CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL REVIEW

In this chapter the writer focuses on describing the theories related to the topic of the thesis. The first part of this chapter deals with the introduction to lexical semantic. Additionally, the writer explains what semantic is, and then decribes synonymy, hyponymy, meronymy, and polysemy.The next part is related with contrastive component, sense-relations and conjunction.

2.1 Lexical Semantic

According to Palmer (1976:1), semantic is the technical term used to refer to the study of meaning. Moreover, he says meaning covers a variety of speects of language, and there is no very general agreement either about what meaning is or about the way in which it should be described.

Lexical semantic is subfield in the study of semantic. It studies the meaning of lexical unit. Because lexical semantic deals with the meaning of lexical unit, it is generally different from the semantic that studies the meaning in the sentence or clause. Lexical semantic only focuses on learning the meaning of lexical units. Cruse states that word meaning are not the sort of semantic units that one can communicate with on individual basis, unless other meaning components are implicit (2000:90).

According to Pustejovsky (1995), lexical semantic is the study of how and what the words of a language denote. In this chapter, there are some theories that deal with lexical unit as follows:

2.1.1 Synonymy

According to Richtarcikova (2007), synonyms are different words with identical or very similar meanings. Words that are synonyms are said to be synonymous, and the state of being a synonym is called synonymy. Accoding to O'Grady, synonyms are words or expressions that have the same meanings in some or all contexts (1997:269). In some ways, Cruse states that synonyms are word whose semantic similarities are more salient than their differences, than a potential are of interest opens up (2000:156). Cruse explains that synonym must have so many similaraties, but he does not deny that synonym cannot have a difference or a contrast. Moreover, other linguist, F.R.Palmer (1976:59), mentions that synonymy is used to mean sameness of meaning. He says that it is abvious that for the dictionary-maker many sets of words have the same meaning; they are synonymous, or are synonyms of one another. Additionally, in looking at possible synonyms there are at least five ways in which they can be seen to differ, according to Palmer, which are:

1. Some sets of synonym belong to different dialects of the language.
2. There is a similar situation, but a more problematic one, with the words that are used in different style or register.

3. Some words may be said to differ only in their emotive or evaluative meanings.
4. Some words are collocationally restricted. They occur only in conjunction with other words.
5. Many words are close in meaning, or that their meaning overlap.

In thesis there are found three types of synonym that Cruse mentions, they are:

2.1.1.1 Absolute Synonymy

According to Cruse (2000:157), absolute synonyms can be defined as items which are equinormal in all contexts. Cruse mentions that if word (a) put in a context, and then it is changed with word (b), then it will not result anomaly. In the other hand, the context does not become odd because of the existence of word (b). An unit is clasiffied as absolute synonymy when differentiating contexts are hard to find.

Additionally, Cruse takes sofa and sette as example. Both are interchanele in all contexts. If sofa is changed by settee in a context, there will be no anomaly in that context. Futhermore, he ensures that the same unit of meaning is involved in all the contexts used in the argument.

2.1.1.2 Cognitive Synonymy

Cognitive synonymy is also known as descriptive synonymy, propositional synonymy, or referential synonymy in many ways. According to Lyons (1981),

cognitive synonymy is sometimes described as incomplete synonymy. Cruse (2000:158) states that if two lexical items are propositional synonyms, they can be substituted in any expression with truth-conditional properties without effect on those properties. From the statement, cognitive synonymy is synonym that refers to the same object or referent because it has the same truth conditional properties. Furthermore, cognitive synonymy is the different in use. Though they belong to the same referent, but it cannot be used without a proper context.

Example:

Synonyms	**Use**
Had intercourse	In a court of law
Made love	The most neutral
Fucked	In an airport bookstall

Cruse takes the example above. Had intercourse, made love and fucked are refers to same referent but they distinguish in use. The first one is more likely used in the court of law; meanwhile, the second one is the most neutral, or can be used in almost areas. The third one is applied in a typical novel found in an airport bookstall.

2.1.1.3 Near-synonymy or Plesionymy

According to Hirst, plesionyms, or near-synonyms, are words that are almost synonyms, but not quite. Meanwhile, Cruse states:

> Synonyms, on the other hand, do not function primarily to contrast with on another (this is what was meant by saying earlier that in the case of synonyms, heir common features were more salient than their differences). In certain contexts, of course, they may contrast, and this is especially true of near-synonyms: *He was killed, but I can assure you he was NOT murdered, madam.* (2000:159)

Though synonyms clearly indicate the similarity in their relation, but near-synonym has the contrast that differ them in theirs. These contrasts are completely covered by the similarity in their relations. Moreover, Cruse mentions two points. Firstly, he says that language users do have intuitions as two which pairs of words are synonyms and which are not. Secondly, it is not adequate to say simply that there is a scale of semantic distance, and that synonyms are words whose meanings are relatively close. In the other hand, it needs to consider the language user's intuition; though the synonyms have a contrast in their relations, it is still categorized as synonym. Take a look at the following example:

fog:mist

laugh:chuckle

hot:scorching

They all have a contrast that emerges in their relation, though they are synonym. Near-synonym must be backgrounded as Cruse mentioned; it means that synonym may have a contrast, and the intuition of language user is more dominant in deciding the synonymy. Among minor differences, Cruse says it may be counted the following example: adjacent position on scale of degree aspectual distinctions.

2.1.2 Polysemy

A single concept can be expressed by several different words (synonymy), and that conversely, one word can carry different meaning, according to Ravin and Leacock (2000). Meanwhile, Palmer mentions that polysemy is the case that the same word may have a set of different meanings (1976:65). Palmer takes flight as an example. The dictionary treats flight as a single word, but it recognizes no less than five words for various meanings. Look at the other example below:

Polysemic word	First meaning	Second meaning
Bank	a financial institution	the building where a financial institution offers services

From the dictionary, bank has two meanings. The first one is a financial institution, and the second one is the building where a financial institution offers services.

2.1.3 Meronymy

Meronymy or part-whole relation is exemplified by arm:body or wheel:bycycle. According to Lyons. Lyons prefer to call this relation as part-whole relation; meanwhile, other linguists call as meronymy. In instance, in the case of finger:hand, finger is said to be the meronym, and hand is the holonym. According to cruse (2000:153), meronymy, even more strikingly than hyponymy,

displays a prototypic character, and it seems more profitable to enquire into the features which contribute to centrality in the concept. The concept in meronymy is part and whole. Finger is part of hand, and hand becomes the whole of finger. Moreover, hand becomes the centrality of all parts. Furthermore, Cruse said that meronymy shows interesting parallels with hyponymy (2000:153). A dog is not part of an animal, or a finger is not kind of hand. According to Larson, there are some principal in meronymy,

2.1.3 Hyponymy

According to Cruse, hyponymy is one of the most important structuring relations in the vocabulary of a language (2000:150). It describes relations between two words, and it is important in structuring vocabulary of a language. Moreover, Cruse says (2000:150):

> From the extensional point of views, the class denoted by the superordinate term includes the class denoted by the hyponym as a sub class; thus, the class of fruit includes the class of apples as one of its subclasses.

From the statement above, fruit acts as the hyperonym of apple because fruit is the superordinate. Apple is subordinate because it is the hyponym of fruit. The meaning in of fruit is included in apple. Additionally, Palmer adds that the upper term is the superordinate and the lower term the hyponym (1976:76). Moreover, apple is co-hyponym with orange; their meaning is equal completely. Look the example below:

fruit (superordinate) hypernym of apple

apple (subeordinate) hyponym of fruit

orange co-hyponym with apple

From the relation above, it is distinguished from their common by semantic features which cannot be simultaneously present, according to Cruse (2000:165). Next, Cruse states that W(1) is a hyponym of W(2) if all the components of W(2) are included in the componential specification of W(1). Look at the example below:

stallion [animal][equine][male] is a hyponym of

horse [animal][equine]

Stallion becomes the hyponym of horse because all the components of horse are included in stallion.

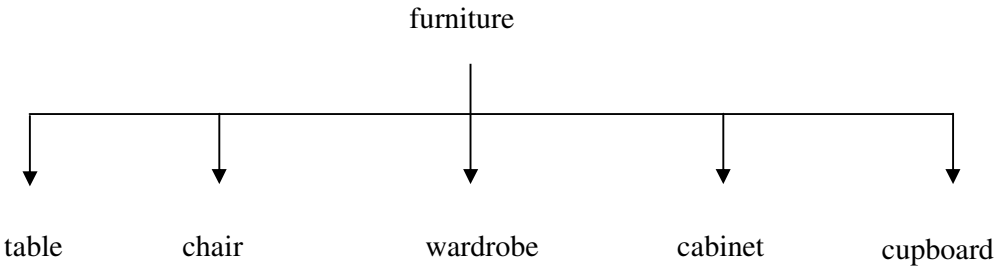
2.2 Componential Analysis

Lyons says that the sense of every lexeme can be analyzed in terms of a set of more general sense-components, some or all of which will be common to several different lexemes in the vocabulary (1977:317). Meanwhile, Larson states (1984:80) when displaying a lexical set in a chart, the words go into boxes, and the columns are labeled by the meaning components which are the basis of contrast between the words. This column, according to Larson, may be helpful to the translator to make displays which show the contrastive of meaning for certain areas of vocabulary. Through the componential analysis, it may be easier to distinguish the contrastive components of the lexical units.

2.2.1 Contrastive Components

Larson (1984:79) said that the meaning of a lexical item can only be discovered by studying that particular item in contrast to other items which are closely related. Larson uses generic component and contrastive component in searching for the meaning and distinguish one lexical unit from another. For example, according to Larson, the contrastive component which separate table, chair, wardrobe, cabinet, and cupboard deals with the shape and the use of these particular pieces of furniture (1984:85). In finding the contrastive component of the following items, it must identify the class first. Lexical items that do not belong to same generic class cannot search for the contrastive component.

From the same semantic class, it can be studied the contrastive component. Look at the example below:



From the example above, furniture acts as the general class. They all belong to the same semantic set. Because of it, they can be studied in contrast, and searched for the meaning.

2.3 Coordinating Conjunction

Halliday and Hasan State (1976:320) that the cohesion is a function of the relation between the lexical items themselves, which has both semantic aspect – synonym, hyponymy or metonymy. Each coordinating conjunction has their specific function besides join words or phrases. Here, it will be explained the function of “and” and “or”. Coordinating conjunction is conjunction that joins a single word or groups of word that have similar element. It cannot join two words or phrases that come from different class.

2.4 Sense Relations

According to Lyons (1977:197), sense is the term used by a number of philosophers for what others would describe simply as their meaning, or perhaps more narrowly as their cognitive or descriptive meaning. He explains that if two expressions has the same referent, but they could not be said to have the same sense, then they are not synonymous. Moreover, he mentions expressions may differ in sense, but have the same reference; and synonymous means having the same sense not having the same reference. The statement indicates that synonym does not only come from the same referent, but it can emerge from different referent but has the same sense.