 'other signs' in the paradigmatic framework. It is an associative, Ali relationally associated with Amir, Herman, Teja. Associative relations have also hit the "punch". This relationship is called in absentia, and an associative due to components outside structure.

Another question appeared "Kaidah"-rules that you learn in Indonesian is "langue" or "parole"? What is the difference between the two? Explain with an example of a "politeness language" Indonesian.

The rules in Indonesian is langue. In the study of language, langue is a principle which is above and known to the community as well as the language has to be mutually agreed rules, while parole is the language in used or "individual manifestations of language"

(Kridalaksana 2005: 16) said that parole is the result of a conscious individual, not social facts. Langue is reduced parole. According to Zoest (1991: 81), langue did not act when viewed as a social system itself and not planned, and it is the social side of langage. So, if anybody wants to communicate, he must follow through on the agreement. Zoest adding that the autonomous nature of the community is in production, therefore each individual can not use it except after the study. Thus, langue is a system and institutions, while the parole is an individual act of selection and

actualization that language is also not just grammar, but also the rules of its own that has a social value. These rules often determine our (speakers) to select the “language” kind of what we will use in our daily lives. For example, the language we use in the “campus” will be different to when we confront the parents.

Wijana (2003: 107) says that language is not merely a polite formed by speakers in observing rules / maxims of politeness ((politeness principles, Leech 1983), (Gunarwan called maxim or :”kaidah” or “bidal”)), but must also be aware of the size of pragmatic considerations concerned with social distance and status of the opponents said, people are spoken, as well as the relative position of the speech act. Indonesian also has rules that regulate speech in interaction. When we spoke with said that already familiar opponents will of course differ with us to talk with opponents said that less / not familiar. for example:

(2) X: Bung, boleh saya numpang bertanya?

Y: Bertanya boleh saja, kalau pakai numpang, maafkan saja.

(Wijana 2003: 109)

X is a female character who wants to ask a person’s address or a specific place. It seen from how to ask, of course relations X and Y do not look familiar or not met at all. Answer Y is not considered polite to consider the “front” speakers (X). Speech is considered polite to answer (X) is “yes”, or “how can I help you?”. Short utterances of politeness makes hearer could be more friendly, also proves our desire to respect the culture of Indonesia. Ethical language also helps us to better integrate into a community/ foreign community, which we have not encountered before.

Another example of that is considered “less polite” in a position parameter deviations in Indonesian speech act is as follows.

(3) (... ruang kelas , guru, dan murid)

Anton: permisi Pak guru, saya pengen buang air .

Amir : permisi pak guru, saya pengen jajan.

Anton's speech and action in requesting permission to go back to wasting water during the class can still be considered normal, because in a pinch, although it should “act” Anton could be more polite to ask permission to say “excuse me sir/teacher, I want to back” or may I wash my hand? In the Indonesian culture “back” means want to go to WC/toilet, which should be used to sound more polite. Meanwhile, Amir speech act was asking for permission to buy a snack or food is something unnatural, in this case means not polite, because of the nature of the action is not urgent and can still be delayed until break time arrives.

The difference between the semiotic Peirce, semiotics Barthes, and De Saussure can be explained by the following example. Charles Sanders Peirce was one of the fathers of semiotics (1830-1914). Peirce was a logician of America. Therefore, starting from research in Philosophy, Peirce's semiotics have basic ideas, namely:

- (1) semiotic triangle consisting of representamen, objects and interpretan.
- (2) an infinite series of semiotic triangle.
- (3) Trichotomy Peirce, namely (i) the relationship between representamen and objects, consisting of icons (based on the equation form / content), for example, topological, diagrammatic and metaphorical; these two indices,

based on spatial proximity and the third, a symbol, by convention; (ii) the relationship between representamen and interpretan, consisting of (a), qualisign (likely to be a sign), (b) sinsign (already a sign but does not have the force of law), and (c) legisign (already have the force of law), (iii) the relationship between the object and interpretan, namely (a) Rheme (possibility of understanding), (b) discent (existing understanding) and (c) argument (logical understanding), (Noth 1990: 42-45).

Examples of the use of Semiotics Peirce was when we saw a cavalcade of disaster come to our country, Indonesia. Disaster is a “sign”, meaning construction, influenced against experience and views on the values of the event. From the tsunami in Aceh, Sulawesi floods, forest fires in Kalimantan, haze in Jambi and Palembang, and that has not ended until now, Lapindo Brantas mudflow disaster in Sidoarjo, understood and addressed differently by each person. Although there are a lot of empathy and enthusiasm of the people in the relief effort, the meaning of the disaster is still diverse (no absolute meaning for the disaster). Differences related to the meaning of the convention (social consensus) that are different. Disaster, when referring to the theory of semiotics Charles Sander Peirce, a symbol category, where there was a link between the sign and the meaning based on common agreement. Meanwhile, the general consensus in a given society in contrast to the general agreement in other communities. Similarities that can be felt in the disaster was the damage and casualties. However, the damage has a different meaning. Specific communities interpret

the disaster as the love of Allah (God), some interpret as the wrath of God Almighty. In my opinion, a disaster occurred due to natural causes and disasters as God’s warning also shows the greatness of Allah SWT, so it makes people sensitive to human values. Disasters can be interpreted as a container for the “mature” men of religion and civilization as well as the increase of human knowledge. For example, the case of Lapindo Brantas, which tested the ability of many people (experts / specialists) to stop the mud.

Roland Barthes considered the continuity of De Saussure. “Barthes was both a leading structuralist and one of the earliest propagators of Saussure’s semiological program” (Noth 1990: 310). As explained in the question above, Barthes see where secondary significance (secondary signification), which is actually a sign of another hidden meaning. Secondary significance is called connotation, whereas the primary signification called denotation. Example of this is the significance of the word.

Sissy. Denotation of the word is a man who wears women’s clothes and “stylish” as women. In secondary significance, pansy is a marker of a marked, referring to a timid man. In conclusion, I distinguish Peirce’s semiotics and semiotics Barthes, as shown in the table below.

(x)	Semiotik Peirce	Semiotik Barthes
1. Definisi tanda	Sesuatu yang mewakili sesuatu yang lain. <i>“something that represents something else.”</i>	Tanda adalah “relasi” antara “ekspresi” (E) dan “isi” (C)

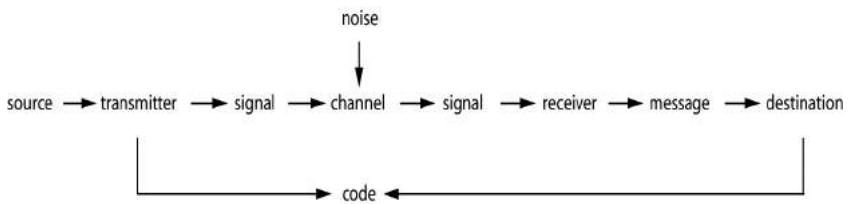
2. Konsep makna	Lebih terbuka, karena proses semiosis yang tidak terbatas/tidak berhenti (Hoed 2004: 57)	Tertutup (Hoed (2004: 57) berpendapat bahwa Barthes tidak secara eksplisit mengatakan bahwa proses dari sistem primer ke sistem sekunder dapat berulang)
3. Sifat antar tanda	Trikotomis	E-R-C= dikotomis
4. Sifat semiotik	Tidak strukturalis	strukturalis
5. Pemaknaan tanda	Pemaknaan tanda bukan atas dasar relasi atas dasar suatu proses pemaknaan yang disebut <i>semiosis</i>	Pemaknaan tanda atas dasar relasi

Signs and Linguistic Theory

Theory of signs and signs itself give way to learn the language of communication, and has a strong influence on the whole perspective, which is now used in communication theory, because the symbol (sign) is the basis of all communication. Part of the symbols language of symbols and discuss the importance of symbols in people's lives and how it is used. John Powers argues that this theory can be divided into: (1) messages (messages), which has three elements (symbols and symbols, language and discourse), (2) Semiotics; science of symbols (called the sign) itself, which is related with symbols, language, discourse, and nonverbal behavior. Overall, one of the main limitations of the various theories developed in the theory of signs and languages which is that they are more focused on the smallest units of meaning and organization of the mark on a low level when the real wealth of emerging communications at a higher level, when the signs combined into a complex message.

According to Eco, there are two types of semiotics: semiotic signification and semiotic communication. Eco (1979: 8) says

that is an important thing to see a clear distinction between communication and signification. He argued in his research hypothesis, namely that all the semiotic study of culture as a process of communication, and “the whole culture should be Studied as a communicative phenomenon based on signification systems” (1979: 22), (culture as a whole should be studied as a phenomenon of communication based system of signification), that is, in this case the significance of a basic system. Therefore, any process that seems agreed by the significance of the system. A process of communication can be defined as the acceptance of a cue (not necessarily a sign) from a source (via a transmitter (transmitter / sender of the message), with a channel to a destination, as shown below.



Sources:(Eco 1979: 33)

For example, in a process machine to machine, it has signaled no “power” to give meaning until he can determine the purpose of “sub specie stimuli”. In this case, we have no signification (a system that shows the meaning of the sign), but we have information channel, as if we already knew such mark on the engine; danger or no danger, meaning that it has reached the semiotic.

Conversely, in the process of signification, signaled not only as a stimulus, but also pose a response to the intended interpretation (the Addressee). This process is made possible by the presence of

a code. A code is a system of signification. If anything represents the perception of the destination favor something else, then there is no significance. A system is a construct semiotic significance of itself, which has an abstract way on the existence of a separate communication from a number of possible actions. Opposite to this, every act of communication requires a system of signification as a condition of its needs. That is, is a thing that very possible to build without semiotic significance of communication, but it is impossible to build a semiotic communication without signification (Eco 1979: 9).

Eco added and admitted that the two approaches should follow the line of a different methodology (but intertwined), and requires a different set of categories. Thus, it appears that the fundamental difference between the semiotic and semiotic significance of communication, namely the semiotic communication, (i) there is connection between the two parties, the sender and receiver, with the focus marks are used, (ii) there are signs that the process of interpretation is called signification; (iii) there is a process of communication and signification, while the semiotic significance of no communication can occur. By differentiating signification and communication, it clearly distinguishes the theory used, in effect, require assistance semiotic significance code theory, while the theory of semiotics communication need help production mark (must consider the scope of the phenomenon, such as the use of language, the evolution of codes, aesthetic communication, the type-type of behavior in communicative interactions, the use of signs to mention something (in Zoest Eco 1992: 26). Clearly the difference between the two is expressed by Eco (1979: 4), as follows: “in principle, a Semiotics of signification entails a theory of

codes, while Semiotics of communication entails a theory of sign production “. signification system exists and therefore it is called a code, which produces functions that mark the public agreed. In this case, the function of a sign can be changed because of its function in communication. In contrary to this, the communication process occurs when the possibilities available in the signification system, physically exploited to disclose certain purposes. therefore, the difference between the two is more related to the rules and processes. Meanwhile obvious similarities between the two seen that there is a process of meaning, using a sign.

When you recognize that something that you see or hear that is a sign, but we do not know what the “meaning” of his, according to Peirce brothers which have identified a “qualisign”. In the later introduction of what you recognize it as “legisign”? This can be explained with an example of someone who just entered the realm of foreign culture. Charles Sanders Peirce, an American philosopher of pragmatism philosophy developed through the study of semiotics. Peirce sees ‘signs’ in the sign of the growing chain (Christomy 2004: 115). According to him, a sign is something that is used in order to function called ground signs. As a result, there are always signs in relation triadik, ie ground / representamen, object, and interpretant. On the basis of this relationship, Peirce makes enforceability level mark (semiosis). Relationship between representamen and interpretant, consisting of (a), qualisign (likely to be a sign), (b) sinsign (already a sign but does not have the force of law), and (c) legisign (already have the force of law).

When a stranger, for example, Mr. Guido of Germany (adult male living in Indonesia) settled, and be automatically entered

in Indonesian culture. Every hour of 4:30 pm, he heard the call to prayer from the mosque (suara azan). As a foreigner living in Indonesia recently, he would suspect, “what is this noise” or a sign of what this is. Therefore, Mr Guido already recognize ‘something’ that might be a sign (qualisign; implicated how something without having to refer to something else). Later, Mr. Guido recognize because azan voice echoed at the same hour, every day, (eg Fajr prayer (sholat shubuh), the azan at 04:30 pm), he thinks that every hour that there were “singing”, and may interfere with sleep (at this stage, the sound of the *azan* is a sign, the signs and symptoms are associated with the present reality outside himself in space and time; sinsign). After a long stay in Indonesia, and the sound of the azan always repeated every day and at any given time with nearly the same time each day, then the call to prayer has been recognized as a symptom of the “marked”, “direpresentasi”, and communicated as a sign of Muslims to prayer (legisign). So what is present in the mind of Mr. Guido eventually become “something” that can be named, even in this case, the call to prayer can be “interpreted” and described as a time of prayer for Muslims. In conclusion, the theory of Peirce can show “reality” within three possibilities; each sign can be placed as the sign itself, associated with the other, and a mediator between the object and interpretan.

Icons can be a symbol. This can be explained by using the example of a logo or logo watches handbag that you recognize in everyday life. Based on its object, Peirce divides signs on the icon, index and symbol. Icon is the relationship between the sign and the object or reference that is similar, for example: photo; index is a sign that shows the natural relationship between the sign and the signified is causal or causal relationship, or a sign that directly

refers to the fact, for example smoke as a sign of fire. Such signs are conventional signs that could be called symbols. Thus, the symbol is a sign which indicates the existence of a natural affinity between the marker and “petandanya”. Arbitrary relationship between them, the relationship is based on convention (Noth 1990: 44-45). Let us consider SEIKO watches logo on print media advertisements below.



In watches “SEIKO BRAND”, there are signs that contain the similarity of “likeness (resemblance), as recognized by the wearer. These watches have a relationship with the iconic object, the logo is a SEIKO watches bearing the number 5 top SEIKO logo, and SPORTS bottom shows the brand logo (brand identity). As an icon, the logo represents the fifth series of jam SEIKO products, namely SKZ231 series, with all the fittings that are owned by that product. The signs that surround the logo in the picture above clearly is iconic because it “mimics” or has the likeness of the object in it, for example, feature 1/50000 MAP METER, SUN 5, and WATER 200M

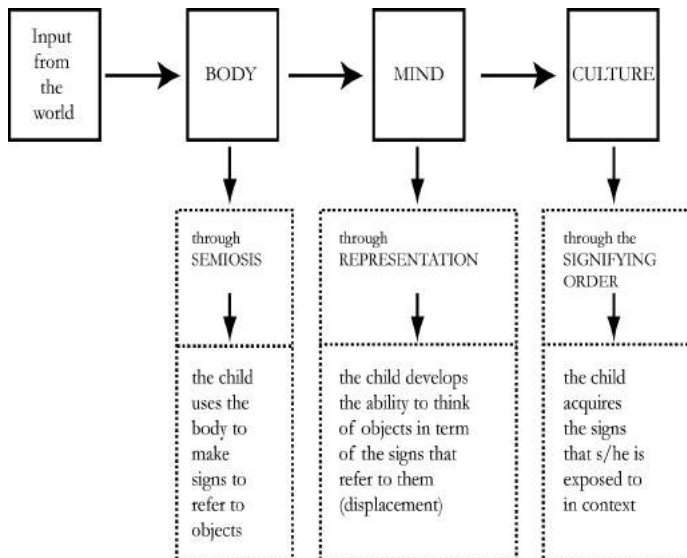
RESIST, information represents the direction, distance, day / date, hours, minutes, seconds, and sign WATER 200M RESIST means the resistance of these watches to water as far as 200 meters below sea level. This means SEIKO watches have durable advantages, although it hit the water and do not fade. Therefore, iconic figures 5 and writing under the logo, ie / SPORTS / indicates that the clock has five series, which is suitable for use when exercising with the assumption does not fade / damage if hitting sweat / water, for example water sports, such as diving.

Writing in English in the ad “Legendary Strength, Extraordinary Performance”, meaning the power that has been tested (because it is durable = durable), with a perfect view (fabulous / stunning). That is, it indicates the watches are “classy”, to “sell” the assumption that SEIKO products are quality goods, with advanced technology and high value. Etiquette brands and display their products, which I got from Femina magazine No.48/XXXIV. DECEMBER 2006 7-13 (the first full-page special advertising SEIKO) show consumers that SEIKO watches are watches with the “high quality”, which means the wearer is “tasteful”, elegant and exclusive. In this case, the 5 icons on SEIKO watches, a symbolic sign. The black color on the watch shows the strength, and tough. People / individuals who can afford to buy and wear these watches are people who have a high taste for watches of high quality and value as well. Therefore, consumers are individuals who also have knowledge about the quality of a high-tech watches, because only people who know and understand the usefulness and can use the features contained in the watch, which can assess the quality of the watches. So, put on SEIKO watches made in Japan with 5 icons, meaning watches

watches product series represents the people who understand technology; higher activity (diving) and the young (sporty).

What is also interesting to look is at the semiotic is why Danesi and Perron saw culture as “signifying orders” and not just a process of semiosis? It is described as follows. Danesi and Perron saw culture as “signifying order” or sequence of meaning as the first, signs relate to one another, and there is a process of meaning that can be shared within the culture. Signifying order is “interconnection of signs, codes, and texts that makes up a culture (Danesi and Perron 1999: 366). That is, the interconnection sign (sign stands for referent), code, and text, that form a culture. Culturally, means having a commonly understood concept. Meaning in the convention, and appeared sequentially on the time axis. Culture itself by Danesi and Perron (1999: 350) is “interconnected system of daily living that is held together by the signifying order (signs, code (system of signs), and texts), or” the system of shared meanings that is based on a signifying orders, “a complex system of different types of signs that Cohere (which can be understood, before it can be predicted, such as representamen patterns, objects used by the individual) in predictable ways into patterns of representation roomates individuals and groups can Utilize to the make or exchange (dialogue) the message “(1999: 67). Therefore, the order of the meaning of culture as having equivalent position, meaning that if the order changes the meaning, then the culture (human) also automatically will change, because the sequence is the product of human interpretation, as well as culture.

Second, Danesi and Perron saw culture as a sequence of meaning, not just the process of semiosis because culture is not just something that happens through our bodies (private); (read: semiosis version here Danesi and Perron, likened to everything that happens through our bodies); semiosis is not only reduced capacity to interpret, but also the order of meaning which “provides a tool” to develop human in regulating raw information that is processed by a sense of the overall meaning. As Consequently, understanding of the world is not unidirectional, which is mediated by signs, and therefore, with a pointer that they can with the mind (1999: 69). Danesi and Perron describes culture as a sequence of meaning through the interconnection between body, mind and culture, as seen in the chart below.



Sources: Danesi and Perron (1999: 69)

The figure explains that if “something” has entered the culture, then it entered the order of meaning. “Something” gets

input from the world, and all that there is, beyond ourselves. for example:

- In the body (body), the child uses the body to make the sign refers to the object, for example, children crying from hunger and illness (if at Peirce this qualisign).
- In the mind (mind), children develop the ability to think of objects in order to sign referred to it. That is, “sign vehicle”, which represent objects through representations exist “displacement” (transferred to the brain), because indirect. Example: the sound of the voice of the mother.
- In the culture (culture), signs are no longer limited to the mother’s voice, for example, hearing people laugh as a sign that laughing is fun. The point is, meaning the order was already at the stage of culture. Other examples such as “let’s kiss the hand”, the child will act in a certain context. If the mind is described and compared with Peirce, the result is as follows.

<i>Qualisign</i>	<i>semiosis</i>	<i>Body (firstness)</i>
<i>Sinsign</i>	<i>representation</i>	<i>Mind (secondness: dikembangkan)</i>
<i>Legisign</i>	<i>Signifying order</i>	<i>Culture (thirdness)</i>

In essence, Danesi and Perron saw culture as a sequence of meaning because, every individual can always decide to change the “format” of him at any time, even though, at that place there is a paradox of the human condition, namely through the “circle of life”, there is a need that cannot be explained in every person / individual to put the knowledge categories, which are provided by the order of meaning.

In addition, how to analyze the text using semiotics, let us see the example below.

Islamic Women Define “Beautiful”: An Analysis of Socio Semiotics Ponds White Beauty Facial Foam and Ponds Body Lotion in Advertising

1. Preliminary

In an effort to care for beauty, women are usually “loyal” to a product. Beauty products include facial and body treatments, whether it is soap, shampoo, lipstick, mask, and a facial moisturizer. Consideration and determination by consuming beauty products, which could not be separated from the part on television advertisement. Manufacturers introduced products through creative advertising itself. He was on television has the “power” to communicate its products. The shape is varied and very interesting, too stunning visual creativity and effective. In a duration of 30 seconds and a minute producers as sellers can influence viewers with an advertisement impressions and language, which are “beautiful”.

The skin whitening advertisements bombard us with images of white, and the results are remarkable every day. Trend “white image” through advertisement is able to associate thoughts into a form that is more varied with the level of visual interest to the game, especially when it taken in by the advertising of face bleach products. Now, almost all white image market, with an intelligent and creative visualization. In the context of skin whitening, it could mean that consumers are given information that white is beautiful, so continuously that reality is not really necessary anymore

(Reuters, February 2001), meaning that manufacturers with very “clever” constructs incorporate “white” into the minds of television viewers. Actually, cosmetics advertisement is regulated in Decree No. Permenkes. 386/1994 prohibiting the depiction as if it may affect the physiological and or metabolism, also are prohibited from using words treat, cure or other words that convey the same as if to treat a disease. The problem in advertising skin whitening, although the language is not against the rules, perceptions generated, making as if the product has a therapeutic effect, in this case the therapy “to be white” (Kompas, May 2001)

In Indonesia, trend of whitening facial advertisement, which is called *Ponds* got quite a bit of attention, as evidenced by the award given by Citra Pariwara as Brand Award for 3 consecutive years. Creativity advertisers see from the images, sounds, situations, and language that created the advertisement. Here, the manufacturer was able to see the target *Ponds* advertisement, the woman is “beautiful”, which was perceived that the beautiful means having white skin, and is capable of making beautiful face bleach *Ponds*. In general, advertising is a promotional tool for the sale of goods and services through mass media (Purwantari 1998: 39). In the era of the 1990s, when the development of the advertising is increasingly becoming private television sprung, so it becomes “fine cuisine” for advertisers. Here, advertising affects people in two ways. First, as an instrument of marketing communication, advertising works to sell products, services and ideas through persuasion. Second, as a form of social communication, advertisement offering a message to the community, helping us to shape and understand our social world (Krugman ed 1994: 37-38). Furthermore, advertising is not

only has an economic power, but also has the power and a cultural significance. It is clearly that there is no doubt that television as a medium for advertisers is the fastest medium in conveying advertising messages communicatively. However, if the *Ponds* advertisement aims to help consumers in selecting products or just made solely in the interest of producers is a separate issue, which deals with the meaning of advertising *Ponds*. Based on the explanation above, the problems in this study are (1) Is it true that *Ponds* advertisement is a form of communication which full of meaning?; (2) What is the form and function of the meanings is realized in society?; and (3) How Islamic Women defines “beautiful” in *Ponds White Beauty Facial Foam* advertisement and *Ponds Body Lotion* on television?. To answer these problems, the purpose of this study is described as follows: (1) This paper is intended to answer whether or not *Ponds* advertisement as a form of communication which full of meaning; (2) Describe the form and function of meaning in *Ponds White Beauty Facial Foam* and *Ponds Body Lotion* advertisement on television, and (3) describe Islamic Women defines “beautiful” in *Ponds White Beauty Facial Foam* and *Ponds Body Lotion* advertisement on television. The data in this study is taken from the speech models and narrator ad within the ad *Ponds White Beauty Facial Foam* and *Ponds Body Lotion* on television. How the data processing are: (1); researcher watched the advertisement over and over again, (2); researcher captured images and transcribed speech into the record, (3); researcher noted the things that support the analysis of data (images, motion situation) (4); researcher classified types of data (5), analyzed data based on the theoretical framework.

2. Theoritical Framework

2.1. Communication and Discourse Analysis

Early models of communication comes from the perspective of the communication process as a form of communication model of Shannon and Weaver.

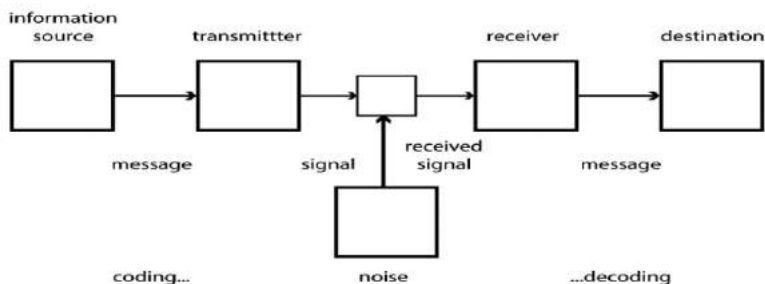


Figure 1. Shannon and Weaver's General Communication Model (Renkema 2004: 40)

The above model is called one of the basic models in a science communication, which describes the communication process as a simple and linear process from one point to another. Renkema (2004: 40-41) describes the communication model above as follows: in the information source (source of information), a message chosen or selected. It consists of written or spoken language, images, music and so on. The transmitter encodes the message in a signal that is sent through a communication channel to the receiver (receiver). The receiver translates the signals into the message, encodes the message and sends this message to (destination). The important thing in communication theory is that the message is encoded into words. It is then distributed through a channel of communication, voice, paper, screen, and then to the

receiver. The receiver encodes the message, and the message to the final destination, the mind reader or audience.

The other theory which helps this analysis is called discourse analysis. Discourse analysis is the science that aimed to investigate the relationship between form and function (Renkema, 2004: 1). That is, discourse refers to the complexity of aspects formed by the interaction between the linguistic aspects of the text, as embodied in the outer aspect of language (Aminuddin 2002: 37). Aminuddin added that the interaction is, in addition to determining the characteristics of this form of communication or the use of language also serves to determine the meaning of a text, which is also influenced by elements outside the language of the participants, purpose and context. In linguistics, context include: (1) the context of the speech, a context substitutions such situations, the medium used, the location, the persona and the conditions that allow for substitutions, (2) cultural context, and (3) a reference to the context of the conversation context (Aminuddin 2002: 38).

Meanwhile, Cook (2001: 3) explains that discourse analysis is also talking about the context of the communication, not only with the language itself: who and with whom speakers communicate and why; kind of what people and situations how, through what medium, how the difference types and actions including communication and relations with each other. So Cook concluded what was said about the discourse, particularly discourse of advertising is a combination of text (linguistic form) and context (substance; music and pictures; paralanguage; situation; co-text; intertext; Participants; function) (2001: 4).

2.2. Meaning Production in Advertising

Stuart Hall in his book *The rediscovery of 'ideology'* said that the meaning or image appearing in an advertisement is not something granted, but it is the result of a particular way of constructing reality. Furthermore, he argued that the definition of reality is produced through practices of linguistic and visual, in which the practices are definitions of reality are selectively represented. In connection with reality constructed by advertising, Rymond William (1993) in Bungin (2000) say that television advertising has become the magic system. While Piliang (1998) argue that the social reality in television advertising has been reinforce your power as something real going on called *hiperrealitas*.

Bungin (2000) says that in addition to categorization of meaning encoded by viewers in different social classes, the meaning of which has been encoded by viewers, is also associated with the image created by the copywriter in the advertisement. Furthermore, the encoding process by viewers using an arbitrary interpretation of the meaning encoded so that will vary. In addition, Emphasis will be the interpretation of the advertising done by Purwantari with his opinion that the events in the real world do not contain their own meaning an integral and intrinsic which is then transferred through language. Rather, the meaning is a production and social practice in which the language and symbolism is a tool that allows meanings produced.

2.3. Discourse Aspect Meaning

This study will be examined through theory Halliday and Hasan theory (1985) as quoted by Renkema (2004: 46) through a

socio-semiotic approach. They describe three aspects of the social context, namely: (1) field, (2) tenor, and (3) mode. These concepts allow to interpret the social context of a discourse, in which the meaning is sometimes altered. A field is a field of discourse refers to what happened and the nature of social action that occurred, particularly participants answered questions about what is included in it. It can be seen from the features of the language. In general, the contents of the field is what's discourse. Field refers to the core meaning of a discourse and social action that occurs as well reference refers to the institutional (Renkema, 2004: 46). In a sense discourse aspect, field is called an ideational meaning (the meaning of the idea and then I called), called Aminuddin (2002: 41) as the ideational function, the function of language to express "something" as represented speakers. Aminuddin added that the linguistic meaning of the symbol is not only shaped by the linguistic aspects, but also by the view of the language user in perceiving the world and abstract linguistic symbol which is referenced.

Furthermore, tenor is a discourse that refers to who is taking part in the discourse, the nature of the participants, referring to the status and role in the discourse (Renkema, 2004: 46). Tenor describes the relationship that exists between participants. How can analyze it through the "power" and "social status", which can be seen through the vertical relationship (low high social status), and horizontal relationships (far or close solidarity).

Mode refers to the part where the language plays in it and for what participants hope to do the language in the situation. In additon, mode is the symbolic organization of the text. Status, and its function in the context, including the channel (oral, written,

or a combination of both) as well as rhetorical mode (Renkema, 2004: 47), so it is talking about the superstructure mode, purpose and function. These three aspects of the social context is related to three aspects of discourse: (1) ideational, (2) interpersonal, and (3) textual (Renkema, 2004: 47). Renkema further said that the meaning associated with the discourse to the context. Relations between discourse and context for semantic level of semiotics. Let’s look at the chart below to see the relationship between the components of a context to the situation of the aspects of discourse meaning.

Situational Component	Discourse Aspect
<i>Field</i>	<i>Ideational meaning</i>
<i>Tenor</i>	<i>Interpersonal meaning</i>
<i>Mode</i>	<i>Textual meaning</i>

Tabel 1. Key concepts in functional grammar

From the table (1) above, it appears that the meaning of the idea of a discourse related to the field components of a context situation. This means, the content of discourse refers to what happens in a particular situation or a particular topic. Ideational meaning should be able to answer the talk whether discourse (Renkema, 2004: 47). Meanwhile, Renkema (2004: 47) says that the meaning of interpersonal discourse related to tenor, and can be recognized by the participants in the discourse of how to use language to act. For example, the use of the type of job can mean someone has the “power” to give instruction. The last aspect of discourse in table (1) is a textual meanings associated with fashion. Textual meaning is meant here is the organization of the content elements within a larger structure, for example,

where the perspective on a topic related to the technique of putting the information in a prominent place. There are two kinds of advertisement that will be analyzed. The first advertisement is *Ponds* version a model on playing tennis, and I called Advertisement of Ponds “Tennis Version”

3. Data Analysis

3.1 Advertisement of Ponds “Tennis Version”

Advertisement on *Ponds tennis version* is the latest ad from *Ponds*, aired in 2006, which featured two women, which were practicing playing tennis to win a competition sport tennis international scale (the picture shows the Wimbledon stadium; the headquarters of the All England Lawn Tennis and Croquet Club in the London suburb of Wimbledon). The first woman (here in after researcher called a black model, meaning dark or brown typical of Indonesia) noted that his co-star (here in after referred to as the second female white model) whiter skinned than her. After transcribing, “linguistic message” of *Ponds Tennis Version* television advertisement can be read as follows:





Mainnya makin bagus..., wajahnya tampak makin putih... (narator iklan) karena ia memakai *Ponds Moisturizer* dan juga *Ponds Facial Foam*, yang mengandung Vitamin B3 untuk membantu *Ponds Mousturizer* lebih meresap ke dalam kulit agar tampak lebih putih. Langkah awal untuk kulit wajah tampak lebih putih... *Ponds White* (she is playing better ..., her face looked whiter ..., (ad narrator) because she was wearing *Ponds Moisturizer* and *Facial Foam*, which contain Vitamin B3 to help *Ponds Mousturizer* more absorbed into the skin to appear whiter. The first step to whiter skin ... *Ponds White Beauty Facial Foam*).

In the advertisement, two women portrayed tennis sports wear, which of course can show clearly whether or not their skin white. Let us look at the meaning of the advertisement below.

3.1.1 Ideational Meaning

To view the ideational meaning (which I call the meanings here in after idea), can be seen through the component situation in the ad. As noted earlier, field, component situation in the sense that this is a field of discourse refers to what happened and the nature of social action that occurred, particularly participants answered questions about what is included in it, can be seen from the features of the language. Her playing better ..., her face looked whiter ..., if we look at the sentence, participants are brown-skinned women (black model) and white women. Ad maker here is the seller who has sold significance, whereas the television audience is expected buyers purchase products Ponds. In fact, participants targeted sellers are white women, because actually ... her face looks whiter ..., aimed at women who already have a white pigment. Furthermore, the meaning of the idea should be able to answer the talk about whether the discourse (Renkema, 2004: 47). In the context of tennis version Ponds ads, the ads talk about the product called *Ponds Moisturizer* and *Facial Foam*, which contains vitamin B3. So, there are two products you want to sell. The first kind of moisturizer to use after a shower or type of face moisturizer (*Moisturizer Ponds*), the second type of cleanser or soap after the move. This ad is to sell both products simultaneously saying that women should use soap before applying moisturizer, because the function of *Ponds Facial Foam*, which contains vitamin B3 is helping *Ponds Mousturizer* to seep

into the skin to appear whiter. The first step to the whiter skin ... which is actually *Ponds White Beauty Facial Foam*.

3.1.2 Interpersonal Meaning

Let us consider the example (1) below.

- (1) ..., (ad narrator) because she was wearing *Ponds Moisturizer* and *Facial Foam*, which contain Vitamin B3 to help *Ponds Mousturizer* more absorbed into the skin to appear more white. The first step to whiter skin ... *Ponds White Beauty Facial Foam*.

To view the interpersonal meaning, we can see the Tenor as a discourse that refers to who is taking part in the discourse, the nature of the participants, referring to the status and role in the discourse (Renkema, 2004: 46). Tenor describes the relationship that exists between participants. How to analyze it, it can be seen through the “power” and “a social status” participants, through the vertical relationship (low high social status), and horizontal relationships (far or close solidarity).

The narrator of the ad on the example of speech (1) on television, we can see that advertising through television producers have “power” in communicating the message, so the speech narrator looks very effective advertisement. Television gives the image which is processed into raw materials marketing, giving television viewers information, especially the target, that target *the Ponds* will be white, and the white will be “beautiful” “*Ponds Moisturizer* and *Facial Foam*, which contain Vitamin B3 for *Ponds Mousturizer* more help soak into the skin to appear whiter “. Television via advertising *Ponds* has a major role in

treating impressions as a commodity. It has to rely on advertising as a revenue source *Ponds* biggest fund (possibility), and serves as the commercial institutions that support the main idea of capitalism (selling all kinds of products *Ponds*) to conceptualize the production and reproduction. That is, *Ponds* do not provide information to consumers in order to make the best choice, but promote their own products in a “beautiful”, with the memorable slogan viewers that the initial skin look whiter, namely *Ponds White Beauty Facial Foam*.

3.1.3 Textual Meaning

Mode refers to the part where the language plays in it and for what participants hope to do the language in the situation. Mode is the arrangement of text, status and functions in a context, including the channel (oral, written, or a combination of both) and also rhetorical mode (Renkema, 2004: 47). In short, it is talking about the mode shapes (superstructures), the purpose and function.

Ponds advertising language version of tennis showed hope advertising producers as sellers. Manufacturers suggest that every woman who buys and uses *Ponds* will make skin more white, whiter and whiter. The word “white” is repeated several times, so that having the intended emphasis to the perception of the viewer (the target) that this face whitening products really “powerful” to whiten skin. The presence of advertisements on television *Ponds* is a bit much to change the lives of people (women who wear *Ponds*). First, this advertisement wear cultivate the desire for a “white” Save the advertisement, because white means that “beautiful”. This means that many women are motivated to follow what they see on television, such as using *Ponds Facial Foam* first,

then use *Ponds Mouisturizer*, giving rise to a consumerist culture. Moreover, the nature of television that only the one direction, so that the women will be forced to seek external information, such as whether *Ponds* do not disturb the skin health: but it can only be done by certain circles that in fact have “money” and educated; assuming seek information about Ponds skin whitening products. The second advertisement that is going to analyze is advertisement of Ponds “walking in the crowd version”

3.2 Advertisement of Ponds “walking in the crowd version”

Ponds advertisement illustrates two women, which were walking in the crowd. They walked the opposite direction. One of them has a white skin (I called a white models). Women who has a black skin (then I called a black model) view of the distant white woman’s skin and automatically see their own skin. Two women in these advertisement are not issued speech at all, but the white model of “action” provides products *Ponds* when they met. Narrator of the advertisement says:





- (2) *Ngapain takut belang, sekarang ada Ponds Body Lotion Baru yang melengkapi putihmu sampai ke ujung kaki.* (Why do you fear of stripes, there is now a *New Ponds Body Lotion* that complement your white until Valentine foot)

We will see the linguistics message below. Here is the meaning of the idea, interpersonal and textual in this advertisement

3.2.1 Ideational meaning

The second advertisement in the series *Ponds* advertisement featured two women who were walking direction. Almost the same as the previous advertisements, advertisements running in the crowd *Ponds* version also uses two figures opposite color, one black (according to researcher brown) and one white. The depiction of this discourse can be seen through the speech (2) spoken by the narrator advertisement, which shows that if the model wants white black white model that provides “Ponds”, then he can use *New Ponds Body Lotion*, which according to the

manufacturer can make the white models black in advertising and consumers (TV viewers) to toe. As noted earlier, the meaning of the idea should be able to answer the talk about whether the discourse (Renkema, 2004: 47). First, the advertisement is actually just talking about the latest products from the Ponds, which is for women who are skinned striped, meaning “white” uneven skin to toe. This new product is trying to lure viewers to use *Ponds Body Lotion*, so “white” can come from face to toe, and if white skin evenly to toe, the women were being “beautiful”. Second, it is talking about the comparison between white women and stripes, manufacturers indicate that white women get more “attention” from the Adam (the picture shows that the “glance” and “look” more white models and black models are not there is a “glance” or “see”), so that the benefits of the product in treating female beauty is really highlighted by advertisers, with the assumption that women taking care of themselves to attract the opposite sex.

3.2.2 Interpersonal meaning

Renkema (2004: 47) says that the meaning of interpersonal discourse related to the tenor, the who, the status and role of the participants, and can be recognized by the participants in the discourse of how to use language to act. For example, the use of the type of job can mean a person has “the strength (power)” to give instruction. Language version of the advertisement makers running out in the crowd is informative as well as persuasive “Why fear stripes, there is now a *New Ponds Body Lotion* that complement your white until Valentine foot”. Manufacturer of advertising on television to provide information that Ponds had a new product, as well as persuade the creative language “fear

doing stripes”, to show that “beautiful” is that having white skin evenness.

3.2.3 Textual Meaning

The last aspect of discourse is related to the meaning of textual mode (mode). Textual meaning is meant here is the organization of the content elements within a larger structure, for example, where the perspective on a topic related to the technique of putting the information in a prominent place. Here, *Ponds* advertisement put new information about a new product that can whiten skin to toe, which is kind of *Ponds Body Lotion*. This means, it appears that manufacturers impose *Ponds* consumption as much as possible to television audiences with its main purpose, propaganda products. Manufacturers *Ponds* advertisement encourage consumers to buy as many products *Ponds* with the assumption that if many consumers buy the product, then the greater the benefits. Consumerism propagated by advertising this *Ponds* up to the level of imaging that ownership of a product “Ponds” equivalent beauty itself. That is, when women do not buy the product, the person is imaged as a woman who does not have the beauty “product version *Ponds*”.

An Effort to encourage consumers to buy products made by the method *Ponds* dishonest and deceptive because even commercials that are used are already white and “beautiful” by the standards of beauty of Indonesia (tall and slender, long black hair, white face, “beautiful”), and because the logic, which may be the product with the price ranging from Rp. 10.000, - up to Rp.12.000, - can whiten skin in as few as 6 weeks. This is where manufacturers *Ponds* serve advertisements to spread the idea to the public that (the women were black or brown) products *Ponds*

need to be beautiful, it is a public lie. Unfortunately, for the sake of mutual relations, propaganda carried out by the manufacturer *Ponds* advertisement is fully supported by television; evidenced by the presence of advertising airtime *Ponds* every advertisement. Therefore, the television plays a major role in distorting the facts in order to make consumers interested in *Ponds* advertisement.

4. Conclusion

Ponds advertisement is a form of communication which full of meaning. The form and function of meaning in advertising *Ponds White Beauty Facial Foam* and *Ponds Body Lotion* on television portrayed through ideas, language ads, and purpose. "Beautiful" in this ad are women who have white skin and use all kinds of products *Ponds*. They are good moisturizer, cleanser, moisturizer and a flattened body to toe white. Manufacturers build an image to form a consumer (especially women) living in the physical standards. Television via advertising *Ponds* treat as a commodity, and serves as a commercial institution that supports the main idea of capitalism (selling all kinds of products *Ponds*) to conceptualize the production and reproduction. That is, *Ponds* do not provide information to consumers in order to make the best choice, but promote their own products in a "beautiful", with the memorable slogan viewers that the first step to whiter skin, the product; *Ponds White Beauty Facial Foam* and *Ponds Body Lotion*. *Ponds* advertising functions that contribute to the community to spread the idea that women were black or dark brown really need *Ponds* products in order to be beautiful, and television play a major role in distorting the facts in order to make consumers interested in advertising *Ponds*.

Based on the above explanation, the meaning and definition of “beautiful” according to *Ponds White Beauty Facial Foam* advertisement, and *Foam Body Lotion* advertisement is only restricted to physical standards, that is a woman which is beautiful is a woman who has a white skin, and she will be beautiful, and the one who is beautiful means powerful. It is done from all aspect of *Ponds* advertisement (Ideational meaning, interpersonal meaning, and textual meaning), where all the meaning of those advertisement take “benefit” from tendency features, which is attributed to every women, especially Indonesian women who always try to be beautiful. It is really clear that the word magic “beautiful” identical to women. Almost every women need a confession for being beauty. To be beautiful physically happen on *Ponds* advertisement. Women representation that appear on the *Ponds* advertisement does not show the representation of Islamic woman where the inner beauty is beauty from body and spiritual. Islamic women can be beauty physically and spiritual, where Islam see the beauty top of a woman is when she obey and submit to Allah SWT, and clearly the Islamic women does not ‘live’ in the standard of beauty from images that bombarded by advertisement of *Ponds White Beauty Facial Foam*, and *Ponds Body Lotion*. In conclusion, Islamic women define “beautiful” means she does not agree to the meaning resulted from *Ponds White Beauty Facial Foam* advertisement, and absolutely she does not agree also to the meaning resulted from *Ponds Body Lotion* advertisement. The women representation in these advertisement are only capitalisms product.

Chapter9

Typology

Introduction

The classification of languages or components of languages based on shared formal characteristics is called typology. Typology according to Greenberg can be explained as follows: Greenberg (1990: 105), has been develop what has been proposed by Lepsius and Schmidt. He developed a new systematic account of three elements (types and systems) together, the so-called basic sequences, concerns the relative order of subject, verb and object; adposition, and the position of attributive adjectives to nouns. In this case, the typology of basic sequences (words), which is determined by the relative order of subject, verb and object in a sentence news, which is denoted by S (subject), V (verb), and O (Object). Based on the reasoning results, obtained six sentence patterns, namely, SVO, SOV, VSO, VOS, OSV, and OVS. SVO pattern found in *Indonesian*, and language *Tehid*. Sequences that are common in SVO languages or VO, as shown in the following transitive clause.

(1) *Pilemonsw wkhain khbati hambor mresm* (Flassy 1981: 152)

Pilemon sw w khain khbati hambor
m resm

Pilemon ia-3S -mask beli tembakau-OBJ bungkus-N

Fem satu 'Pilemon membeli tembakau satu bungkus'

Clause (1) can be decomposed into: Pilemon a nominal anima, the name of men; W is a suffix Partitive 03 th mask; W is a prefix Partitive 03 th mask; khain (ppt + -) is the verb 'buy'; khbati is nominal inan 'tobacco'; hambor a nominal inan 'wrap (an)'; mresadalah numeral 'one', while M is a suffix Partitive 03 th fem.

In the intransitif clause, for example:

(2) *Alfonsw wain* (1981: 152)

lfon sw w ain

Alfon ia-3S mask pergi

Alfons ia pergi

'Alfons pergi'

Clause (2) can be decomposed into: Alfons is a nominal anima, which is the name of the man; W is a suffix Partitive 03 th mask; W is a prefix mask Partitive 03 th, while Ain (pp + -) is the verb 'go'. Based on the sequence, example (1) *Pilemonsw wkhain khbati hambor mresm* have SV order, Pilemon as subject (S) appears before khain (V) 'buy', so it is with intransitive clause. Alfons Wain in Example (2) shows that the order of S have Tehid language appears (Alfonsw) before V (Wain). Thus, the order did not distinguish anything. It is based on the order *Pilemonsw wkhain khbati hambor mresm* A sequence (Pilemon) V (khain) P (khbati) = AV P.

In addition to the language Tehid, SVO and VOS pattern also found in the English language. In addition, Whaley (1997: 85) states that the order SVO, SOV, VSO, is the most widely sequence appeared (dominant), as shown in the table below.

Urutan kata (Word Order)	Kemenonjolan subjek	Aturan struktur frase
SVO	+	+
SOV	+	+
VSO	+	-
VOS	+	+
OVS	+	+
OSV	+	-

Therefore, in Keraf, Greenberg mentions that according to the position of the element pattern V.

- Type 1: VSO (V occupy the sentence initial position)
- Type 2: SVO (V is a second position)
- Type 3: SOV (V occupied the third position)

Lehman’s word order typology

In relation to the research of Greenberg, Lehman ((, 1973, 26: 47-66) in Keraf 1990: 108)) proves two things, namely: (i) the order of the subject is not relevant to the general typology, resulting in a classification of languages, should we only work in two main types. Therefore, it can be said that Lehman word order typology is based Greenberg (1983: 23). Lehman said that there are two typologies of word order, namely VO and OV, (ii) the element of V (verb) and O (Object) are the two elements that are always hand in hand, and that the boundary (it’s modifier), placed on opposite sides of the constituent devices other equivalent. Examples of

VO word order typology found in Indonesian. Whaley (1997: 86) shows Lehman's constituent order correlations, as shown below.

Urutan kata (Word Order)	korelasi (Correlation)
VO	OV
<i>Preposition+noun</i>	<i>Noun+preposition</i>
<i>Noun+genitive</i>	<i>Genitive+noun</i>
<i>Noun+adjective</i>	<i>Adjective+noun</i>
<i>Noun+relative clause</i>	<i>Relative clause+noun</i>
<i>Sentence-initial question word</i>	<i>Noninitial question word</i>
<i>Prefixes</i>	<i>Suffixes</i>
<i>Auxiliary verb+main verb</i>	<i>Main verb+auxiliary verb</i>
<i>Comparative adjective+standard</i>	<i>Standard+comparative adjective</i>
<i>Verb+adverb</i>	<i>Adverb+verb</i>
<i>Negative+verb</i>	<i>Verb+negative</i>
<i>Subordinator+clause</i>	<i>Clause+subordinator</i>

From the discussion above shows the fundamental difference between word order typology and typological sequence Greenberg said Lehman. Greenberg filed six major word order patterns, while Lehman shrinking sequence pattern (2 only), a VO or OV alone. With the classification of subjects that include, Greenberg does not mess up the order of the terms and language, while Lehman by using VO and OV order, also uses the term to refer to VO and OV languages, so that he does not use other terms to refer to the language class instead of using the base sequence for the class call language. While the fundamental similarities between word order typology Greenberg and Lehman are (i) that both V and O is a pattern-sequence alignment, (ii) are both constituent order correlations, and both make the other correlations on the basis of the order of constituents.

The definition of applicative construction, construction causative lexical, morphological causative construction, and periphrastic causative constructions can be explained as follows: applicative construction is not an argument that change the construction from core to core arguments. For example, “Saya mengkhawatirkan ibu”, (*I am worry of my mother*) meaning (i), I am concerned with the state of the mother or, (ii) I made my mother worried with the state. In the applicative construction, should be no object, construction is just a matter of syntax, not semantic. However, in the applicative construction, also known equivalent intransitive form, and in this case the semantic motivation. for example:

- a. “Toni membicarakan masalah Lapindo”
- b. “Toni berbicara tentang masalah Lapindo”

in (2.1.a), meaningful speech that Toni truly master problem Lapindo, while (2.1.b) means that Toni is only “just” to talk about Lapindo. However, not all applicable construction has intransitive counterparts.

Lexical causative construction is a construction that connects the two phenomena, which are expressed in a single clause. Lexical causative construction means, causative constructions using lexical signs to indicate causation. In English, for example, lexical causative construction is evident in: (i) verbs that indicate “permission”, such as allow, let, permit, for example, in “Shinta let him leave”, (ii), verbs indicating asked, such as request, and (iii) indicate causation, indicated by the verb make, cause, and force, for example in ‘Coky made her leave’ or ‘he by the caused me to do it.

Morphological causative construction is construction, which is indicated by the affix-verb suffix, for example: “Shinta fun Mother”. -It is a marker of morphological causative construction. In Tehid language, examples of morphological causative construction is

Mom/mdi/fe tolotm

la/ia jatuh/karena aku menyebabkan ia
‘aku menyebabkan ia jatuh’

Periphrastic causative construction

According to Whaley (1997: 289), , “*periphrastic construction is a construction in which multiple verb forms are used to express what can commonly be expressed by a single verb in conjunction with affixes.* My translation is periphrastic construction is a construction in which the various forms of the verb are used to express what is generally expressed by a verb in conjunction with affixes. In English for example. “He by the caused / compelled / forced me to do it. This construction shows a fairly diverse forms of verbs, such as + compelled to do, used to indicate the cause is often referred to, therefore, called peripheral causatives, or in other words is the meaning of indirect causation.

Similarities and differences between the passive construction and construction antipasif which are as follows:

- (i) Construction is the construction of a passive verb that is reduced when the number of arguments offered in conjunction with the roots of certain verbs.

For example:

- a. Bugs will be mugged (by the thugs)

(ii) construction of a passive construction is the subject of the sentence transitive object, and the subject becomes compulsory. for example:

- Maize was planted by the Bakrie (corn is the argument (A), and the corn was a specific reference).

In the passive construction of a transitive intransitive, can be seen as below.

Str v Otr into Sint (= O) V (Oblique) = Str)

while construction antipasif is “a valence decreasing device roomates demotes the object of a transitive verb, thereby detransitivizing it” (Whaley 1997: 282). My translation, the passive construction is a tool to increase the valence, which lowers the object of a transitive verb, and in this way, becomes transitive. for example: planting corn Bakrie (Bakrie as the argument (A) becomes mandatory, experience inkorporasi and compounding. corn is not an argument, because they do not reference specific here (no referennya). So, antipasif can be described as follows: Str V Otr become Sint (= S) V (Oblique = Otr).

From the above, it is seen that the passive construction and antipasif have similarities and differences. The equation is that both constructions are derived from transitive construction, which is intransitive (2 arguments), or in other words a passive construction and construction antipasif also a deduction-valence devices with “detransitivisasi”, which lowers the status of the object (Whaley 1997: 186 and 282). while the difference between the two, as follows:

Pasif	Antipasif
Harus muncul <i>oleh</i>	Tidak harus muncul <i>oleh</i>
A mengalami penurunan (<i>demotion</i>)	P mengalami penurunan (<i>demotion</i>)
A dapat dihilangkan	P menjadi <i>indefinite</i> karena mengalami inkorporasi
A V P S(=P) V (Oblique=A)	A V P S(=A) V (Oblique=P)

To shed more light on the concept of typology, let us look at the concept “gramatikalisasi”. What is called gramaticalization? Here are two examples gramaticalization in Indonesian. According to Hopper and Tracegott (2003: 1), the term gramaticalization is ambiguous. First, the “something” to do is something with a research framework, in which the phenomenon of language count, while the second frame, the phenomenon itself. Gramaticalization is similar terms which are not only with another term in linguistics, such as grammar, syntax, and phonology, but also the term for the whole concept to a higher stage in all scientific disciplines.

As a term that refers to a research framework, gramaticalization refers to language change of science section, which is connected with the question, how the lexical units and constructions come in certain linguistic contexts to serve grammatical functions or how grammatical unit to develop new grammatical functions, so, gramaticalization meaning here refers to most of the steps / stages, the particular term / specific units become more grammatical through time, so gramaticalization is part of a linguistic phenomenon, which is more than the structure through a combination of the shape to be fixed in a particular function. A

fundamental question in linguistics is a language that was actually possible and not possible. In this case, the typology can contribute reconstruction of languages, and can be used to reconstruct the language because (i) there is a tendency of asymmetric language, (ii) there are a small number of grammatical morpheme changes, which can be returned to the lexical morpheme. In this case, relatively the same stage of development. For example, a change from the point of morphological and syntactic grammatical.

- a. Hamba takut akan mimpi itu.
- b. Takutkah kamu 'kan mimpi itu?
- c. Jangan takutkan mimpi itu.

Based on trends in language change, it will be in the (a) first appeared on the 'right (b), and the last suffix-kan (c). Another example of such a change would be in classical Malay, as shown below.

- a. memelihara akan (transitif)
- b. rindu akan alam pedesaan (bukan transitif)
- c. mendengar akan pejuangnya gugur
- d. pergi akan bekerja

after the process of grammaticalization, the form become:

- a. memelihara**kan**
- b. rindu**kan**
- c. mendeng**kan** bahwa pejuangnya gugur
- d. *akan* adalah penanda waktu, kala mendatang.

In gramaticalization, it had seen that in the 'will', with different usage cause shortening (phonological angle), and experiencing

abstraction (meaning angle). Then the sample (b) 'longing for' make 'missed' lexical morpheme changes into grammatical morpheme.

Based on limited data from the Indonesian and Arabic below, it is describe that the core arguments organizing systems owned both languages.

Indonesian:

1. **orang itu dia pukul.**
2. **Dia pukul orang itu.**
3. ***orang itu pukul.**
4. **Orang itu lari.**
5. **Lari orang itu.**
6. **Orang itu dipukul oleh dia.**
7. **Orang itu dipukul.**
8. **Dipukul oleh dia orang itu.**

Before deciding the system of the organization of core argument, let us decide the form of those sentences; whether it is transitive or intransitive

1. Orang itu dia pukul= kalimat transitif
P A V
2. Dia pukul orang itu= kalimat transitif.
A V P
3. *orang itu pukul= tidak gramatikal
4. Orang itu lari= kalimat intransitif.
S V
5. Lari orang itu= kalimat intransitif (topikalisasi)
V S
6. Orang itu dipukul oleh dia= Kalimat pasif.
S V (OBLIQUE)

7. Orang itu dipukul= kalimat pasif

S V

8. Dipukul oleh dia orang itu.

V A (oleh dia wajib hadir) P

Dari contoh-contoh di atas, marilah kita bandingkan contoh 2 dan 4,

2. Dia pukul orang itu= kalimat transitif.

A V P

4. Orang itu lari= kalimat intransitif.

S V

Based on the sequence, example (2) is a transitive sentence, which has AV sequence P. A lies to the left of V, and P to the right of V, whereas example (4) in the intransitive sentence, showing the sequence S V, so we can conclude that $A = S > <P$. Based on the core arguments organizing system, the Indonesian belong to the nominative-accusative system, because A and S are treated equally, whereas different P or [S, A] P.

Arabic:

- a. *Daraba al-rajulu alkalba*. 'lelaki itu memukul anjing jantan itu'.
- b. *Daraba alrajulu kalban*. 'lelaki itu memukul seekor anjing jantan'.
- c. *Jalasa alrajulu fialmasjidi*. 'lelaki itu duduk di masjid itu'.
- d. *Darabat albintu alrajula*. 'wanita itu memukul lelaki itu'.

We will try to see the organization of core argument of Arabic, let us to identify sentence (1-4)

- a. *Darab-a ar-rajul-u al-kalb-a*
Vpast.A (3.Mas) **A** (Det.N.Nom) **P** (Det.N.Acc)
 ‘telah memukul (ia laki-laki) lelaki itu anjing jantan itu’
 ‘lelaki itu memukul anjing jantan itu’
- b. *Darab-a al-rajul-u kalb-a-n*
Vpast.A (3.M) **A** (Det.N.Nom) **P** (N.Acc.Det)
 ‘telah memukul (ia laki-laki) lelaki itu seekor anjing jantan’
 ‘lelaki itu memukul seekor anjing jantan’
- c. *Jalas-a ar-rajul-u fi al-masjid-i*
Vpast.A (3.M) **A** (Det.N.Nom) Prep (Det.N.Loc)
 ‘telah duduk (ia laki-laki) lelaki itu di dalam masjid’
 ‘lelaki itu duduk di masjid’
- d. *Darab-at al-bint-u ar-rajul-a*
Vpast.A (3.F) **A** (Det.N.Nom) **P** (Det.N.Acc)
 ‘telah memukul (ia wanita) wanita itu lelaki itu’
 ‘wanita itu memukul lelaki itu’

Based on the example above, it is understood that the organization’s core argument in Arabic applying nominative-accusative. This is evidenced by three things, namely: (i) word order, based on the data (a), (b), and (d) above, the organization core arguments of transitive constructions in the Arabic language is consistently patterned VAP, and based on data (C) above, the core argument organization patterned SV transitive construction; (ii) marker case, based on all the examples above, is consistently

the concept of S and A is expressed in parallel through case marker-u, and the concept of O or P marker is always the case-a (iii) verb concord with the subject, namely that the information in the four verbs in the above data always refer to S or A, not P.

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