1.7 Theory of Semantics

Katz (1972:1) says, “Semantics is the study of the linguistic meaning”. It is concerned with what sentences and other linguistics objects express, not with the arrangement of their syntactic parts or with their pronunciation.

Kreidler (1983:3) says, “Semantics is the systematic study of meaning, and linguistic semantics is the study of how language organizes and express meanings”.

Leech (1981:9) says, “Semantics is the study of meaning is central to the study of communication, and as communication becomes more and more crucial factor in social organization, to need to understand it becomes more and more pressing. Semantics is also at the centre of the study of human mind-thought process, cognition, and conceptualization. All these are intricately bound up which we classify and convey our experience of the world through language”.

Lyons (1977:1-2) states that “certain of meaning (or senses) can be distinguished by technique of substituting other words in the same context and enquiring whether sentences are equivalent”. For example, intend could be substituted for mean in I did not mean to hurt you, without changing the total meaning of the sentence. Theses are various meaning of meaning which can be used in different ways, such as “What is meaning (significance) of ‘sesquipedalian’? “They are so mean (cruel) to me”, etc.
Palmer (1976:1), states that “Semantics is technical term used to refer to the study of meaning”. However, this definition has led to question about the nature of meaning itself and about the way in which it should be described. Should semantics study all types of meaning? Red, for example, may mean several things. If we consult the dictionary, we may find that one of its meanings is ‘of a spectral hue beyond orange in the spectrum’. In the context of traffic light, red means ‘stop’, ‘do not go through’, while in some other different contexts it may mean ‘danger’, or even ‘bravery’. Are all these types of meaning treated under semantics? If we want to make it clear, it is, therefore, necessary to redefine semantics into a more specific definition, the one that can limit semantics into the study of more specific type of meaning only. Consequently, we would say that semantics is the study of meaning of words, phrases, or sentences in the language, or simply, the study of linguistic meaning.

From those definitions above, semantics can be defined as a branch of linguistics dealing with meaning of words.

1.8 Goals of Semantics Theory

Semantics theory has two goals, they are:

1. A semantics theory should attribute to each expression in the language the semantics properties and relations it has and it should define those properties and relations. Thus, if an expression is meaningful, the semantics theory should say so, if the expression has a specific sense of meaning, the semantics theory should specify them. If the expression is ambiguous, the semantics theory should record that fact, and so on.
Moreover, if two expressions are synonymous; or are entails the other, the semantics theory should make those semantics relations.

2. A semantics theory should have at least two kinds of constraints:
   
a. A semantics theory of a natural language should be finite; people are capable of storing only a finite amount of information but they nevertheless learn the semantics of natural languages.

   b. A semantics theory of a natural language should reflect the fact, except for idioms, expressions are compositional. This means that the meaning of syntactically complex expression is determined by the meaning of its constituents and their grammatical relations. An expression such as “He kicked the ball” is compositional and it is summed up from the meanings of he + kicked + the + ball, while is very much different from “He kicked the bucket” that is not compositional and as an idiom meaning “He passed away”.

1.9 Types of Meaning

Leech (1981:19) has proposed seven types of meaning that can be summarized as follows:

1. Conceptual meaning, i.e. logical, cognitive, or denotative content of the word. It describes the word by making its own characteristics.

   For examples:

   a. Woman = (+HUMAN), (-MALE), (+ADULT)

   b. Man = (+HUMAN), (+MALE), (+ADULT)

   c. Boy = (+HUMAN), (+MALE), (-ADULT)
The word **woman** has the denotative, cognitive, or logical content as human, it is not male and it is not adult. The word **man** is human, male and adult. And the word **boy** is human, male, and not adult.

2. Connotative meaning, i.e. what is communicated by virtue of what languages refer to. It is based on the feeling and ideas that arisen in the minds of speakers and hearers.

   For examples:
   
   a. Woman has the connotation ‘weak’
   b. Rose has the connotation ‘a beautiful girl’

3. Social meaning, i.e. what is communicated of the social circumstances of language use. Certain words have similar meaning but the use of the words is different according to the social life of the people.

   For examples:
   
   a. Abode : is used in poetic language
   b. Residence : is used in formal circumstances
   c. Home : is used in general circumstances
   d. Domicile : is used for very formal and official circumstances.

4. Affective meaning, i.e. what is communicated of the feelings and attitudes of the speaker or writer. This is used for a polite way of speaking. It shows the attitude of the speaker or the writer to the hearer or reader.

   For examples:
   
   a. Aha! Yippee (Friendly expression)
   b. Honey, good! (Happy expression)
c. How soon you come here, its nine now. Our promises is at eight (refers to “why do you come late?”

5. Reflected meaning, i.e. what is communicated through association with another sense of the same expression. It caused by multiple conceptual meaning, when one sense of a word forms part of our response to another sense. A sense of a word makes our response to another sense.

For example:
- Intercourse, ejaculation, and erection

These words make another sense in ‘innocent’ sense because it can conjure up their sexual associations.

6. Collocative meaning, i.e. what is communicated through association with words which tend to occur in the environment of another word. It is the words which are considered to have individual lexical items or share common group in meaning but may be distinguished in their occurrence.

For examples:

The words pretty and handsome share common group in the meaning good looking, but they can be distinguished by the range of nouns with which are they likely to co-occur or collocate followed as listed below:
7. Thematic meaning, i.e. what is communicated by the way in which the message is organized in terms of order, focus and emphasis. For example, it is often felt that an active sentence has a different meaning from its passive equivalent. Although in conceptual content they seem to be the same.

For examples:

1. Rini gives me a present
2. A present is given to me by Rini
3. I am given a present by Rini

The first sentence is an active sentence and it has a different meaning from its passive equivalent (the second and third sentences), although in conceptual content they seem to be the same.

1. Mrs. Angelina Clarkson donated the first prize
2. The first prize was donated by Mrs. Angelina Clarkson

The first sentence is often felt that an active sentence has a different meaning from its passive (the second sentence) although in conceptual content they seem to be the same.

1.10 Lexical Relations

Lyons (1977:69) says that “semantics relation is also called sense or meaning or lexical relation”. It is the relationships of meaning or sense that may be set up between individual and groups of lexical items. For instance, the relationship between the words boy and girl is that their meaning or sense are opposite.
2.4.6 Hyponyms

Siregar (1981:20) states that “hyponymy is the relationship between hyponyms”. The term hyponym is derived from Greek’s words “onyma” means ‘name’ and “hypo” means ‘inclusion’. So, hyponym is the words include the meaning of the other word. In other words, hyponym is the inclusion of one word into another word or the inclusion of more specific term in a more general term.

For examples:

The words goose, lion and fish and animal is related in such a way that goose, lion and fish and other types of animal. Usually, the specific term goose, lion and fish are called hyponyms, and the general term animal is called a super-ordinate. A super-ordinate term can have many hyponyms.

The word bus is a hyponym of vehicle. Further more, the words car, and lorry are co-hyponyms of vehicle, since each is a hyponym of the same lexeme, and the word vehicle is super-ordinate of bus, car, and lorry. It means that all of them are included in vehicle.
2.4.7 Meronyms

Bolinger (1968:47) states that:

“Meronymy, derived from the root mer- meaning ‘part’ is a relation in semantics that express the part-whole relation that lexical items may have. In this relation, the part is known as the meronym and the whole is called the holonym. Meronymy is greatly influenced by issues of normality and prototypically. Language users tend to have a sense of prototypical meronymic relations – certain part-whole relations seem to be more normal or salient to us than others”.

Siregar (1981:20) states that “meronymy is the part-whole relationships between lexical items”.

For examples:

```
                     Face
                    /   \
                 Forehead    Cheek    Nose
                                   /  \
                              Forefinger    Thumb    Finger
```

2.4.8 Homonyms

Palmer (1976:48) states that “homonyms are different words which are pronounced the same, but have different meanings”. Traditionally, homonyms are said to be two or more different words (lexeme) with the same form, and sometimes sound as another but different in meaning.

Homonyms are words which are identical in form but have more than one meaning, provide a good example of the opportunities for both misunderstanding and enrichment of meaning which language continually presents, and their derivations often provide interesting insights into the way in which language develops.

For example:

1. She can not bear children.

The word *bear* as in the sentence may be understood to mean “She is unable to give birth to children” or “She can not tolerate children”. The word *bear* the sentence is a verb, but there is another meaning of *bear*, that is *the animal* which is a noun with very different semantics properties. So, in this case, the word *bear* is homonym.

Homonymy can be distinguished into two terms where the words were only ‘half’ identical in shape, they are:

a. **Homophony**

Homophony is two or more word which are identical in sound (the same pronunciation) to one another but different in meaning and spelling.
For examples:

1. Flour [flɔːr] means fine powder made from grain, used for making bread.
   Flower [flɔːr] means part of a plant that produces seeds, often brightly colored.

   Lead [liːd] means a dog’s lead.

b. **Homography**

   Homography is words which have some spelling but different in pronouncing and meaning.

For examples:

   Pupil [pjuːpl] means part of the eyes.

2. Live [liv] means to be alive or remain alive.
   Live [liv] means having life.

### 2.4.9 Synonyms

The term synonymy is derived from Ancient Greek “syn” which means together and “onyma” means name. So synonym means ‘name together’, i.e. two words or more (together) name the same object, action, event or quality.

Palmer (1976:44) states that “synonymy is the relationship between synonyms. Synonyms are words which sound different, but have the same or nearly the same meanings”.
For examples:

1. He is a foreman.

2. He is a supervisor.

In the sentences (1) and (2) the words foreman and supervisor are synonyms. The sentence used in predication with the same referring expression (he) and the predication have the same truth value (workman supervising others). The words foreman and supervisor are synonyms; sentences (1) and (2) are paraphrases to each other.

1. She has a slim body.

2. She has a slender body.

In the sentences (1) and (2) the words slim and slender are synonyms. The sentence used in predication with the same referring expression (she) and the predication have the same truth value (usually to describe a woman that has a slight and graceful body).

2.4.10 Antonyms

The word antonyms derived from the Greek ‘anti’ (opposite) and ‘onoma’ (name). Palmer (1976:59) states that “antonyms are words or expressions which are opposite in meaning or two words that express opposing concepts”. There are three kinds of antonyms:
a. **Complementary Pairs (Binary Taxonomy or Non-gradable)**

In this case, the items being complementary to each other. It means the items belong to the set of incompatible terms. The characteristics of this kind of antonyms is that negative of one word is synonymous with the other.

For example:

- Married >< Single

These two words can not be used to refer to the same individual at the same time. There is only one possibility of the fact, such as in the sentences John is married or John is single. If married is applicable, then single is not and vice versa. It means to say John is married is to say that He is not single. So, to say something is not the one is to say that is the other.

b. **Gradable Pairs (Binary Polar)**

Hurford and Heasley (1972:118) states that two words are gradable antonyms if they are not opposite end of a continuous scale of values (a scale which typically varies according to the context of use). It means that the pairs of words have a graduation of width, age, size, etc., all indicated by the adjectives. It also means the negative of one word is not synonymous with the other.

For example:

- New >< Old

If we say not old, it is not necessarily equal with new because when someone is not old, it does not mean he is new.
This kind of gradable pairs can be graded into comparative and superlative degree by adding the word more or most and inflection –er or –est to the word which are being compared.

For example:

- The word big can be graded into comparative degree bigger or superlative degree biggest, and the word small can be graded into comparative degree smaller or superlative degree smallest.

It is also true of gradable pairs that more of one is less of another such as more bigness is less smaller; wider is less narrow; and longer is less short.

Another characteristic of gradable pairs is that one is marked term and the other is unmarked them. Marked term means that the term of the pairs is not so used by the speaker. In the contrary, unmarked term means that the term of the pairs is commonly used by people in speaking of their language.

For example:

- Master (Unmarked) >> Mistress (Marked)

The marked term Mistress tells us about the meaning of the unmarked term Master. When we say about Master, we certainly relate it with male. So, if we want to describe female we must use the term that reflect a particular meaning like Mistress.

c. Relational Opposite (Converse)

Hurford and Heasley (1983:118) states that “two words are relational antonyms or converses of each other if one word describes the
relationship between two things or people and other word describes the same relationship, and the two things or people are mentioned in the opposite order”. It means we can find the relationship between the opposite pairs of words or two-way contrast that are interdependent (one number presupposes the other). The relations are characterized in terms of symmetry, transitivity, and reflexivity.

For examples:

- Parent >< Child
  
  It means that if A is B’s parents, B is A’s child.

- Talk >< Listen
  
  It means that if A talks to B, B listens to A.

Pairs of words ending in –er and –ee in English are usually relational opposites.

For example:

- If A is B’s employer, then B is A’s employee.

In grammar, active and passive forms are usually relational opposites.

For example:

- If A hits B, B is hit by A.

### 1.11 Meaning Properties

Lyons (1977:57) states that “semantics property is also called meaning property or meaning semantics or component. It is one of several features or component which together can be said to make up the meaning of a word or utterance”.

2.5.1 Meaningfulness

Siregar (1981:19) states that “meaningful means having meaning and significance. Any expression of language is meaningful. In order to be meaningful, an expression must obey the semantics rule of the language as obeying the syntactic rule alone cannot end up with a meaningful expression and must represent their meaning”. So, from this statement we can say that meaningful expression is the word or expression which has meaning and it is not strange or contradiction.

For examples:

1. Woman means ‘a fully grown human female’.
2. Daughter means ‘female offspring child’.

Those words above are meaningful because they reflect a meaning which is not strange. So we can conclude that an expression is meaningful if it specifies or represents its meaning and follow the conventional grammar of the language.

An expression is called meaningful if it has meaning and it is sensical, provided it is neither anomalous nor contradictory.

For example:

1. Siti sliced the bread.
2. Siti sliced the idea.

Both expressions (1) and (2) are grammatically right. Semantically, the expression (1) is right, the meaning of the word Siti, sliced, and the bread are fit to each other. But there is obviously something wrong semantically with expression (2). The meaning of slice includes the
fact that the objects follows it must be a concrete noun, while the word
idea is an abstract noun, so it is not a concrete noun. The expression
(2) is meaningless because it is anomalous.

Sentences types are part of meaningfulness. But before those topics are
explained, it is very important to explain the parts of one sentence (subject,
predicate, object and adverb). They are:

1. **Subject**

The subject is one of the two main constituents every sentence can be
divided into, according to a tradition that can be traced back to Aristotle.
The other constituent is the predicate. In English, subjects govern
agreement on the verb or auxiliary verb that carries the main tense of the
sentence, as exemplified by the difference in verb forms between *he eats*
and *they eat*.

The subject has the grammatical function in a sentence of relating its
constituent (a noun phrase) by means of the verb to any other elements
present in the sentence, i.e. objects, complements and adverbials.

The subject is a phrasal constituent, and should be distinguished from parts
of speech, which, roughly, classify words within constituent.

The subject is a noun phrase in the sentence and can be realized by the
following forms

- A determiner less noun phrase also called a bare noun phrase. In
  English, this is mostly limited to plural noun phrases and noun phrases
  headed by a mass noun. Example:

  *Builders are at work.*
• A noun phrase introduced by a determiner. This complex (determiner + noun phrase) is usually called a determiner phrase. Example:

   The large car stopped outside our house.

• A gerund. These can be shown to behave as noun phrases in many respects, for example, in being able to form determiner less phrases. For examples:

   1. Eating is a pleasure.
   2. His constant hammering was very annoying.

• An infinitive. These can be shown to behave in many respects as embedded clauses, for example in allowing question words like "who."

   For examples:

   1. To read is easier than to write.
   2. Whom to hire is a difficult question.

• A full clause, introduced by the complementizer that, itself containing a subject and a predicate.

   That he had travelled the world was known by everyone.

• A direct quotation:

   I love you is often heard these days.

• The subject can also be implied. In the following command, the subject is the implied "you" that is the recipient of the imperative mood. Example:

   Take out the trash!
• An **expletive**. These are words like *it or there* when they don't **refer** to anything or place. For example in the following sentence "it" doesn't refer to anything. Example:

*It rains.*

• A **cataphoric it**. This is the use of *it* when it is co-referent with a subordinate clause that comes after it. Example:

*It was known by everyone (that) he had travelled the world.*

**Definitions of Subject**

The concept of **subject** is sometimes mixed with that of **actor** or **agent** and other times with that of **carrier of attributes**. When this happens, it is defined as the **argument** that generally refers to the origin of the action or the undergoer of the state shown by the predicate. This definition takes the **representation** of the sentence into account, but it is problematic for several reasons. While interpreting the **subject** as the **actor** or **agent** of the action, two rather different concepts are overlayed. For instance, in the **passive voice** the subject is the **goal, middle** or **target** of the action; for examples:

1. *John was arrested by the police.*
2. *The police arrested John.*

In the first sentence (which is in the passive voice), the **subject** is *John*, while in the second sentence (active voice) it is *the police.*

But when it comes to the representation the action, the **actor** in both sentences is *the police* and the **goal** of the action is *John.*
Similarly, some verbs can be used both transitively and intransitively. An example of these is the English verb *break*, for examples:

1. *John* broke the chain.

2. *The chain* broke.

In the first sentence, the subject is *John*, while in the second one it is the *the chain*. But in the representation of the action or event, *the chain* plays the same role in both cases, that being the one to which the process is done or happens. This can be seen by considering the fact that the two sentences can be used to describe the same happening. Whenever the first sentence is true, the second one will be true as well, though in the second one it is pictured to have happened without an agent.

2. **Predicate**

In traditional grammar, a predicate is one of the two main parts of a sentence (the other being the subject, whom the predicate modifies). For the simple sentence "John [is yellow]," *John* acts as the subject, and *is yellow* acts as the predicate, a subsequent description of the subject headed with a verb.

In current linguistic semantics, a predicate is an expression that can be true of something. Thus, the expressions "is yellow" or "is like broccoli" are true of those things that are yellow or like broccoli, respectively. This notion is closely related to the notion of a predicate in formal logic, which includes more expressions than the former one, like, for example, nouns and some kinds of adjectives.
Predicate in English Traditional Grammar

In traditional English grammar, predicate is one of the two main parts of a sentence (the other being the subject, which the predicate modifies). The predicate must contain a verb, and the verb requires, permits or precludes other sentence elements to complete the predicate. These elements are: objects (direct, indirect, prepositional), predicative’s (aka predicate complements: subject complements and object complements) and adverbials (either obligatory or adjuncts). In the following examples, the predicate is underlined. For examples:

1. She dances. (verb only predicate)
2. John reads the book. (direct object)
3. John's mother, Felicity, gave me a present. (indirect object without a preposition)
4. She listened to the radio. (prepositional object)
5. They elected him president. (predicative /object complement)
6. She met him in the park. (adverbial)
7. She is in the park. (obligatory adverbial / adverbial complement)

The predicate provides information about the subject, such as what the subject is doing or what the subject is like.

The relation between a subject and its predicate is sometimes called a nexus.

A Predicate Nominal is a noun phrase that functions as the main predicate of a sentence, such as "George III is the king of England", the
king of England being the Predicate Nominal. The subject and predicate nominal must be connected by a linking verb.

A **Predicate Adjective** is an adjective that functions as a predicate, such as "Abby is attractive", *attractive* being the Predicate Adjective. The subject and predicate adjective must be connected by a linking verb.

3. **Object**

An **object** in grammar is a sentence element and is often part of the sentence predicate. It denotes somebody or something involved in the subject's "performance" of the **verb**. As an example, the following sentence is given:

In the sentence "Bobby kicked the ball", "ball" is the object. "Bobby" is the **subject**, the doer or performer, while "kick" is the action, and "ball" is the object involved in the action.

The main verb in the sentence determines whether there can or must be objects in the sentence, and if so how many and of what type. In many languages, however, including **English**, the same verb can allow multiple different structures; for example, "Bobby kicked" and "Bobby kicked the ball" are both valid English sentences.

3.4 **Types of Object**

Objects fall into three classes: direct objects, prepositional objects, and non-prepositional indirect objects. A direct object answers the question "What?", while an indirect object answers the question "To whom?" or "For whom?". An indirect object is the recipient of the direct object, or an
otherwise affected participant in the event. There must be a direct object for an indirect object to be placed in a sentence. Some examples:

1. In "We ate fruit", *fruit* is the **direct object** of the verb *ate*. It corresponds to the **accusative** of languages with grammatical cases.

2. In "They sent him a postcard", *him* is the (non-prepositional) **indirect object** of the verb *sent* (which uses a double-object construction). It typically corresponds to the **dative case**.

3. In "We listened to the radio", *the radio* is the object of the preposition *to*, and the **prepositional object** of the verb *listened*. It can correspond to a variety of cases and **complements**.

In many languages, including **German**, **Latin**, and **Classical Arabic**, objects can change form slightly (**decline**) to indicate what kind of object they are (their **case**). This does not happen in English (though a few English pronouns do have separate **subject** and object forms); rather, the type of object is indicated strictly by **word order**. Also, some objects are treated differently from others in particular languages. In Spanish, for example, human objects have to get a preposition 'a'. This is called **differential object marking**.

### 3.5 Forms of object

An object may take any of a number of forms, all of them **nominal** in some sense.

Common forms include:

1. A **noun** or noun phrase, as in "I remembered her advice."


2. An **infinitive** or infinitival clause, as in "I remembered to eat."

3. A **gerund** or gerund phrase, as in "I remembered being there."

4. A declarative **content clause**, as in "I remembered that he was blond."

5. An interrogative content clause, as in "I remembered why she had left."

6. A fused **relative clause**, as in "I remembered what she wanted me to do."

4. **Adverb**

An adverb is a part of speech. It is any word that modifies any other part of language: verbs, adjectives (including numbers), clauses, sentences and other adverbs, except for nouns; modifiers of nouns are primarily determiners and adjectives.

4.4 **The Five Types of Adverbs**

1. **Adverbs of Manner**: Adverbs of manner provide information on how someone does something. For example:
   - Jack drives very **carefully**.

2. **Adverbs of Time**: Adverbs of time provide information on when something happens. For example:
   - We'll let you know our decision next week.

3. **Adverbs of Frequency**: Adverbs of frequency provide information on how often something happens. For example:
   - They usually get to work at eight o'clock.
4. **Adverbs of Degree**: Adverbs of degree provide information concerning how much of something is done. For example:
   - They like playing golf a lot.

5. **Adverbs of Comment**: Adverbs of comment provide a comment, or opinion about a situation. For example:
   - Fortunately, there were enough seats left for the concert.

### 4.5 Adverb Formation

1. Adverbs are usually formed by adding '-ly' to an adjective. For examples:
   a. quiet - quietly
   b. careful – carefully
   c. careless - carelessly

2. Adjectives ending in '-le' change to '-ly'. For examples:
   a. possible – possibly
   b. probable – probably
   c. incredible - incredibly

3. Adjectives ending in '-y' change to '-ily'. For examples:
   a. lucky - luckily
   b. happy – happily
   c. angry - angrily

4. Adjectives ending in '-ic' change to '-ically'. For examples:
   a. basic – basically
   b. ironic – ironically
   c. scientific - scientifically
Some adjectives are irregular. The most common irregular adverbs are:

a. good – well
b. hard – hard
c. fast – fast

Types of Sentences:

Review:

a. An independent clause contains a subject, a verb, and a complete thought.

Example: I wrote my first novel last year

S  P  O  Adv. of Time

b. A dependent clause contains a subject and a verb, but no complete thought.

Example: After I wrote my first novel last year

S  P  O  Adv. of Time

1. Simple sentence contains one full subject and predicate (also can be included adverb). For examples:

a. He lives in New York

S  P  Adv. of Place

b. Please close the door (the subject you is understood)

P  O
2. Compound sentence has two or more independent clauses joined by:
   a. A coordinating conjunction (for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so)
      Example:
      \((IC)\) Tom reads novels, \((\text{coor. conj.})\) but \((IC)\) Jack reads comics
   b. A conjunctive adverb (e.g. however, therefore)
      Example:
      \((IC)\) Tom reads novels; \((\text{conj. adv.})\) however, \((IC)\) Jack reads comics
   c. A semicolon (punctuation).
      Example:
      \((IC)\) Tom reads novels; \((IC)\) his friend reads comics

3. Complex sentence has one dependent clause (headed by a subordinating conjunction, a relative pronoun or punctuation) joined to an independent clause. For examples:
   a. \((DC)\) Although Tom reads novels, \((IC)\) Jack reads comics
   b. \((IC)\) Tom is an eight-year old boy \((DC)\) who goes to school in Philadelphia

4. Compound-complex sentence has two or more independent clauses and one or more dependent clauses. For examples:
   a. \((DC)\) While Tom reads novels, \((IC)\) Jack reads comics, but \((IC)\) Sam reads only magazines
   b. \((DC)\) Though the movie had been tested on the market, \((IC)\) The Last Shadow did not fare well in the United States, but \((IC)\) it did develop a huge following in Europe, \((DC)\) which usually does not go for this movie genre.
5. **Conjunction**

Conjunctions are words used as joiners. Different kinds of conjunctions join different kinds of grammatical structures. The following are the kinds of conjunctions:

1. **Coordinating Conjunctions:**
   - for,
   - and,
   - nor,
   - but,
   - or,
   - yet,
   - so

2. **Correlative Conjunctions:**
   - either. . .or
   - both. . . and
   - neither. . . nor
   - not only. . . but also

3. **Conjunctive Adverbs:**

   The following are frequently used conjunctive adverbs:
   - after all
   - in addition
   - next
   - also
   - incidentally
   - nonetheless
   - as a result
   - indeed
   - on the contrary
   - besides
   - in fact
   - on the other hand
   - consequently
   - in other words
   - otherwise
   - finally
   - therefore
   - therefore
   - in fact
   - on the other hand
   - consequently
   - in other words
   - otherwise
   - finally
   - therefore
   - hence
   - moreover
   - thus
   - however
   - nevertheless
   - likewise
4. Subordinating Conjunctions

These words are commonly used as subordinating conjunctions:

- after
- in order (that)
- unless
- although
- insofar as
- until
- as
- in that
- when
- as far as
- lest
- whenever
- as soon as
- no matter how
- where
- as if
- now that
- wherever
- as though
- once
- whether
- because
- provided (that)
- while
- whether
- because
- provided (that)
- while
- since
- why
- even if
- so that
- even though
- supposing (that)
- how
- than
- if
- that
- inasmuch as
- though
- in case (that)
- till

6. Relative pronoun

A relative pronoun is a pronoun that marks a relative clause within a larger sentence. It is called a relative pronoun because it relates to the word that it modifies.

A relative pronoun links two clauses into a single complex clause. To this extent, it is similar in function to a subordinating conjunction. Unlike a conjunction, however, a relative pronoun stands in place of a noun.
Compare:

(1) This is a house. Jack built this house.

(2) This is the house that Jack built.

Sentence (2) consists of two clauses, a main clause (This is the house) and a relative clause (that Jack built). The word that is a relative pronoun. Within the relative clause, the relative pronoun stands for the noun phrase it references in the main clause (its antecedent), which is one of the arguments of the verb in the relative clause. In the example, the argument is the house, the direct object of built.

Other arguments can be relativised using relative pronouns:

- **Subject**: Hunter is the boy who kissed Monique.
- **Indirect object**: Hunter is the boy to whom Monique gave a gift.
- **Adpositional complement**: Jack built the house in which I now live.
- **Possessor**: Jack is the boy whose friend built my house.

Not all languages have relative pronouns. Those that do tend to use words which originally had other functions; for example, the English which is also an interrogative word. This suggests that relative pronouns might be a fairly late development in many languages.

In English, different pronouns are sometimes used if the antecedent is a human being, as opposed to a non-human or an inanimate object (as in who/that). In some languages, the relative pronoun is an invariable word.

(5) This is a bank. This bank accepted my identification.

(6) She is a bank teller. She helped us open an account.

With the relative pronouns, sentences (5) and (6) would read like this:
(7) This is the bank that accepted my identification.

(8) She is the bank teller who helped us open an account.

In sentences (7) and (8), the words that and who are the relative pronouns. The word that is used because the bank is a thing; the word who is used because 'she' is a person.

2.5.2 Ambiguity

Siregar (1981:30) states that “an expression is said to be ambiguous when more than interpretation can be assigned to it”.

Hurford and Heasley (1983:121) state that “a word or sentence is ambiguous when it has more than one sense. A sentence is ambiguous if it has two or more paraphrases which are not they paraphrases to each other”.

For example:

1. We saw her duck

   It has two paraphrases, they are:

   a) We saw her lower her head

   b) We saw the duck belongs to her.

Both of the sentences are not paraphrase of each other, in other words, these two sentences do not have the same meaning. Therefore, the sentence, We saw her duck is ambiguous.

There are two sources of ambiguity in natural language:
a) Grammatical Ambiguity or Structural Ambiguity

In grammatical ambiguity, a sentence is ambiguous because the words related to each other in different ways. On the other hand, the ambiguity is structural or grammatical if it is resulted from the way the constituents are grouped into a larger syntactical unit. The word itself is not ambiguous, but the combination of those words can be interpreted into more than one senses and this kind of ambiguity can be solved by using square brackets.

For examples:

1. Starving children can be dangerous.
   It can be ambiguous, they are:
   a. The children who are starving can be dangerous.
   b. To starve the children can be dangerous.

2. Fresh fruit and vegetables
   It can be ambiguous, they are:
   a. [Fresh fruit] and vegetables.
   b. Fresh [fruit and vegetables].

b) Lexical Ambiguity

Lexical Ambiguity is the word has more than one meaning or if the ambiguity of the expression is resulted from the polisemous word, i.e. a word that has more than one meaning. On the other words, lexical ambiguity deals with polysemy and homonymy.
For examples:

1. He goes to the bank
   It could mean:
   a. He goes to the bank of river.
   b. He goes to the bank for deposited some money.

2. He found a bat
   It could mean:
   a. He found a baseball bat.
   b. He found a flying rodent.

2.5.3 Redundancy

Siregar (1981:32) states that “redundancy is the degree to which an expression contains more information than is needed to be understood. Redundant words express the same meaning within the same sentence”. For examples:

a. Cold ice
b. Un-adult child

Those words are redundant since they have been included in the meaning of ice and child respectively.

There are several types of redundancy which may be observed in writing or speeches are as follows:

a. Duplication of meaning of nouns

For example:

- Children and youngsters should enjoy the holidays.
b. Duplication of meaning of adjectives
   For example:
   - The hand phone is free gratis.

c. Duplication of meaning of adverbs.
   For example:
   - I try to do my assignment perfectly without a mistake.

d. Duplication of meaning of verbs.
   For example:
   - The squirrel stored the food and put it away.

Redundancy also includes repetition of unnecessary lexical items as in:
1. She looks so pretty, beautiful.
2. I am absolutely, positively sure.

2.5.4 Anomaly

Siregar (1981:29) states that “an expression is anomalous when there is an incompatibility of meaning between constituent expressions. Anomaly results when the selection features of one member of the construction are not satisfied by the member in construction with it”.

For examples:
1. I ate three phonemes for my breakfast
   This expression seems to obey the syntactic rule but the sentence is anomaly. The combination of the verb ate and its noun object three phonemes is incongruous because the verb ate is the edible while the
noun three phonemes is no edible. Therefore, the combination of ate and three phonemes is anomalous.

2. John frightened a tree

Part of the meaning of frightened is that it can not occur only with animate nouns object. Since we know the meaning of tree, and know that it is not “animate”, so the sentence is anomalous.

2.5.5 Contradictory

Siregar (1981:30) states that “an expression is called contradictory when there is a contradiction of meaning between constituent expressions or the meaning of the subject contains information incompatible with what attribute to it in the predicate”.

For examples:

1. She drew a baseless triangle.

This statement is contradictory because there is a contradiction of meaning of the words baseless and triangle. Baseless means without base or having no base. And triangle means with base.

2. Stewardess is male.

This expression is contradictory because the meaning of the word stewardess in the fact is female, but in this expression is following by constituent male.