CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL REVIEW

This chapter is a theoretical review of this research. This chapter consists of several theories that support the research. This research is actually built and accommodated by some theories. In particular, this chapter explains what syntax, syntactic categories, semantics, homonyms, meaning relations and associative meanings are.

2.1 Syntax: Syntactic Categories

The theory of syntax is used in this research as the study of structure and component order within the homonyms. According to Yule (2006:86):

> *"When we concentrate on the structure and ordering of components within a sentence, we are studying the **syntax** of a language."*

Yule defines syntax as the study of structure and component order among a sentence. In addition to that, Radford (2004:7) defines syntax as the study of how the phrase and the sentence are organized out of the word. In this research, the discussion about the term of syntax is limited in syntactic categories.

The data in this research are classified based on the syntactic categories among the homonyms in the data. Bickford and Daly (1996:2) mention that the term of syntactic categories is contract to grammatical category and grammatical class. In addition to that, they state that the terms of grammatical category and grammatical class are also used as synonym for part of speech.

According to Bickford and Daly statements, the writer uses the description of part of speech from Yule (2006:74-75). He describes eight kinds of part of speech in simple description, he divides as follow:

a. *Nouns,* which are the word, used referring people, objects, creatures, places, qualities, phenomena, and abstract ideas. They all refer to 'things'.
   For example: *school, earthquake, love*
b. *Articles,* which are used to form a noun phrase. Article classifies noun to give information of 'those' things. It can be indicated to refer the noun that is already mentioned or known.
   For example: *a, an, the*
c. *Adjectives,* which are the words to give some information. It typically gives some information to noun.
   For example: *happy, large, strange*
d. *Verbs,* which involves the action of the people or things in some events.
   For example: *run, talk, have*
e. *Adverbs,* which are the word used to give more information to actions, states, and events. Some adverbs also pair to modify adjective, to give some information about things.
   For example: *slowly, yesterday, very*
f. *Prepositions,* which are the word used with noun in phrase to indicate some information about time, location, and other connection. Prepositions involve actions and things.
   For example: *at, in, on*

g. *Pronouns*, which are the word to indicate the people or things that are already known.

   For example: *she, they, you*

h. *Conjunctions*, which are the word to refer connection and relationship between events.

   For example: *and, but, when*

2.2 Semantics: Semantic Features

In addition to analyse the structure and component order of the homonyms within the data, this research aims the meaning that is produced among the homonyms and the data. As Kreidler (2002:3) states that:

> *"Semantics is the systematic study of meaning, and linguistic semantics is the study of how languages organize and express meanings."*

According to Kreidler, semantics is the meaning methodical study. To emphasize it, he states that how meanings are organized and expressed by the language is the discipline of linguistic semantics. In addition to that, Griffiths (2006:1) states that semantics is the tool to learn the meaning, to add knowledge in building and producing vocabulary as a pattern of elaborate meanings. Palmer (1976:5) assumes that linguistics level or component such as phonetics and grammar are equal to semantics. Additionally, Saeed (1997:3) defines semantics as the meaning communication of language discipline.

Based on the way it is described, semantics can be determined as the study that analyzes the meaning through language communication. In addition, it leads

us to focus on what words mean conventionally. In this research, the discussion about the term of semantics is limited in semantics features.

To share the conceptual meaning of the homonyms, this research provides the semantics features between the homonyms and the data. Yule (2006:101) distinguishes semantic features to prevent the oddness of the sentence, semantic features include ‘animate’, ‘human’, ‘male’, ‘adult’. In addition, he uses the signs (+) and (-) to describe whether the word denotes to or does not denotes to. The words boy and man have the different semantic features. It can be determined by means applying the word to this table:

	Boy	Man
Animate	+	+
Human	+	+
Male	-	-
Adult	-	+

Table 2.1 Semantic features

The table shows the differentiation of semantic feature between boy and man. Man denotes to all semantic features, but boy does not denote to ‘adult’ because boy indicates a male child or youth. To help the reader understanding the meaning relations, this term can be used to support in defining meaning relations and to share the basic information of each word. So that makes the reader easier to understand the meaning relations beside from the conceptual/real meanings.

2.3 Homonyms

This research uses the theory of homonyms from Kreidler (2002:52), which defines the term of homonyms as a word with the same pronunciation and spelling. Still, the meanings of homonyms are quite separating. The examples of homonyms are:

a. Bank ‘a financial institution’, and
b. Bank ‘the edge of a stream’.

Yule (2006:107) states that the same pronunciation and spelling on homonyms are just accidentally happening.

In addition, Palmer (1976:68) defines some difficulties on defining the same distinction in writing or speaking. It happens when there is word that only has the same pronunciation or word that only has the same spelling. To treat the difficulties, then the term of homographs and homophones are formed.

2.3.1 Homographs

First term that Palmer mentions to treat the difficulties is homographs. Kreidler (2002:52) mentions the term of homographs as two words that have the same spelling but the pronunciations are different. The examples of this term are:

a. ‘Bow’ that rhymes with ‘go’ and referring to an instrument for shooting arrows, and
b. ‘Bow’ that rhymes with ‘cow’ and indicating a bending of the body as a form of respectful greeting.

2.3.2 Homophones

Second term that Palmer mentions to treat the difficulties is homophones. Kreidler (2002:52) mentions the term of homophones as two or more words that have the same pronunciations but the spelling are different. The examples of this term are:

a. Steak and

b. Stake

Both share the same pronunciation, which is /steɪk/.

From those three terms explanations, the writer tries to apply the definitions of homonyms, homographs, and homophones using a table.

Homonyms	**Identical**	**Different**
Homophones	Pronunciation	Spelling
Homographs	Spelling	Pronunciation

Table 2.2 Homonyms

In addition, Palmer (1976:68) states that there are some homonyms and homophones that are antonyms very nearly, for example:

a. Cleave ‘part asunder’, and

b. Cleave ‘unite’

c. Raise, and

d. Raze

So it can be determined that some of homonyms (a-b) and homophones (c-d) have related meanings, even that are the opposite meaning.

2.4 Lexical Relations

The lexical relations among homonyms and the data in this research lead to Yule (2006:104) statement that word function is not only containing and fulfilling the roles; every single word has relationship with other words. In addition to that, Kreidler (2002:86) mentions that we need to recognize some semantic relationship that two or more lexemes may have to know the meanings. In this research, the applied lexical relations are meronyms, hyponyms, synonyms, and antonyms. They are described as follow:

2.4.1 Meronyms

First type of lexical relations that are discussed in this research is meronyms. Saeed (1997:70) states that meronyms is a term of the part of the whole thing. Meronyms lead to know the part of something, for example:

a. Nose as a meronym of face;
b. Others are usual but not obligatory, like collar as a meronym of shirt;
c. Still others are optional like cellar for house.

In this research, the writer applies these three types of meronyms when the data indicates the meaning relations of meronyms. The meronyms is signed by the '*less than*' sign (<) (Murphy, 2003:9-10) to indicate that meronyms include in something. Since meronyms is a part of a whole thing, it means that nose is less than face, because nose is the part of face.

2.4.2 Hyponyms

Second type of lexical relations that are discussed in this research is hyponyms. Saeed (1997: 68) states that hyponyms is the term of being included within a group or structure. While meronyms lead to know the part of something, hyponyms lead to know the specific part of the general part, for example:

a. There are tulips in the vase.
b. There are flowers in the vase.

To make it specific, (a) mentions that there are tulips in the vase, so it makes the reader knows that there no other kinds of flower except tulips in the vase. Meanwhile, (b) mentions it generally using flowers, which indicates that there may be more than one kind of flowers in the vase.

Additionally, Murphy (2003:9-10) mentions that hyponyms is also signed by '*less than*' sign (<), to indicate that hyponyms is hierarchical and asymmetrical. According to the example of hyponyms, tulips that are specific part of flowers as a general part, it can be determined that tulips are the hyponyms of flower.

2.4.3 Synonyms

Third type of lexical relations that are discussed in this research is synonyms. Palmer (1976:59) states that synonyms indicate the similarity in words meanings. In addition to that, Kreidler (2002:96) mentions synonyms as two expressions with the same reference that is used in predications when the predications have the same significance. The example of synonyms is as follow:

a. Jack is a seaman.

b. Jack is a sailor.

Based on the example, the predication has the value, which implies a job. The (a, and b) indicate the same value of job that is a job in sea. Since they have the same predication in job, and the reference of the job is in the sea. Seaman and sailor indicate synonyms. Additionally, Murphy (2003:9) is signed synonyms using the "*equals*" sign (=) to show the same reference in predication.

2.4.4 Antonyms

Fourth type of lexical relations that are discussed in this research is antonyms. The term of antonyms is the term of opposite meaning, so that why Palmer (1976:78) mentions that "*opposite words are antonyms*". The examples of antonyms term are:

a. The road is wide here.

b. The road is narrow here.

The example shows the same subject, but the predications of each sentence are different because the words wide and narrow have opposite meanings. Additionally, Murphy (2003:9) is signed antonyms using "*slash*" (/) between members of antonym or contrast, the sign sets signify the semantic incompatibility of the contrasting words. According to the example, wide is the antonym of narrow.

In addition to that, Kreidler (2002:101) mentions about the different kinds of antonyms, which are binary and non-binary antonyms. Binary antonyms are the

antonyms with no middle ground between the members of antonyms, for example on/off, sleep/awake, and dead/alive. The meanings of those words are clearly opposite. Meanwhile, non-binary antonyms are antonyms with middle ground. The meanings of non-binary antonyms are opposite, but there is a middle meaning between them. For example old/young, they are antonyms because their meanings are opposite. However, in the middle between young and old has another meaning, which is adult.

Based on Kreidler statement about kind of antonyms, the writer tries to figure the binary and non-binary antonyms as follow:

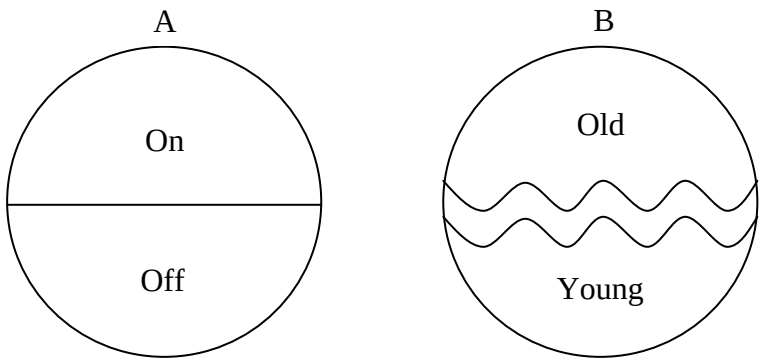


Figure 2.1 Binary and non-binary antonyms

On figure (a), there is no space or middle ground between on and off, it means on and off is binary antonyms, because they are opposite clearly. Meanwhile, figure (b) shows a space between young and old, the space is the middle ground of old and young. The mass between young and old is adult. So, even though the meanings of old and young are opposite, they are included to non-binary antonyms.

2.5 Associative Meanings

In order to find associative meanings, this research leads to Mwihaki statement (2004:131), she defines associative meanings as the connected meaning that relates to the real-world experience rather than linguistic context. Mwihaki focuses on 4 aspects of associative meanings, which the writer takes as a theory to examine the homonyms in the riddles. The aspects are described as follow:

2.5.1 Connotative Meaning

First type of associative meanings that are discussed in this research is connotative. Mwihaki defines connotation as the real-world value that is expressed by the speaker association. Connotation refers purely to what conceptual meanings are (2004:131). For example:

a. Childish that implies that someone is immature.
b. Youthful that infers that someone is lively and energetic.

There are some factors in considering the connotation, such as culture, historical period, social class, and the general real-life experience of the speaker. (Mwihaki, 2004:133).

2.5.2 Social Meaning

Second type of associative meanings that are discussed in this research is social. Mwihaki defines social meaning as the use of language in regulating social relations and sustaining social roles (2004:133). In social or phatic communication, social meaning is alternatively described to emphasize the

communication in social life. The example of social meaning is when a person who enjoyed going sledding as a child would associate these personal memories with the word winter, and the word would take on aspects of these positive emotions.

The social meaning also refers to the conceptual meaning. Social meaning is effective to open relations in the social purpose. However, social meaning leads to have positive effect in utterance. (Mwihaki, 2004:134).

2.5.3 Affective Meaning

Third type of associative meanings that are discussed in this research is affective. As a comparable of social meaning that refers to conceptual meaning, affective meaning indirectly leads to conceptual perception. It depends on what speaker's personal attitude and speaker's intention or feeling to the listener or target of the utterance. (Mwihaki, 2004:134). Contradictory from social meaning, the example of affective meanings is when a child picked on and was the target of snowballs during the winter, and then the word would mean something different as the word would take on aspects of these negative emotions.

Since the affective meaning indirectly leads to conceptual perception. It leads us to have negative effect in utterance. Based on speaker's personal attitude and intention or feeling, the listener is the target of the speaker. Affective meaning normally expresses as insult, flattery, hyperbole or sarcasm (Mwihaki, 2004:134).

2.5.4 Collocative Meaning

Fourth type of associative meanings that are discussed in this research is collocative. Mwihaki (2004:135) defines collocation as the united of meaning expression, collocative meaning figures out as unitary wholes of expressions. There are several examples of collocative meaning as follow:

a. Heavy news ‘a piece of sad news’
b. Fast colour ‘the colour that does not fade’

According to the examples, the expression heavy figures out as a piece of sad, and the expression fast figures out as not fade. Later the expressions are decoded as unitary wholes of expression, it produce the new idea of expression.