CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1   Theory of Semantics

Language is used to communicate by people in the world so that the hearer understands what the speaker means. The purpose of language is the hearer understand the meaning of the speaker. The meaning of sentence can be learned by linguistics, because it the theory used to understand how language works.

Linguistic deals with the meaning expressed by modulations of speaker's voice and processes by which hearers and readers relate new information to the information they already have. (charles, 1998: 3). There are two theories explaining about meaning. They are pragmatics and semantics.

Semantic is the systematic of meaning, and linguistic semantic is the study of how languages organize and express meanings. (Charles W, 1998: 3). Semantic is concerned with how the system language works. Sometimes in communication the hearer feels difficult to understand the meaning of the speaker.

Semantics is the study of meaning. It is more usual within linguistics to interpret the term narrowly, concern on the study of the aspects of meaning which are encoded in linguistic expressions and are independent of their use on particular speech community. In other words,

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Semantics is the study of meaning abstracted away from those aspects that are derived from the intensions of speakers, their psychological states and those the socio-cultural aspects of the context in which their utterances are made.

Yule (1996: 114) states that semantics is the study of the meaning of words, phrases, and sentences. In semantics analysis, there is always an attempt to focus on what the words conventionally mean on a particular occasion.

Charles (1998: 13) states that speakers of a language have an implicit knowledge about what is meaningful in their language, and it is easy to show this. In an account of semantics, there are ten aspects of any speakers semantic knowledge. They are ;

1. Anomalous or anomaly

   It is a speaker who knows, in a general way, whether something is or is not meaningful in their language. The example : *The picture laughed*

   Speaker of English can tell the meaning in English.

2. Paraphrases

   It is a speaker of language generally who agrees as to when two sentences have essentially the same meaning and when they do not.

   The example: *Dony is more fat than Dika.*

   Dika is more thin than Dony

   Sentences that make equivalent statements about the same entities.

3. Synonymy

   It is speakers who generally agree when two words have essentially the same meaning-in a given context.

   The example: *She <u>describes</u> the thesis clearly*

   This novel <u>portrays</u> angry's author.

   The meaning of describes and portrays is same. Words that have the same sense in a given context.

4. Contradictory

   It is speakers recognized when the meaning of one sentence contradicts another sentence.

   The example: *Ronny is a doctor*

   Ronny is poorman

   Sentences about the same person, but two of them are related in such a way that is one is true the other must be false.

5. Antonymy

   It is speakers generally agree when two words have opposite meanings in a given context.

   The example: *Benny tries to make Andy sad to be happy*

   Two words that make opposite statements about the same subject.

6. Semantic feature

   It is synonyms and antonyms have to have some common element of meaning in order to be, respectively, the same or different.

   The example: *Street lane road path house avenue*

The common element of meaning, shared by all but one word in street, lane, and road.

7.   Ambiguous

It is some sentences have double meaning; they can be interpreted in two ways.

The example: *Father or mother cook cake with Soraya.*

A meaning of sentence has double. First meaning is father with soraya cook cake. Second meaning is mother with Soraya cook cake.

8.   Adjacency pair

It is speakers know how language is used when people interact.

The example: *When did you last see my sister?*

Ten minutes ago. Last Tuesday. Very nice. Around noon. I think it was on the first of August.

If one person asks a question or makes a remark, there are various possible answers to the question or replies one might make to the remark.

9.   Entailment

It is speakers are aware that two statements may be related in such a way that if one is true, the other must true

The example;   *There are tulips in the garden*

There are flowers in the garden

Assuming that tulips and flowers are about the same garden. The truth of tulips entails the truth of flowers.

10. Presuppose

It is speaker who knows that the message conveyed in one sentence may presuppose other pieces of knowledge.

The example:*a. Bonny usually goes to school by bus*

b. Boony is a student

c. Bonny knows how to go to school.

If statement (a) is accepted as true, (b) and (c) must also be accepted as true.

2.2 Ambiguity

2.2.1 Theory of Ambiguity

It may seem as though little need to be said about ambiguity in that it is a clear cut-phenomenon which both words and sentences can have more than one meaning (Kempson, 1977:123).

Moreover, Cann (1993:8) states that a sentence is said to be ambiguous whenever it can be associated with two or more different meanings.

Both Cann and Kempson agree that ambiguous words, phrases or sentences have more than one interpretation. To figure out the exact meaning or the message conveyed in the ambiguous words or sentences, it demands the specific context. The first sort of ambiguity occurs where an expression is associated with two or

more unrelated meaning.

Moreover the English word *"ambiguous"* derives most immediately from the french *ambiguitê,* which comes from the Latin word *ambiguus*. This word combined the stems *ambi-* (on both side) and *agere* (travel or drive) which taken together mean to wander about or to drive on both sides. (David, 1989:205).

Ambiguity needs to be thought deeply, to be exposed and eliminated. It brings specific communicational effect. The sentence may be structural in a case of word order but it may lead the readers to have more than one interpretation.

A path or journey might involve wandering or "driving on both sides" for a variety of reasons (David, 1989:206):

1. Although the alternative paths may be clear, one may lack directions and therefore be uncertain about which path to choose.

2. The directions refer to the general heading, but one needs information about specific landmarks.

3. The directions refers to specific landmarks, but fail to convey a sense of the general direction.

4. The director is deliberately misleading the traveler "down a garden path". The direction make no sense, and the traveler has to backtrack.

5. The path itself becomes obscure or indistinct, and one does not

know where to go.

6. The major routes are clear, but one needs information about the minor pathways or side streets.

7. The path itself is actually a trap or maze. There's no way out. The traveler has been set up, and winds up going in circles.

8. The director goofed. The directions explicity convey something other than what they were intended to

9. The directions are not sufficient or coherent. The traveler is forced to make deductions or other inferences to avoid getting lost.

10. The directions are phrased criptically like some treasure map or sherlockian puzzle. The traveler has to figure out where to go.

Meaning is universally an acknowledged fact that languages can be used to make descriptive statements which are true or false. This fact gives particular prominence in the truth-conditional theory of semantics. Meanwhile, non-descriptive meaning is more heterogeneous. It includes expressive meaning (kind of meaning by virtue of which speakers express, rather than describe, their beliefs, attitudes and feelings).

Besides, Yule (1996: 114) differentiates meaning into two: conceptual and associative meaning. Conceptual meaning covers those basics, essential components of meaning which are conveyed by literal use of a word. Associative meaning deals with

the sense of an expression of a word through feeling.

People may interpret the ambiguous words, phrases or sentences in many ways. The hearer may interpret the ambiguous in many understanding. Carrying this particular possibility over is an analogy to meanings and ambiguty.

According to Robert about ambiguity, there is a variety of distinctly different ways in which linguistic meaning might involve ambiguity. These are shown below. Obviously it set things up here-each of the various distinctions about meaning that have been proposed by linguists, psichologists, and others can be identified as one of the types of wandering listed previously. (Robert, 1989:207).

1. **Polysemous meaning**

    A word has multiple and distinct meaning. Each of the meaning is clear, but one does not know which one to use or apply in a given situation.

    For example, when taken out of context,

    "He went towards the bank"

    It could be referring to a river bank or to a savings bank.

2. **Sense versus reference**

    It is essence (what the word means) may differ from the ostension (what the "word points" to or "stands for"). For example, the concept of love has a meaning that goes beyond

specific instances of loving behaviour. In sentece ;

"He loves me".

3. **Core versus context**

It is the meaning of statement as such differs from the meaning when taken in its full context. Thus, a statement like

"*He was voracious*"

It means one thing in the context of human appepite, but quite another in the context of shark behaviour. If defined in a vacuum, the word *book* might mean one thing, but when a tome is used as a doorstop, *book* would mean something slightly different.

4. **Grammatical versus ungrammatical meaning**

It is a strings of words can be syntactically well form and comprehensible, or it may be ill formed and more or less comprehensible ("anomalous").

Examples would be strings such as

"The odorless child inspired a chocolate audience" and

"Sensible ideas distruct politicians".

5. **Conceptual versus associate meaning**

It is conceptual meaning is inherently unclear or undistinct. It relies on mental nebulosities such as prototypes, schemata, abstract, concepts, and perceptual sets. It exists in mind. On the other hand, associative meaning is an operationally defined concept. It is dependent on the empirical demonstration of paticular semantic relation and associations to particular words. It exists primarily on paper as in word frequency and associative norms.

6. **Primary versus secondary meaning**

It is the dominant or most frequent meaning differs from alternative less dominant less frequent meaning. Some heterophones make good examples. When shown the word *wind* out of context, most people might be inclined to assume that one means wind as in *"windy day"* rather than the less frequent meaning of wind as in "wind the clock".

7. **Closed versus open meaning**

It is the meaning of message is closed if comprehension reaches an immediate and satisfactory conclusion. Open meaning is meaning without an obvious resolution or completion.

Example of this is:

"The horse raced past the barn fell"

The reader reads this sentence think of the predicate is raced, after reading all the reader know that the predicate is fell.

8. **Intended versus understood meaning**

It is the meaning intended by a speaker or writer is not the meaning that is understood by the listener or reader. An instance of this occurs every time a program crasher and the programmer swears at the computer:

The example,

Don't do what I say, do what i mean

9. **Explicit versus Implicite meaning**

It is the meaning as explicitly stated differs from the meaning as can be elaborated, on the basis of knowledge other than that contained in the explicite statement. A good example is a favorite of psycholinguitic: Common indirect requests such as :

"*Can you tell me the time"* and

"Can you pass the salt?"

It can be answered by a simple "yes", but the answered would no doubt be considered rude.

10. **Literal versus figurative meaning**

It is the actual meaning is literal, like the entry in dictionary. The literal meanings of words is what they point to or stand for. Figurative meaning involves illogical comparisons of unlike things. The sentence;

"He drove through a red light". It does not mean what it says literally.

"He is a wolf" is literal in reference to an adventuresome human male.

Other types of ambiguity in Ullmann (1972, in Pateda, 2001: 202) divides ambiguity into three: phonological ambiguity, lexical ambiguity, and grammatical ambiguity.

1. **Phonological Ambiguity**

   Ambiguity in the level of phonology arises from the sound of language uttered. Sometimes people speak too fast and make other people feel doubt about the meaning or message of the utterance so that people may interpret it in many ways.

   Example:

   I scream (I skri:m) or *Ice cream* (ais kri:m).

   When the hearers hear the utterance above, they may have the different interpretation whether *'I scream'* refers to the action 'scream' or *'ice cream'* refers to the kinds of drink.

2. **Lexical Ambiguity**

Lexical ambiguity arises when a single word has more than one meaning. This kind of ambiguity may arise in the written form, such as in the articles, in the news titles, and other form of written texts.

Example:

*Experts warn the current global financial turmoil may take a bigger **toll** on emerging Asia.*

The word *'toll'* in the sentence above may be interpreted into different ways since the word 'toll' has many meanings.

Tool (n) has any meaning: 1. Payment for road, bridge etc.

2. Lost or suffered

Based on the definitions of the word *'toll'* above, the readers may interpret the sentence into:

a. First interpretation

Experts warn the current global financial turmoil may need or require a bigger payment on emerging Asia.

b. Second interpretation

Experts warn the current global financial turmoil may cause a bigger lost on emerging Asia.

3. **Grammatical Ambiguity**

In the level of grammar occurs when phrase, clause or sentence create ambiguity because their structure may be interpreted more than one way. Equal with lexical ambiguity, it may also arise in the written text such as articles, news titles and other written text.

Example:

Indonesian women and children *are trafficked overseas for sexual and labor exploitation.*

The sentence above may be interpreted into different ways. The readers may be confused in modifying the word *'Indonesian',* whether it modifies the word *'women'* only or *'children'* also. However, the readers may interpret the sentence into:

1. First interpretation:

    Women from Indonesia and children are trafficked overseas for sexual and labor exploitation

2. Second interpretation:

    Indonesian women and Indonesian children are trafficked overseas for sexual and labor exploitation

2.2.2 Ambiguity Interpretations

People may interpret the ambiguous words, phrases or sentences in many ways, and some of them are:

1. Through the ascription of multiple meanings to a single word. It arises in the case of homonym and polysemy.

2. Through the assignment of different syntactic structures to a sentence (in structural or grammatical ambiguity which depends on syntactic structure of a sentence).

3. Through the use of certain expression that may have different semantic scopes.

2.3   Meaning

2.3.1 The Concept of Meaning

The term meaning is, of course, much more familiar to us all. However, there is the different meaning between the noun "meaning" and the verb "to mean". Lyons (1995: 5) states that the noun "meaning" and the verb "to mean" have many meanings. The main point that he points out is not so much that there are many meanings are interconnected and shade into one another in various ways. Moreover, Lyons (1981: 136) gives the identification of meaning as follows:

According to what has long been the most widely accepted theory of Semantic, meanings are ideas or concepts, which can be transferred from the mind of the speaker to the mind of the hearer by embodying them, as it were, in the forms of one language or another (Lyons, 1981: 136).

Lyon's statement is in line with Strawson (1971: 90) who gives statement that it is impossible to give an adequate account of the concept of meaning without reference to the possession by the speakers of audience- directed intentions of a certain complex kind. Strawson brings the theory of communication-intention to explain the concept of meaning. Both Lyons and Strawson agree that the meaning in a communication involves (the mind of) speakers and (the mind of) hearers in a certain context in the form of one language or another.

Still, the concept of meaning needs a certain context referring to the intention of the speaker. Kempson (1977: 12) states that there are at least three possible starting points to give an explanation of meaning which are the signification of words, the interpretation of sentences, or what a speaker is intending to convey in acts of communication.

In *Language*, Bloomfield (1961: 139) states that the meaning of a linguistic form has been defined as the situation in which the speaker utters it and the response which is called forth in the hearer. In this case, there are three factors of meaning:

speaker's situation, speech, and hearer's response. The speaker's situation and the hearer's response are closely co-ordinated, thanks to the circumstance that everyone of us learns to act indifferently as the speaker or as the hearer. Next, he explains that defining the meaning of a speech-form accurately has to do with some matters that are studied in the Scientifics' knowledge.

2.3.2 Kinds of Meaning

Leech (1974: 10-24) divides meaning into seven types, they are:

1. Conceptual Meaning

    Sometimes, it is called as denotative or cognitive meaning. It is widely assumed to be central factor in linguistic communication and it can be shown to be integral to the essential functions of language in a way that other types of meaning are not (which is not to say that conceptual meaning is always the most important element of an act of linguistic communication) (p.10)

2. Connotative Meaning

    Connotative meaning is the communicative value of an expression by virtue of what it *refers* to, over and above its purely conceptual content. To a large extent, the notion of 'reference' overlaps with conceptual meaning. (p.14)

3. Stylistic and Affective Meaning

   Stylistic meaning is the meaning which a piece of language conveys about the social circumstances of its use. The stylistic meaning of a text is decoded through the recognition of different dimensions and levels of usage within the same language. (p. 15).

   Meanwhile, affective meaning is often explicitly conveyed through the conceptual or connotative content of the words used. It is largely a parasitic category in the sense that to express our emotions we rely upon the mediation of other categories of meaning (conceptual, connotative or stylistic meaning). (p. 18).

4. Reflective and Collocative Meaning

   Reflective meaning is the meaning which arises in cases of multiple conceptual meaning, when one sense of a word-forms part of our response to another sense. (p. 19).

   On the other hand, collocative meaning consists of the associations a word acquires on account of the meanings of words which tend to occur in its environment. (p. 20).

5. Associative Meaning

   Associative meaning is the affiliation of the reflective meaning, collocative meaning, stylistic and affective meaning. It

consists of many factors which can be studied by using statistic approach. (p. 20-21).

6. Thematic Meaning

Thematic meaning relates to the way of the speaker or the writer organizes the message, in terms of ordering, focus, and emphasis. It is often felt, for example, that an active sentence has different meaning from its passive equivalent but in conceptual content they may seem to be the same. (p.22).

7. Intended Meaning and Interpreted Meaning.

Intended meaning refers to the mind of speaker or writer when he/she is framing his/her message while interpreted meaning refers to the mind of the reader or hearer when he/she receives the message. (p. 24).

2.4 Ways to Avoid Ambiguity

Pateda (2001), in *Semantik Leksikal* reveals the ways to avoid ambiguity which are:

1. In the case of phonological ambiguity, people may avoid ambiguity by asking the speaker to repeat his/her utterance.

2. By considering the context of situation or the supra-segmental elements.

People may avoid ambiguity, whether lexical ambiguity or grammatical ambiguity, even phonological ambiguity by considering the context of situation. In listening unclear spoken utterance or reading unclear sentences, people occasionally have some difficulties to understand the meaning. They may ensure the meaning of words, phrases and sentences in a certain context of situation.

3. By replacing technique

The ambiguous word may be overcome by replacing its synonym or another word which is closely related without changing the massage of the sentence. For example is in distinguishing the word *view* from the meaning of natural scenery or personal opinion (point of view). It may be replaced by the word *scenery* if the writer intends to talk about natural scenery.

4. By expansion technique

Expansion technique is the other techniques to avoid ambiguity. The ambiguous word may be described or explained more by using the additional information about the ambiguous word. For example, when someone says "*Get out!"* that can be ambiguous because of the less information. People who hear these utterance may be confused because there is no explanation about the place to go, the people should go, the time to go and the purpose of their going. This phenomenon can be avoided by expanding and add the information

such as "*Get out from my house right now!*"

5. By insertion technique

Insertion technique can be used as the way to avoid ambiguity. By inserting some morphemes or words to the ambiguous words, phrases or sentences, the meaning or the message of the utterance is intentionally conveyed. For example, in the word *toll,* It can be inserted by the word *a payment for a road, bridge or etc.* The brackets, apostrophe or comma can be used as a symbol to avoid ambiguity

By using the techniques which are explained above, the writer can give clear information to the readers so that they will not be confused and have wrong interpretation. There is also no misunderstanding between the writer and the readers.

2.5 Previous Studies

As a comparison and an insigh in previous studies, the researcher took three previous studies. First, from Wening Bayu Irawan (2009). A student of English Department of Faculty of Letters and Fine Arts Sebelas Maret University. Second, from

For the review of related study, the researcher chooses the study by Wening bayu irawan (2009). A student of English Department of Faculty of Letters and Fine Arts Sebelas Maret University entitled "*An Analysis of*

Ambiguity In The Article of The Jakarta Post". Based on the phenomenon and explanation in his thesis, the writer is interested to conduct the research related to ambiguity. This research is expected to identify the kinds of ambiguity found in the articles of *The Jakarta Post.* Moreover, this research tries to figure out the causal factors of the ambiguity in the articles of *The Jakarta Post*.

Wening took the theory from Ullman that ambiguity divided into three, they are phonological ambiguity, lexical ambiguity, and grammatical ambiguity. His research found two kinds of ambiguity in the article that he analysis.

This research uses Charless theory which is compared with Ullman theory. Types of Charless theory is more detail than Ullman theory, although both of them have same perception about substance ambiguty. It makes the reader more easy to understand types of ambiguty based on analogy.