2. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The concept of semantics field is that a class of words divides the semantics field of a word. The words that divide the semantics field of a word are mutually exclusive. It means that every word that belongs to the class or the group has its own meaning that cannot be used to substitute for the meaning of the other words in the group. Some examples in English are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Semantic Field</th>
<th>A class of mutually – exclusive words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| (1) Eat        | (2) 1. Eat: take food into the mouth and swallow it  
|                | 2. Dine: have dinner                   
|                | 3. Consume: eat                        
|                | 4. Gulp: swallow food greedily         
|                | 5. Devour: eat hungrily and greedily   |
| (1)            | (2) 6. Gobble up: eat fast, noisily and greedily  
|                | 7. Gorge: eat greedily                  
|                | 8. Bolt: swallow food quickly           |

Chaer also explain metaphor as follows:

a) *Metaphors*
The meaning of word in this metaphorical use of words is not the literal meaning of the word, but the transferred meaning or derived meaning. The derived meaning of the word may differ from one language to another. Some examples of metaphors in English are:

Cock: a chief person; or leader
a person of spirit and often of a certain swagger or arrogance
Hen: a fussy middle-aged woman
Another type of transfer of meaning is metonymy

b) Metonymy
Metonymy is concerned with situation. These are some examples:

The floor was more human than the platform. (metonymy)
Substituted name of the attribute or concept associated with the object:
Floor: the people on the floor, platform: the people on the platform

Next, he explains another different kind meaning, namely connotative meaning.

c) Connotative Meaning
Leech (in Chaer, p.292) states that, “Connotative meaning is the communicative value an expression has by virtue of what it refers to, over and above its purely conceptual content.” If a conceptual meaning of student is animate, human, male or female, young or adult, having the duty to study, the connotative meaning of student includes lazy and stupid. The following kind he explains is called social meaning.

d) Social Meaning
The social meaning of a word is the meaning of a word in relation to the social situations or conditions of its use that is determined by the different social structures in the society. For example: Yes, bastard; Yes, sir; Yes, your Excellency; Yes, Your Highness; Yes, Your Majesty. Besides social meaning he also gives an explanation about affective meaning.
e) **Affective Meaning**

Affective meaning, according to Leech (in Chaer, p.293), is the meaning of word which reflects the personal feelings of the speaker, including his attitude to listener, or his attitude to something he is talking about. For example: ‘Prita, who has two boyfriends, sit beside me on the bus yesterday’ is more polite than ‘Prita, who is always proud of his two boyfriends, sit beside me on the bus yesterday’. And, Chaer, also includes conversion to be one of the different kinds of meaning.

f) **Conversion**

In conversion, a new meaning of a word is obtained when the syntactic function of the word is converted or changed as when a noun is used as a verb or a verb is used as a noun. Syntactic features are features connected with the arrangement of the word in a phrase, clause, or a sentence. Some example of conversion are:

- The driver stopped for a while to have a drink
- Have you sugared the stewed beef?

He also presents synonymy.

g) **Synonymy**

Synonymy is lack of variety of meaning which is not concerned with the conceptual meaning of words, but relations of words which have, more or less, the same conceptual meaning, for example: nasty and disgusting, marvelous and astonishing and wonderful.

Then, the next kind called antonymy which is mostly considered as the opposite of synonymy is described as following.

h) **Antonymy**

Antonymy is also a relation of word meaning. It is mostly oppositeness of meaning, e.g.: light and heavy, short and long, dirty and clean, near and far. Etc.

Another specific kind is Polysemy. It is clearly explained through some example.
i) Polysemy

Polysemy is a term to refer to a word that has a set of different meanings which are related by extension. Here is an example of polysemy:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>A set of different meanings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Eye</td>
<td>Human eye</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The eye of a needle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The eye of a potato</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A hook and an eye</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chaer also chooses homonymy as the next part to be explained.

j) Homonymy

Homonymy is a term to refer to one form, which is the same in both written and spoken, with two or more unrelated meanings. These are some examples of homonymy:

- Bank (of a river)
  - Bank (of a financial institution)
- Miss (failure to hit)
  - Miss (a title an unmarried woman or girl)

Just like the above parts, hyponymy is also considered a sense relation.

k) Hyponymy
Hyponymy involves the notion of inclusion. Hyponymy is a term to refer to a set or a group of words that are included in a higher term or word. The higher or the upper term of word is called a super ordinate or often called as hypernym, and the lower term is called a hyponym.

Avian

Duck goose cock hen canary

Next, another sense relation is called meronymy.

1) **Meronymy**

A meronymy denotes a constituent part or a member of something. It is a relationship of part of whole, for example:

- Finger is a meronymy of hand
- Sleeve is a meronymy of shirt
- Door is a meronymy of house

Then, now, Chaer has two more parts. The first last part is collocation.

2) **Collocation**

Collocation is a term to refer to words that tend to appear together or words that tend to keep company. Frequent examples of collocation are formed by imitating the sounds associated with the thing concerned, for example:

- A sheep bleats
- A hen cackles
A bird chirps
A cow moos

While Nida (1964 p.98) in Palmer (1982 p.76) and in Adisutrisno book (2008 p.39) gives examples of collocation of the word chair, like:

(1) Sat in chair
(2) The baby’s high chair
(3) The chair of philosophy
(4) Has accepted a university chair
(5) The chairman of meeting
(6) Will chair the meeting
(7) The electric chair
(8) Condemned too the chair

Now, we come to the last part. It is what the writer has chosen to be discussed. It is called idioms.

n) Idioms

An idiom is also a type of collocation, which there is a big difference between collocation and an idiom. In most collocation, the conceptual meaning of the words that collocate is maintained, while in an idiom, the meaning of the idiom can not be traced from the meaning of the individual words that collocate. Collocations have a figurative meaning that takes in only part of the phrase, as in play one’s cards right the figurative shift extends over the entire phrase. An idiom is a group of words with a new meaning which is quite different from the meaning of the words individually. In order to make it clearer, it is pleasure to explain about idiom itself deeply in the following section.
2.1.1. The Meaning of Idiom

Idiomatic expressions are so highly used in amount in the English language. In order to be successful in communication in listening, speaking, writing and especially reading, we should get the understanding of the meaning of the expressions or the words that are used in the text in the article. When we find ourselves having difficulties in realizing the meaning of the idioms, it shows that we indirectly fail in understanding what the text is all about. Idioms in English could be a very difficult thing for people, especially for non-native speakers to master.

Idioms involve collocation of a special kind. Consider for instance, *kick the bucket, fly off the handle, spill the beans, red herring*. Here, we do not only have the collocation of *kick* and the *bucket*, but also the fact that the meaning of the resultant combination is not related to the meaning of the individual words, but it is sometimes (though not always) nearer to the meaning of a single word (thus kick the bucket equals die).

It is stated in the *AS Hornby Oxford Learner’s Dictionary of Current English* (s.v.”idiom”) that: Idiom is a phrase or sentence whose meaning is not obvious through knowledge of individual meanings of the constituent words but must be learnt as a whole. Based on this definition, an idiom can be defined as a group of words strung together to assume a specific meaning different from the meaning of each individual word. The similar idea of idioms can be seen in the New Lexicon Webster’s Dictionary of the English Language (Encyclopedic Edition) (s.v.”idiom”), it is stated that:”Idiom is a construction, expression, etc having a meaning different from the literal one or not according to the usual patterns of the language.”

According to Chaer (2007): idiom is an expression whose meaning can not be predicted through its individual parts both lexically or grammatically (p.296). This definition explains that idiom can not be translated just by concerning to its usual meaning
or its grammar. It is just like the definition of idiom that can be found in www.
Answer.com/topic/idiom (vide “idiom”): “Idiom is a speech form or an expression of a
given language that is peculiar to itself grammatically or can not be understood from the
individual meanings of its elements.” This definition is similar to what David says about
the meaning of idiom (1983 p.2): “An idiom is an expression which can not be understood
from the literal meaning of the words of which it is composed.” Another similar idea of
idiom can be seen in the book entitled Essential Idioms in English (1994 p.xiii), Dixson
points out the definition of idiom: “Idiom is a phrase that has a meaning different from the
meanings of its individual parts.” This helps to explain why it is often difficult to grasp the
meaning of idioms.

It is clearer stated in A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics (Fourth Edition)
(s.v.”idiom”) that idiom is “a term used in grammar and lexicology to refer to a sequence of
words which is semantically and often syntactically restricted, so that they function as a
single unit.” It is also explained there that from semantic viewpoint, the meanings of the
individual words can not be summed to produced the meaning of the ‘idiomatic’ expression
as a whole. While from syntactic viewpoint, the words often do not permit the usual
variability they display in other contexts, e.g. it’s raining cats and dogs does not permit it’s
raining a cat and a dog/dogs and cats, etc. because of their lack of contrastivity, some
linguists refer to idioms as “ready made ‘utterences’. An alternative terminology refers to
‘idiom’ as ‘habitual collocation’. But there are some idioms do permit a degree of internal
change, and are somewhat more literal in meaning than others (e.g. it’s worth her while/ the
job will be worth my while, etc). in generative grammar, idiomatic constructions are used
for testing hypotheses about structure. For example the appearances of ‘idiom chunks’ in
particular positions in a sentence is used to distinguish between control and raising
sentences.
From the explanation above, the conclusion that is taken is idiom is an expression that can not be understood literally or grammatically. It is completely unrelated to the literal meanings of the individual words.

In the New Lexicon Webster’s Dictionary of the English Language (Encyclopedic Edition) (s.v. “magazine”), is stated that: “Magazine is a paperback periodical publication of writings by different authors of few illustrated and with advertisement.” Another similar idea of magazine can be seen in the Advanced Learner’s Dictionary of Current English (s.v. “magazine”), it is stated that: “Magazines is a paper-covered (usu. Weekly or monthly, and illustrated) periodical, with stories, articles, etc by various writers. “Magazine is a pamphlet published periodically containing miscellaneous papers or compositors.

Some of sources that I used to analyze the meaning of idioms in my thesis are:

a). Robby Lou ( The handbook of English of English Idioms)

b). Dixon ( Essential Idioms in English)

c). Betty Kirkpatrick (Everyday Idioms)

d). Virginia Klein ( WhatYou to Know about Idioms)

e). Cambridge Advanced Learner’s Dictionary

2.1.2 Types of Idiom

According to Robby Lou (2007 pp. 1-224), idiom can be categorized according to the grammatical structure, like phrasal verbs (phrasal verb without objects, separable phrasal verbs, inseparable phrasal verb, and phrasal verb with extra prepositions), Verb –

2.1.2.1 Phrasal Verb = ‘verb + preposition’ or ‘verb + adverbial particle’

2.1.2.1.1 Phrasal Verb without objects

The way of forming these phrasal verbs without object is usually by ‘verb + preposition’ or ‘Verb + Adverbial particle”. For example; ‘wake up’ (regain consciousness after sleeping). Phrasal Verbs without are used in the same way as normal verbs. For example:

- I got up at seven o’clock.
- What time do you get up?
- 

2.1.2.1.2 Separable Phrasal Verbs

Separable Phrasal Verbs always have objects. They are used in the same way as normal verbs, except they may be separated by noun objects.

For example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>He</th>
<th>Put</th>
<th>His coat</th>
<th>On</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Verb</td>
<td>Noun object</td>
<td>Particle</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
For example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>He</th>
<th>Put</th>
<th>It</th>
<th>On</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Verb</td>
<td>Pronoun object</td>
<td>Particle</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.1.2.1.3 Inseparable Phrasal Verbs

Inseparable phrasal verb always have object, but they can never be separated by them. They are sometimes separated by adverb, for example:

*I looked everywhere for my book*

They are used in the same way as normal verbs.

It can be difficult to decide when an inseparable phrasal verb is used idiomatically and when literally.

For example:

*The police are looking into the robbery*

*The police are looking into the bank*

In the first example, ‘looking into’ means ‘investigating’ and in the second example it is used literally.

2.1.2.1.4 Phrasal Verbs with Extra Preposition

Verb + particle \( \rightarrow \) *run away*

Verb + particle + preposition \( \rightarrow \) *run away from (someone/something)*

*Look (someone) up* visit
2.1.2.2 Verb – Noun Combination

The verbs take and make are used idiomatically with many different objects. The meaning is usually clear from the context, and important thing is to remember the correct verb.

For example:

*Take a bath*     *make an appointment*

*Take a bus*     *make an effort*

*Take a holiday*     *make a suggestion*

*Take an opportunity*     *make a mistake*

It can be difficult to decide when a verb – noun combination is being used idiomatically or literally, for example *make a bed* means ‘prepare for use’ (idiomatic) and ‘build’ (literal).

In some verb – noun combination, both verb and noun are used idiomatically.

For example:

*Take heart*

*Lose heart*

Nouns used idiomatically in verb – noun combination often have a plural as well as singular form. For example:

*Run an errand*

*Run errands*
2.1.2.3 verb – Noun – Preposition Combination

In most of these idioms the nouns keep its literal meaning and only the verb and preposition are used idiomatically.

*Play trick on (someone)*

*Take pride in (something)*

But occasionally the noun is used idiomatically.

*Give rise to (something)*

*Take exception (someone/something)*.

Some verb – noun – preposition combination are very similar to verb – noun combination, but have a completely different meaning.

*Take care ➔ be careful*

*Take care of ➔ look after*

2.1.2.4 Preposition – Noun Combination

It is only the preposition is used idiomatically in these idioms. The meaning of most of these idioms is clear from the context, and the most important thing is to remember the correct preposition. For example:

*On vacation*

*In a hurry*

These idioms generally have no plural form (with the exception of at times which has no singular form)
His parents are very kind at heart

2.1.2.5 Preposition – Noun and Preposition – Adjective – Noun Combination

In the previous preposition – Noun Combinations category, the preposition is used idiomatically. While in this category, the noun is used idiomatically.

Of course in the long run

On edge at short notice

2.1.2.6 Preposition – Noun – Preposition Combination

In these idioms, nouns are used idiomatically. A few expressions change in the following way. For the sake of (someone/something) can take the alternative form for(someone's/something's)sake. All idioms are followed by a noun or gerund, except in order to which is followed by a verb. Some idioms may look very similar, but have in fact completely different meanings.

In case of (something) if (something) happens

In the case of in the instance of

2.1.2.7 Preposition – Adverb and Preposition – Adjective Combinations

The important point about these idioms is not the grammatical function of the individual words that make up each idiom, but the grammatical function of the complete idiom.

For example:

From now on starting from now and continuing in the foreseeable future

Above all most important
The two idioms above are used adverbially. While in the following examples, the idioms are used as prepositions.

For all  da despite

According to  da as stated by

2.1.2.8 Adjective – Noun Combination

In this category of idioms, adjectives are used idiomatically and nouns are used literally.

Tall story  da an exaggerated and unbelievable tale

Practical joke  da a trick played on a person

Adjectives and nouns are used idiomatically and in some cases only the noun takes a plural form. For example: tall story tall stories

2.1.2.9 Noun Phrases

Each idiom is made up of two nouns, where one or both of the two nouns may be used idiomatically.

Sandwich course (‘course’ is used literally)

Rat race (both nouns are used idiomatically)

Many of these idioms come from metaphors. For examples:

Gunboat diplomacy (from the era when gunboats were sent to enforce political demands)

Most of these idioms are variable. When a noun phrase is used in the plural, only the second noun becomes plural.
Family trees ➔ charts showing someone’s ancestry

Status symbols ➔ material objects intended to indicate one’s wealth or importance

2.1.2.10 Adjective – Preposition Combinations

In adjective – preposition combinations, the preposition is not exactly used idiomatically, but it is unpredictable. Each individual combination has to be learned by heart. For example:

Afraid of ➔ equal to ➔ sorry for

Anxious about ➔ glad of ➔ suitable for

Capable of ➔ jealous of ➔ sure of

Contrary to ➔ popular with ➔ useful to

Many adjectives are derived from past participles, for example: broken, lost, surprised. When they are used as participles, they are followed by the preposition by.

I was surprised by the news.

Many adjectives are used in more than one adjective – preposition combination.

These are some common examples:

Made of ➔ this clock is made of brass

Made from ➔ brass is made from copper and zinc

Concerned about ➔ I’m concerned about your health

Concerned for ➔ I’m concerned for your safety
Angry with He was angry with me

Angry at he was angry at my laziness

2.1.3 Meanings of idiom

Palmer states that the meaning in idiom can be differentiated into two types:

Semi opaque meaning and opaque meaning

2.1.4.1 Semi Opaque Meaning

Semi opaque meaning is meaning in idiom which is related to the meaning of the individual words, for example: act up which has got meaning ‘act or take steps/ measures (usually badly)’. We can see that the word ‘act’ has a relation with its literal meaning.

2.1.4.2 Opaque Meaning

Opaque meaning is a type of idioms whose meaning has no relation to the individuals’ meaning. Because of that the meaning is difficult to be grasped, for example: duck soup which means ‘easy to do’.