AN ANALYSIS TO DICTION AND LEXICAL RELATION TOWARD
EDITORIAL IN JAKARTA GLOBE

A thesis
Submitted to Faculty of Adab and Humanities
In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Strata One

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ABSTRACT


This research aims to know the types of lexical relations and diction written in editorials Jakarta Globe August edition to understand the context of the editorials.

The researcher employs qualitative method by collecting the randomly texts of editorials chosen to be analyzed to know the diction and lexical relation in understanding the context of the editorials. After selecting the data, the researcher analyzes the word in the texts by using the theory of diction and lexical relation related to semantics.

The result of the study shows some kinds of lexical relation and diction that used in the editorials. The lexical relations that found were synonyms, antonyms, hyponyms, meronyms, and retronyms and the kinds of diction that found are abstract word, popular word, concrete word, common word and jargon.

By knowing word meanings and lexical relations well, the text can be easily understood by the readers and will convey the same ideas to the words. On the other hand, the researcher finds synonym as lexical relation and also popular word as the diction that often used by the editor in that editorials.
APPROVAL SHEET

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2015
LEGALIZATION

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The thesis entitled above has been defended before the letters and humanities Faculty’s Examination Committee on February 06th, 2015. It has already been accepted as a partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of strata one.

Jakarta, February 06th, 2015

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I hereby declare that this submission is my own work and that, to my best knowledge and belief, it contains no material previously published or written by another person nor material which to a substantial extent has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma of the University or other Institute of higher learning, except where due acknowledgement has been made in the text.

Jakarta, December 2014

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In the name of Allah, the most gracious and the most beneficent, praise, and gratitude be to Allah for giving me ability and health to finish this thesis. Blessing be upon our prophet Muhammad SAW, his descendants and his followers.

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Jakarta, December 2014

The Researcher
# Table of Contents

Abstract .......................................................................................................................... i  
Approval Sheet .................................................................................................................. ii  
Legalization ..................................................................................................................... iii  
Declaration ...................................................................................................................... iv  
Acknowledgement .......................................................................................................... v  
Table of Contents .......................................................................................................... vii  

## CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION .............................................................................. 1

A. Background of the Study ......................................................................................... 1  
B. Focus of the Study ................................................................................................. 3  
C. Research Question ............................................................................................... 3  
D. Significance of the Study ...................................................................................... 3  
E. Research Methodology .......................................................................................... 3
   1. The Objective of Research .................................................................................. 3
   2. The Method of Research ............................................................................... 4
   3. The Technique of Collecting the Data and Analyzing the Data Analysis ......... 4
   4. The Instrument of the Research .................................................................. 4
   5. Unit of Analysis ............................................................................................ 5

## CHAPTER II THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK ................................................... 6

A. Previous Research ............................................................................................... 6  
B. Semantics .............................................................................................................. 6  
C. Concept of Diction ................................................................................................ 8  
D. Lexical Relation .................................................................................................... 12  
E. Word meaning ...................................................................................................... 31  
F. Editorial of the Newspaper ................................................................................ 37
CHAPTER III RESEARCH FINDINGS ................................. 40

A. Data Description ................................................. 40
B. Data Analysis ..................................................... 50

CHAPTER IV CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION ............... 57

A. Conclusion ......................................................... 57
B. Suggestion ......................................................... 57

BIBLIOGRAPHY .......................................................... 59

APPENDICES ............................................................. 61
CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

A. Background of the Study

The editorial is mind of institution which is tested in front of council of public opinion. Editorial also can be interpreted as presentation of facts and opinions which are interpreted the important news and influence the general opinion. Editorial is an article that explains the ideas of that newspaper on a problem.¹

Editorial usually has general characteristic, as contain editorial staff opinion the event which is often discussed, contain the review about an issues that is loaded. Usually the national scale, international news can become editorial, when the news has the impact to the nation, and the subjective mind which is stated from the editor.²

As we know that editorial using the good language for reader’s comprehension. Language is any system of formalized symbols, signs, sounds, gestures or the like used or conceived as a means of communicating thought, emotion, etc.³ To make the good writing, researcher has to know about diction. Diction is selection of the right words used to convey something.⁴

As Keraf said, diction is the selection and use of words by the author to consider aspects of the meaning of the word denotative and

¹M.kompasiana.com/post/read/460526/1/editorial-sebuah-pikiran-institusi-media.
⁴Indrawati suleman, 2013 (diksi dalam novel saat langit dan bumi bercumbu).
connotative meanings for a word can lead to a variety of senses. In the book by Gorys Keraf Diksi dan Gaya Bahasa said there are some forms of dictions such as connotation, denotation, the abstract word, concrete word, general word, special word, scientific word, popular word, jargon, slang, foreign word and loan word.\(^5\)

Besides the diction, the researcher also has to know about lexical relation. A lexical relation is a culturally recognized pattern of association that exists between lexical units in language. Lexical unit is a form-meaning also known as sense.\(^6\)

Lexical relation and word choice (diction) are very important to be learned, because to know what the lexical relation that often used in the discourse and is the words are suitable, is that appropriate and agree to be used in the discourse.

This research is tries to describe comprehensively about what is the lexical relation and diction which are written in the editorial of Jakarta Globe.

Therefore, the researcher is interested in analyzing and learning this case of study in Jakarta Globe editorials, and the researcher only selects two editorials namely: Subsidized fuel and social media protest (August 31, 2014) and Weaning Indonesia off subsidized fuel (August 27, 2014).

\(^5\)Gorys Keraf, Diksi & Gaya Bahasa (Jakarta, Gramedia, 1996) p.89.
\(^6\)http://www.01.sil.org/linguistics/glossaryoflinguisticterms/WhatIsLexicalUnit.htm.
B. Focus of the Study

The researcher limits the problem only on lexical relations and diction which are written in the editorials on Jakarta Globe, August edition, 2014.

C. Research Question

From the focus of the study, the research question is:

1. What are the types of dictions and lexical relations written in understanding the context of Jakarta Globe’s editorials?

D. Significant of the Study

This research is expected to give some benefits for the researcher and for the student university – for the researcher this research is hoped to add and understand comprehensively the theory of semantics, especially in the diction and lexical relation in a certain editorial. For the students of university, this research is expected to be one of useful references in the field of semantics.

E. Research Methodology

1. The Objective of the Research

The objective of the research is to find out the diction and the lexical relation in understanding the contexts of Jakarta Globe’s editorial.
2. The Method of the Research

In this research, the researcher uses “qualitative method” in particular analysis descriptive, the researcher will describe the data analysis qualitatively. It means, the researcher doesn’t apply any statistically figures.

3. The Technique of collecting the data and analyzing the data Analysis

To analysis the data, the researcher uses content – analysis technique through the following steps:
- Selecting the editorial texts.
- Reading and understanding the study of semantics in particular in describing the diction and the lexical relation from the texts.
- Selecting the diction and the lexical relation which are used in the texts.
- Finding the contextual meaning of the texts and in analyzing the data, the researcher uses the relevant theories of the diction and lexical relation which are selected from some references.

4. The Instrument of the Research

The instrument of the research is the researcher herself and also uses some references which are related to the diction and the lexical relation concepts. Besides the researcher, other supporting instrument of the research is the two editorials of Jakarta Globe.
5. Unit of Analysis

The unit of analysis is the two editorial texts chosen randomly from Jakarta Globe, August edition, 2014. The two texts are:

a. Weaning Indonesia off subsidized fuel.
   (August 27, 2014)

b. Subsidized fuel and social media protest.
   (August 31, 2014)
CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

A. Previous Research

The research like this ever researched by Agus Bachtiar on 2010, his objective of his research are to know the types of lexical relations are chosen to build text on the Jakarta post’s articles. Other researcher is Laila Afifa on 2012, her objectives of her research are to know the word formation processes that appear in the new words that the author created in the mini dictionary on Owl City Blog (http://owlcityblog.com/) and to know the meaning components that appear in the new words that the author created in the mini dictionary Owl City Blog (http://owlcityblog.com/). This research is different from the two researches above, because it has different objective. Its objective is to find out the diction and the lexical relation in understanding the context of Jakarta Globe’s editorials.

B. Semantics

Semantics is the study of meaning communicated through language and semantics the study of meaning word and sentences. Therefore, in semantics the meaning of word must be understood well for instance, if we don’t know words in sentence (or word) means, i.e. what it counts as the

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7 John I. Saeed *semantics* (oxford, Blackwell, 2000) p. 1
equivalent of the language concerned. That’s why semantics is quite important to learn.

In linguistics, semantics is the subfield that is devoted to the study of meaning, as inherent at the levels of word, phrases, sentences and larger units of discourse (referred to as texts). The term semantics is a recent addition to the English language. In other words, semantic is the study of meaning abstracted away from those aspects that are derived from the intentions of speakers, their psychological states and social-cultural aspects of the context which their utterances are made.

In addition, speakers’ utterances can be made semantically more informative if the investigator is able to constrain their production in various ways for instance, by elicitation in tightly controlled situational contexts. Moreover, context determines utterance-meaning at three distinguishable levels in analysis of text or discourse. First, it will usually, if not always, make clear what sentence has been uttered – if sentence has indeed been uttered. Second, it will usually make clear what proposition has been expressed – if a proposition has been expressed. Third, it will usually make clear that the proposition in question has been expressed with one kind of illocutionary force rather than another.

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C. Concept of Diction

Diction is very important to be learned, to know what is the words are suitable in discourse, are they appropriate and agreed to be used in the discourse. So, before determined the words which are suitable in the sentences, the writer is looking for the word in the dictionary in order to overcome the problem in sentence, so that sentence can be received by the reader. There are several definitions of diction that are stated by some experts.

Diction, in its original, primary meaning, refers to writers’ or speakers’ distinctive vocabulary choices and style of expression. A choice of words or diction covers which definition of words is used to convey an idea, how to form a group of words which is precise or to use appropriate expressions, and which style is the best use for a situation. A choice of words or diction is a skill to compare precisely meanings from an idea that wants to convey, and a skill to find a suitable form with situation and a moral value that a society has as listener. A word of choice which is precise and appropriate is only enabled by mastery of majority of vocabulary in a language.

The English language contains a remarkably large of number of synonyms. But of these similar words, only one or two will be appropriate for the purpose you have in mind. Appropriateness of word meanings

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15 Gorys Keraf, diksi dan gaya bahasa (Jakarta: PT. Gramedia, 1948), p.24
16 David king and Thomas crerar, a choice of words (Toronto: oxford university press, 1969) p.2
also demanded by the writers or the speakers to know how is relation between language form (word) and reference. Many synonymous words are seemingly interchangeable and appear as if the same meaning were applicable to three or four of them at the same time, but when all such words are reduced to final analysis it is clearly seen that there is a marked difference in their meaning.

Another opinion published by Widyatamartaya (1990:45) which explains that diction or word choice is someone’s ability to distinguish meaning nuances correctly appropriate with concept that will be delivered and that ability should correspond to situation and tastes that usually had by public and hearer or reader. A dictionary seems to obvious place to find a record of the meanings of words.

From some explanation above, the writer concludes that diction is word choice that usually used by writer to choose the words that better in their writing.

According to Gorys Keraf’s theory there are some kinds of words that can be included as dictions. Some of them are:

1. The abstract word.

Abstract words are words that have a referent in the form of concepts, words described as difficult abstract references cannot be

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17Gorys Keraf (1984), op.cit. p.87
absorbed by human senses. Abstract words are often used to explain the thoughts that are technical and specialized.

Examples: Abstract words refer to the quality (heat, cool, good, bad), affinity (quantity, amount, degree), and thought (suspicion, determination, confidence).

2. Concrete word

The concrete is word that refers to something that can be seen or sensed directly by one or more senses. Concrete words refer to specific goods and the actual experience. The concrete used to present vivid pictures in the mind of the reader exceeds other words.

Examples of concrete words: table, chair, house, car, etc.

3. Common word

Common words are words that have a broad scope of coverage; general words refer to many things, to the set, and to the whole.

Examples of common words: animals, plants, criminals, vehicles.

4. Special word

Special words are words that refer to specific directives and concrete. Special word is showing to that special object.

Examples of specific words: Yamaha, Nokia, grouper, parrot.

5. Scientific word

Scientific word is a word used by the intelligentsia, especially in scientific writings.
Examples of scientific words: analogy, formation, conservative, fragments, contemporary.

6. Popular word

Popular words are words commonly used by all levels of society, both by the intelligentsia or to the average person.

Example said popular: evidence, disappointment, forward, and bum.

7. Jargon

Jargon is technical words or secret in a field of science particular, in the arts, commerce, collection of secrets, or other special groups.

Examples of jargon: hot potato.

8. Slang

Slang word is non-standard words are informal, organized typically, used powerful and witty in conversation, the word also a slang word high or pure. The use of slang is introduces many new words into the language by combining old words into new meanings, slang also introduces entirely new words. Examples of slang words: oh my God, spaced out, hang-up, pooped.

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20Victoria Fromklin, Robert Rodman and Nina Hyams, *an introduction to language* (united state, Thomson corporation, 2003) p. 473
9. Foreign word

Foreign word elements is derived from foreign languages are still retained its original form because it has not fused with the language original.

Examples of foreign words: computer, cyber, internet, go public.

10. Loan word

Loan word is a word from a foreign language which has been adapted to Indonesian form or structure. Examples loan word: ecology, ecosystems, motivation, music, energy.

D. Lexical Relation

Lexical semantics or lexical relation is often loosely defined as ‘the study of word meaning,’ although the word word as we shall see, is not the most straightforward term to use. \(^{21}\)

Lexical relation is the traditional descriptive aims of lexical semantic have been to represent the meaning of each word in language and to show how the meanings of words in language are interrelated. \(^{22}\)

These are some theories that related to lexical meaning:

a) **Brinton’s theory** \(^{23}\)

As speaker of the language, we all have an implicit understanding of a number of semantic relationships that hold between either words or

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\(^{21}\)M. Lynne Murphy, *lexical meaning* (Cambridge: Cambridge university press, 2010), p.3

\(^{22}\)John Saeed, *semantics* (oxford, Blackwell, 2000) p. 53

\(^{23}\)Laurel. J. Brinton, *the structure of modern English : a linguistic introduction* (Amsterdam, john benyamin publishing, 2000) hal.131-135
sentences in the language. Let’s examine briefly the technical terms that linguist use to describe the different types of relationships.

01. Paraphrase: one statement is a paraphrase of another when it has the same meaning as another, as *Philip purchased an automobile* is a paraphrase of *Philip bought a car* (we will look at synonymy – sameness of meaning between words – below).

02. Entailment or implication: one statement entails another when the second is a logically necessary consequence of the first, as *Alan lives in Toronto* entails *Alan lives in Canada*. Note that the relationship of entailment, unlike that of paraphrase, is one-way: it is not the case that *Alan lives in Canada* entails *Alan lives in Toronto*.

03. Inclusion: one statement includes another, as *I like fruits* includes *I like apples*. Again, this relationship is unidirectional: *I like apples* does not include *I like (all) fruit*.

04. Contradiction: a statement or sequence of statements is logically contradictory; that is, if one is true, the other must be false, as *he is an orphan* contradicts *my parents are living* or *I spit out the beer I swallowed* is internally contradictory.

05. Anomaly: a sentence has no meaning in the everyday world; it violets semantic rules, for example, *he swallowed a dream* or *the rock giggled*. (we will examine anomaly before, as some apparent anomaly is actually figurative language)
06. Lexical ambiguity: a word allows more than one meaning in context, as in an old friend, which may denote a friend who is aged or a friend who one has known for a long time (two different meaning of old).

07. Denotation/connotation: words have literal or referential meanings (denotation) but also evoke feelings, attitudes, or opinion (connotation). The following words, whose denotation are similar if not identical, carry differing connotation, either good or bad:

- Soldier – warrior
- Insect – bug
- Relax – loaf
- Hound – dog

Sometimes the connotation of words associated with their language of origin, as in the sets below, deriving from English, French, and Latin, respectively:

- Fire – flame – conflagration
- Fear – terror – trepidation

08. Polysemy: a word has more one meaning out of context; the meanings are related to one another, e.g.:

- Court: ‘enclosed area’, ‘retinue of a sovereign’, ‘judicial tribunal’;
- Mouth: ‘opening through which an animate being takes food’, ‘the part of the river which empties into a lake or a sea’.
09. Homonymy: two words sound are written the same but are different in meaning, e.g.:

Bark$_1$ ‘outer covering wood’

Bark$_2$ ‘harsh sound, uttered by a dog’

Homonyms represent different entries in a dictionary, while the different meanings of polysemous word are listed under a single entry.

10. Part-whole: a word denotes part of a whole, as fender is to car, week is to month, head is to body, brunch is to tree, binding is to book. This has been termed “meronymy” (Cruse 1986).

11. Presupposition: what is assumed beforehand by an utterance, or what is taken for granted, is said to be presupposed. The test for presupposition is that when an utterance is negated, what is presupposed remains true; what is presupposed “holds up under negation”, e.g.:

My teacher gave a boring lecture, where the existence of teacher is presupposed; when negated – my teacher didn’t give a boring lecture – the teacher is still assumed to exist, though a lecture may or may not have been given (she may have given an exciting lecture or she may have led a discussion).

The concept of synonymy is, of course, well-known and intuitively obvious; it denotes sameness in meaning, or sense, as with the words:
Unhappy/sad    huge/enormous
Correct/right   casual/informal
Prisoner/convict present/gift

The words may have the same meaning in particular context, but not necessarily in all contexts; for example, pale/light and peel/skin are synonymous in the shirt is {pale/light} in color or the {peel/skin} of the orange is thick but not in the book is {light,*pale} in weight or the girl’s {skin,*peel} is sunburned.

b) **M. Lynne Murphy’s theory**

In this book, we also find meaning variation: polysemy, homonymy, and vagueness in the fifth chapter.

The other two types, of meaning variation arise when two uses of a word represent different senses. The state of having more than one possible sense is called **ambiguity**, and there are two types of lexical ambiguity:

01. If two form-meaning pairings involve two different lexemes that just happen to have the same spoken and/or written form, then it is a case of **homonymy** – that is, there are two lexemes that are each other’s **homonym**. For instance, the noun kind meaning ‘type’ and the adjective kind meaning ‘considerate’ are two different words that just happen to have the same spelling and pronunciation. If we want to talk just about the spoken form of the language, we can

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refer to **homophones**, which have the same pronunciation but not necessarily the same spelling, such as *raze* and *raise*. If we’re just looking at the written language, there are **homographs**, which are spelt the same but may or may not be pronounced differently – like the musical instrument *bass* /bæs/ and the fish *bass* /bæs/.

02. If a single lexeme has two distinguishable senses associated with it, then we say that it is a **polyseme** or it is **polysemous**. The ‘bound pages’ and ‘information’ meanings of *book* are related to one another, so we would not want to conclude that we have two completely different words when we use the ‘text’ and ‘tome’ senses of *book*. So, we conclude that *book* is a polyseme with ‘text’ and ‘tome’ senses.

03. On the other hand, the other source of lexical ambiguity, **polysemy**, involves a single word with several senses. This can come about because existing senses branch out to become new senses. So, in the case of polysemy, we expect that the different senses are related in some way – you can figure out why the word came to have this range of sense.

04. Relation among words can be divided roughly into two types: paradigmatic and syntagmatic. **Syntagmatic relations** are relations between words that go together in syntactic phrases – like *ship’s* and *captain* or *dogs* and *bark*. 
If an expression is vague then its sense is imprecise, but if it is ambiguous, it has at least two separate senses. We’ll look at three ambiguity tests-definition, contrast, and zeugma – and use them to show that friend is vague with respect to the sex of the friend, but it is not ambiguous between separate ‘male friend’ and ‘female friend’ senses.

For example:

(1) Ben is my friend. He’s a fine fellow.

(2) Georgia is my friend. She’s wonderful woman.

In (1), friend refers to someone male, and (2), it refers to someone female, so you might initially hypothesize that friend has two senses: ‘a male person with whom one has a relationship of mutual affection’ and ‘a female person with whom one has a relationship of mutual affection’.

**Homonymy** is a relation between different lexemes that are coincidentally similar in form.

**Polysemy** is a relation between senses associated with a single lexeme.

**Vagueness** is a property that a sense of single lexeme can have, that is, the property of generality.

Now, let’s move to the lexical semantic relations in sixth chapter.
In this chapter we’ll describe about paradigmatic relations as like synonymy, antonym, and hyponymy. Relation among words can be divided roughly into two types: paradigmatic and syntagmatic.

**Syntagmatic relations** are relations between words that go together in syntactic phrase – like *ship’s* and *captain* or *dog* and *bark*. Words in paradigmatic relations belong to the same word class and share characteristics in common.

A few paradigmatic relations receive the most attention in lexical semantics. **Synonymy** is the relation of having (nearly) the same meaning. *Couch* and *sofa* are synonyms in many people’s dialect. **Hyponymy** is the ‘type –of’ relation; for example, *house* is a hyponym of *building* because a house is a type of building. **Co-hyponymy** (sometimes called *lexical contrast*) involves a group of senses that make up a set, but which contrast with one another, for example *heart/club/spade/diamond*. **Antonymy** is special case of contrast in which two words are opposites, for example *black/white*.

01. Synonymy

The term *synonym* comes from Greek roots *syn*’alike’ and *onym* ‘name’. It refers to words that mean the same as each other, so the equals sign = is used to signal synonymy.

For example: human and person

- A person is standing beside me.
- A human is standing beside me.
02. Hyponymy

So far, all of our examples of homonymy have been nouns, and this is typical in discussions of homonymy, raising the question of whether inclusion relations exist in other word classes. The example is *marching* < *walking* < *moving*. Lyons (1977) refers to relation like these, which cross word-class boundaries, as *quasi-hyponymy*. Hyponym relations are less sensitive to these non-denotational issues. It is true to say that a *kitty* is a type of *animal*, even though *kitty* and *animal* differ in register.

When the paradigm involves more than two words, it is called a *contrast set* or a set of *co-hyponyms*.

03. Antonym

Antonymy is relation of opposite; there are several subtypes of antonym relation:

- Contrary antonyms are those, like *short/tall* and *old/young*, in which the assertion of one entails the negation of the other, but the negation of one does not entail the assertion of the others, as illustrated in

  *Gladys is tall* \(\rightarrow\) *Gladys is not short*

  *Gordon is not tall* \(\neg\rightarrow\) *Gordon is short*

- Complementary (also called contradictory) antonyms are those for which the assertion of one entail the negation of the other and *vice versa*, as in
That integer is even  \(\Rightarrow\) that integer is not odd

That integers is not odd  \(\Rightarrow\) that integer is even

- Not all adjectival antonyms fit so nicely into these categories. So-called **gradable complementaries**, like dishonest/honest, lie between complementarity and contrariety.

- Converse antonyms describe the same relation or activity from different perspective, and follow patterns like: if X is \(p\) to Y, then Y is \(q\) to X. For example, since Bill (X) is a parent (\(p\)) to Madeline (Y), Madeline (Y) is a child (\(q\)) of Bill’s (X).

- Reversive opposites involve the undoing of some action: tie/untie construction/demolition. Converse and reversive antonyms can be collected, along with other miscellaneous examples (e.g. come/go), in general category of directional antonyms.

c) **D.A Cruise’s theory**

In this book, we also find the explanation about lexical relation. But, the explanation doesn’t tell us about the whole of lexical relation, we just find some of lexical relation which is explained before. In fourth chapter in that book we can find the introducing lexical relation.

01. Preliminaries

Although no meaning relation can be said to be totally without significance, by no means all conceivable relation are of equal

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general semantic interest. To be worth singling out for special attention, a semantic relation needs to be at least systematic, in the sense that it recurs in a numbers of pairs or sets of related lexical units (it will be recalled that the expression lexical unit is used to refer to a lexical form together with a single distinguished sense). But even recurrent sense relations are of varying general significance. There are innumerable ‘low level’ semantic relations restricted to specific notional areas. Take, for example, the relation between the lexical items see (“have a visual experience”), look at (“pay attention to a static visual stimulus”), and watch (“pay attention to a changing or potentially changing visual stimulus”). If we examine the lexical units referring to other modes of perception we find the following correspondences:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>See</th>
<th>look at</th>
<th>watch</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hear</td>
<td>listen to</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taste₁</td>
<td>taste²</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smell₁</td>
<td>smell²</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feel₁</td>
<td>feel²</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The same is true of the meanings of lexical meaning; each one consist of an indefinite number of contextual relations but at the same time constitutes a unified whole.
02. Congruence

The four basic relations between classes furnish a model not only for establishing a fundamental group of sense relations, but also for defining a set of systematic variants applicable to virtually all other paradigmatic sense relations. The basic lexical relations will be referred to collectively as ‘congruence relations’, and the variant as congruence variants. The relations between classes are as follows:

- Identity is class A and B have the same members
- Inclusion is class B is wholly included in class A
- Overlap is class A and class B have members in common but each has members not found in the other
- Disjunction is class A and class B have no members in common

Let us consider the primary lexical relations (i.e. congruence relations) individually and in detail.

03. Cognitive synonym

The lexical relation which parallels identity in the membership of two classes is, of course, synonymy. The relation defined in terms of truth-conditional relations will be distinguished as cognitive synonymy. Cognitive synonymy may be defined as follows:

X is a cognitive synonym of Y if (i) X and Y are syntactically identical, and (ii) any grammatical declarative sentence S
containing X has equivalent truth-conditions to another sentence 
$S^1$, which is identical to S except that X is replaced by Y.

04. Hyponymy

The lexical relation corresponding to the inclusion of one class in 
another is hyponymy. Ideally one would like to be able to give a 
general characterization of suitable sentence types; unfortunately 
this is not presented possible. What we shall do instead is to restrict 
the definition to one selected sentence type which happens to work, 
namely, that represented by the schema A is $f(x)$, where $f(x)$ is an 
indefinite expression, and represents the minimum syntactic 
elaboration of a lexical item X for it to function as complement of 
the verb *to be* $X$ will be said to be a \textbf{hyponym} of Y (and, by the 
same token, Y a \textbf{super ordinate} of X) if A is $f(x)$ entails but is not 
entailed by A is $f(y)$

Example:

This is a DOG unilaterally entails this is an ANIMAL

d) **Fromklin, Rodman, Hyams’ theory**$^{26}$

Knowing a word means knowing both its sounds (pronunciation) and 
its meaning. Both are crucial in determining whether words are the 
same or different. If words differ in pronunciation but have the same 
meaning, such as sofa and couch, they are different words.

01. Homonymy

$^{26}$Victoria fromklin, Robert rodman and Nina hyams, *An introduction to language*, United 
Words like *tale* and *tail* are **homonyms**. Homonyms are different words that are pronounced the same, but may or may not be spelled the same. *To*, *too* and *two* are homonyms despite their spelling differences.

Homonyms can create ambiguity. A word or a sentence is ambiguous if it can be understood or interpreted in more than one way.

02. Polysemous

When a word has multiple meanings that are related conceptually or historically, it is said to be **polysemous** (polly-seamus). Open a dictionary of English to any page and you will find words with more than one definition, for example, *guard*, *music*, and *rot*. Each of these words is polysemous because each has several meanings.

03. Heteronym

A related concept is heteronym. Two words are heteronyms if they are spelled the same, but pronounced differently, and have different meanings. *Dove* the bird and *dove* the past tense of *dive* are heteronyms, as are *bass*, *bow*, *lead*, *wind*, and hundreds of others.

04. Homographs

Homographs are words that spelled the same, but have different meanings, such as *dove* the bird, and *dove*, the past tense of *dive*. When homonyms are spelled the same, they are also homographs, for example *bear and bear*, but not all homonyms are homographs.
(bear and bare). On the other hand, by definition, all heteronyms are also homographs. The following table should help sort out these confusing, over-lapping terms.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Homonyms</th>
<th>Heteronyms</th>
<th>Homographs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pronounced identically</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes/No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spelled identically</td>
<td>Yes/No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

05. Antonyms

The meaning of a word may be partially defined by saying what it is not. Male means not female, dead means not alive. Words that are opposite in meaning are often called antonyms. Ironically, the basic property of words that are antonyms is that they share all but one semantic property. Beautiful and tall are not antonyms; Beautiful and ugly, or tall and short, are. The property they do not share is present in one and absent in the other.

There are several kinds of antonym. There are complementary pairs:

Alive/dead  present/absent  awake/asleep

They are complementary in that not alive = dead and not dead = alive, so on.

There are gradable pairs of antonyms:

Big/small  fast/slow  happy/sad.
06. Hyponyms

Speakers of English know that the words red, white, and blue are “color” words, that is their lexical representations have the feature [+color] indicating a class to which they all belong. Similarly lion, tiger, leopard, and lynx have the feature [+feline]. Such sets of words are called hyponyms. The relationship of hyponymy is between the more general term such as color and the more specific instances of it such as red. Thus red is hyponym of color, and lion is a hyponym of feline; or equivalently, color has hyponym red and feline has the hyponym lion.

07. Metonyms

A metonym substitutes for the object that is meant, the name of an attribute or concept associated with that object. The use of crown for king, or for the government ruled by a king, is an example of metonymy. So is the use of brass to refer to military leaders. Metonyms are often employed by the news services. Sportswriters are especially adept, using gridiron for football; diamond for baseball; ice for hockey; turf for horseracing; and so on. Metonyms for governments such as Kremlin, Whitehall, Washington, and Baghdad are commonplace. Metonyms need not be a single word.

e) John Saeed.

According to saeed there are some kinds of lexical relations such as

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27 John saeed, semantic (oxford, Blackwell, 2000) p. 63-71
01. Homonymy

Saeed mentions that homonyms are unrelated senses of the same phonological word.

Example:

Bark₁ ‘outer covering wood’
Bark₂ ‘harsh sound, uttered by a dog’

02. Polysemy

Polysemy is similar to homonymy, but in polysemy there is close relation between word and syllable shape is the same.

Example:

Hook ‘kail’
Hook ‘pengait’

03. Synonyms

Synonym is different phonological words that have the same meaning or very similar.

Example:

Large and big

04. Opposites (antonyms)

In traditional terminology, antonyms are words which are opposite in meaning. It is useful, however, to identify several different types of relationships under a more general label of opposition. There are a number of relations which seem to involve words which are at the
same time related in meaning yet incompatible or contrasting; we list some of them below:

- **Simple antonyms**
  This is a relation between words such that the negative of one implies the positive of the other.
  Dead/Alive

- **Gradable antonyms**
  This is a relation between opposites where the positive of one term doesn’t necessarily imply the negative of the other.
  Rich/Poor

- **Reverses**
  The characteristic reverse relation is between terms describing movement, where one term describes movement in one direction, and the other the same movement in opposite direction.
  Push/Pull

- **Converses**
  These are terms which describe a relation between two entities from alternate viewpoints, such as
  Above/Below
05. Hyponymy

Hyponymy is the inclusion relation; hyponyms refers to the vertical relationship of taxonomy, a hyponym includes the meaning of a more general word.

Dog and Cat are hyponyms of animals.

06. Meronymy

Meronymy is a term used to describe a part-whole relationship between lexical items.

Cover and Page are meronyms of book

07. Retronym is a new phrase that created for an old object or concept whose original name has become associated with something else.

Example:

Guitar \(\rightarrow\) guitar acoustic

Phone \(\rightarrow\) hand phone

08. Member collection

This is a relationship between the word for a unit and the usual word for a collection of the units.

Examples include:

Book   Library

Tree   Forest

Worshipper   congregation
09. Portion-mass

This is a relation between a mass noun and the usual unit of measurement or division.

Examples:

Drop of liquid
Sheet of paper
Strand of hair

E. Word Meaning

The study of the meanings of words and sentences is called semantics. In semantics, we learn about words and their meanings. What is a word without meaning? The lexical meaning (word meaning) is the meaning which is owned by a lexeme without context. Lexical meaning is the basic meaning of word that is according in dictionary. Semantic as one of the branches of pure linguistics is simply defined as the study of meaning in language. Before going any further, first thing that you have to know is the word meaning itself. There are at least seven types of meaning (many linguists state their different categories of meaning) in semantics according Geoffrey leech (1974), those are:

1. Conceptual meaning (logical, cognitive, or denotative content)

   It refers to the dictionary meaning which indicates the concepts. In reading we can find many different words have the same conceptual meaning or the primary dictionary meaning is to move forwards by

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29Abdul Chaer, linguistics umum, (Jakarta: PT. Rineka Cipta, 2007) p. 289
30Awinlanguage.blogspot.com/2013/04/types-of-meaning.html
placing one foot in front of the other. There are also a few other words that, according to the dictionary, mean to move forward on foot, etc.

2. Connotative meaning (what is communicated by virtue of what language refers to)

It refers to the associations that are connected to a certain word or the emotional suggestions related to that word. The connotative meanings of a word exist together with the denotative meanings. The connotations for the word snake could include evil or danger.

3. Social meaning (what is communicated of the social circumstances of language use)

It refers to the usage of language in and by society which has big proportions in determining the meaning that certain speaker has to use and wants to convey, those factors include social class of the speaker and hearer and the degree of formality. Only part of the social meaning of a conversation is carried by words. Take saying hello or talking about the weather. Often such talk has little dictionary meaning. It is a way of being friendly or polite.

4. Affective meaning (what is communicated of the feeling and attitudes of the speaker/writer)

It refers to the speaker’s feeling/attitude towards the content or the ongoing context. It is important to remember that each individual will have a different affective meaning for a word. As such, only the person using a word will be aware of the particular affective meaning that
they hold with the word. For example, we can discuss the word winter further. The word winter denotatively refers to a time period during which either the northern or southern hemisphere is furthest away from the sun. Different use of stress and intonation also provides a striking contrast in the feelings and attitudes communicated through an utterance.

5. Reflected meaning (what is communicated through association with another sense of the same expression)
It refers to terms which have more than one meaning surfaces at the same time, so there is a kind of ambiguity. It is as if one or more unintended meanings were inevitably thrown back rather like light or sound reflected on surface. For instance, if I use medical expression chronic bronchitis, it is a difficult for the more colloquial emotive meaning of chronic, ‘bad’, not to intrude as well….

Sometimes, such coincidental, ‘unwanted’ meanings cause us to change a lexical item for another.

6. Collocative meaning (what is communicated through association with words which tend to occur in the environment of another word)
It refers to the associations a word acquires on account of the meanings of words which tend to occur in its environment. In other words, it is that part of the word meaning suggested by the words that go before or come after a word in question, for instance, heavy news (a piece of sad news); heavy schedule (a very tight schedule); fast color (the color that
does not fade); fast friend (a reliable friend); fast women (a lady of easy virtue), etc.

7. Thematic meaning (what is communicated by the way in which the message is organized in terms of order and emphasis)

It relates to or constitutes a topic of discourse; the meaning that the word conveys is that of that is connected with the theme of something types 2-6 are also categorized as associative meaning.

A dictionary seems to obvious place to find a record of the meanings of words.  

The dictionary is very important to know the word meanings accurately, and it will not be conveyed well the intention of someone that wants to says or write something. It is quite obvious to any user for any language that there is an intimate connection between the lexicon and meaning. Generally word meanings are firstly compared by meaning that the quality of denotation and connotation.

1. Denotation

Denotation refers to the literal meaning of a word, the dictionary definition. For example, if you look up the word snake in a dictionary, you will discover that one its denotative meanings is any of numerous scaly, legless, sometimes venomous reptiles having a long, tapering, cylindrical body and found in most tropical and temperate regions.

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33 Gorys Kerf (1984), op.cit. p.27

Denotation is the basic concept is supported by a word (meaning it refer to the concept, referent, or idea). Denotation is also the main limitation of a dictionary or definition of the word, as opposed to connotations or meaning something to do with it. Denotation refers the actual meaning.\textsuperscript{35}

The crucial different between reference and denotation is that the denotation of an expression is invariant and utterance-independent: it is part of the meaning which the expression has in the language-system, independently of its use of particular occasions of utterance. Reference, in contrast, is variable and utterance-dependent. For example, the word ‘dog’ always denotes the same class of animals (alternatively, the defining property of the class), whereas the phrase ‘the dog’ or ‘my dog’ or ‘the dog that bit the postman’ will refer to different members of class on different occasions of utterance.\textsuperscript{36}

There are other reasons too for taking a wary approach to the notion that meaning is only about expressions being applied to ‘real world’ phenomena, whether referential or denotation ally. For one thing, there are words whose simple cannot be accounted for in this way – words like \textit{if}, \textit{and}, \textit{should}, \textit{nevertheless}. All of these items have meaning, but certainly not by virtue of identifying observable phenomena or classes of phenomena in the ‘real world’. There are also expressions that relate to phenomena which do not exist – \textit{mermaid}, \textit{tooth-fairy}, \textit{unicorn}, etc.

\textsuperscript{35}Gorys Keraf (1984), op.cit. p.89.
can we say that such expressions have no meaning just because they have no corresponding denotative in the ‘real world'? Certainly not.  

Examples of denotation meaning:

- **White house**

  White house in that example is real the house with the white paint

2. Connotation

A distinction is often drawn between the ‘denotation’ of a word and its ‘connotation’. While the denotation is the straightforward, neutral relation between a word and its referent, the connotation brings in the, often motive, associations that a word may have for a speaker or a community of speakers. Moreover, must know the denotative word, first, before they say the word in order to be understood by readers or listeners. It is because the connotative meanings of a word exist together with the denotative meanings. For example, the connotations for the word snake could include evil or danger.

Connotation is kind of sense of word connote imagination or the value of a particular flavor. Connotations are the impressions or associations and is usually caused by emotional a word in the dictionary next to the

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38 Howard Jackson (2002), loc.cit.
boundary or the main definition. A connotation refers to the figurative meaning or significance is not true.\textsuperscript{40}

Examples of connotation meaning:

- **White House**

  In that example the sentence has connotation meaning, which sentence means the house of president in US.

**F. Editorial of the Newspaper\textsuperscript{41}\**

An editorial is an article that presents the newspaper’s opinion on an issue. It reflects the majority vote of the editorial board, the governing body of the newspaper made up of editors and business managers. It is usually unsigned. Much in the same manner of a lawyer, editorial writers build on an argument and try to persuade readers to think the same way they do. Editorials are meant to influence public opinion, promote critical thinking, and sometimes cause people to take action on an issue. In essence, an editorial is an opinionated news story.

Editorials have:

1. Introduction, body and conclusion like other news stories
2. An objective explanation of the issue, especially complex issues
3. A timely news angle
4. Opinions from the opposing viewpoint that refute directly the same issues the writer addresses

\textsuperscript{40}Gorys Keraf (1984), op.cit. p.89.
\textsuperscript{41}http://www.geneseo.edu/~bennett/EdWrite.htm
5. The opinions of the writer delivered in a professional manner. Good editorials engage issues, not personalities and refrain from name-calling or other petty tactics of persuasion.

6. Alternative solutions to the problem or issue being criticized. Anyone can gripe about a problem, but a good editorial should take a pro-active approach to making the situation better by using constructive criticism and giving solutions.

7. A solid and concise conclusion that powerfully summarizes the writer's opinion. Give it some punch.

Four Types of Editorials Will:
1. Explain or interpret: Editors often use these editorials to explain the way the newspaper covered a sensitive or controversial subject. School newspapers may explain new school rules or a particular student-body effort like a food drive.

2. Criticize: These editorials constructively criticize actions, decisions or situations while providing solutions to the problem identified. Immediate purpose is to get readers to see the problem, not the solution.

3. Persuade: Editorials of persuasion aim to immediately see the solution, not the problem. From the first paragraph, readers will be encouraged to take a specific, positive action. Political endorsements are good examples of editorials of persuasion.
4. Praise: These editorials commend people and organizations for something done well. They are not as common as the other three.

Writing an Editorial

1. Pick a significant topic that has a current news angle and would interest readers.
2. Collect information and facts; include objective reporting; do research
3. State your opinion briefly in the fashion of a thesis statement
4. Explain the issue objectively as a reporter would and tell why this situation is important
5. Give opposing viewpoint first with its quotations and facts
6. Refute (reject) the other side and develop your case using facts, details, figures, quotations. Pick apart the other side's logic.
7. Concede a point of the opposition — they must have some good points you can acknowledge that would make you look rational.
8. Repeat key phrases to reinforce an idea into the reader's minds.
9. Give a realistic solution(s) to the problem that goes beyond common knowledge. Encourage critical thinking and pro-active reaction.
10. Wrap it up in a concluding punch that restates your opening remark (thesis statement).
11. Keep it to 500 words; make every work count; never use "I"
CHAPTER III
RESEARCH FINDINGS

A. Data Description

In this chapter the researcher is going to group the diction and lexical relation in every paragraph. Then, the researcher will give the contextual meaning of every paragraph. So, the reader can be easily understood the text. Anyway, the data that will be analyzed as the following table: discusses about data description and data analysis.

Table 1: Weaning Indonesia off subsidized fuel.

Table 2: Subsidized fuel and social media protest.
Table I
Weaning Indonesia off subsidized fuel

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Text of paragraph</th>
<th>Types of Diction</th>
<th>Lexical relation</th>
<th>Types of word meaning</th>
<th>Contextual meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>After a little more than a week of imposing daily quota volumes on the sale of subsidized fuel, PERTAMINA rolled them back.</td>
<td>Popular word</td>
<td>Meronyms of quantity</td>
<td>Denotation</td>
<td>Returning back the quota volume on the sale of subsidized fuel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>The reason? Long lines and Indonesians concerned of running out of subsidized gasoline and diesel before the end of the year, which led to a so-called “panic buying”.</td>
<td>Abstract word</td>
<td>Retronym</td>
<td>Connotation</td>
<td>a situation in which many people suddenly buy as much fuel as they can because they are worried about something bad that may happen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Legislators aren’t likely to</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
attend the quota of 46 million kiloliters for this year, once all of the subsidized fuel allotment has been used up. It’s a politically charged issue; if the government is unwilling to forget the quota, Indonesians would be upset, and that could potentially lead to unrest.

4. With the government’s inability to raise subsidized fuel prices further this year – a move that would have at least narrowed the gap between subsidized and non-subsidized fuel – they heavy task now falls to

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Popular word</th>
<th>Synonym</th>
<th>Denotation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>upset</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unrest</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Indonesians will be upset and unrest if the subsidized fuel allotment has been used up before the end of this year.

Joko Widodo’s heavy task for raising subsidized fuel prices this year.
president-elect Joko Widodo.

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>It’s now no longer a matter of when fuel prices will <strong>rise</strong>, but by how much. Legislators have hinted at raising the price by Rp.1000 (8 cents) a litter, with suggest an <strong>increase</strong> of 15 percent. Last year, a liter of gas was raised by 44 percent. The increase will cause <strong>prices</strong> of other goods and services to rise, but it would at least be concrete move toward reducing the burden of subsidies <strong>cost</strong>.</td>
<td>Common word</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The debate between the president and the legislators how much the subsidized fuel will be raised.

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>The archipelago has become</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
accustomed to cheap fuel. For a program that was originally meant to help poor farmers in covering their transportation costs, white collared workers are now taking advantage. The situation would be easier if the country had fewer cars and motorcycles on the road, but that’s not going to happen in this growing economy.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Concrete word</th>
<th>Hyponyms of vehicle</th>
<th>Denotation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>white collared workers</td>
<td>take more advantage than the farmers and the poor referring to the fuel prices rise.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7. Indonesia can, at this point, be likened to a child that once again has gotten its way by evoking a tantrum when a toy taken away. But probably it’s time to let

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Jargon on idiomatic words</th>
<th>Synonyms</th>
<th>Connotation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>At this situation, Indonesia is similar as an angry child when his toy is taken away from him and let him crying it out – for his own good.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table II
Subsidized fuel and social media protest

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Text of paragraph</th>
<th>Diction</th>
<th>Lexical relation</th>
<th>Types of word meaning</th>
<th>Contextual meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>One consequence can lead to another. In the case of Florence Sihombing, it was fears of dwindling supplies of subsidized fuel that led to a negative posting on social media.</td>
<td>Popular word</td>
<td>Retronym of media</td>
<td>Denotative</td>
<td>Negative posting can make a negative effect in life.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>When the 26-year-old student of Gadjah Mada University in Yogyakarta tried to buy non-subsidized</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
gasoline for her motorcycle on Wednesday, she was directed toward the end of a long queue of people buying subsidized fuel. After being jeered for attempting to cut in line, she left the station upset and vented her frustration on the social media network Path.

| 3. | “Jogja is poor, stupid and uncultured. Friends in Jakarta and Bandung, please don’t stay in Jogja,” she wrote. Her post went viral and a flurry of protests ensued. A local group lodged a complaint with the police, who questioned and then arrested. |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Common word | Synonyms | Denotative |
| She is being jeered when she tries to cut in line in buy non-subsidized fuel, but can’t then she left the gas station upset. |
| She post her angry on social media path, on path she writes some negative posting about Jogja. That’s make she gets arrest. |
arrested her.

4. The circumstances of her detention should be a concern for every person in Indonesia. While her remarks may be considered insensitive, her comments were not life-threatening.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abstract word</th>
<th>Retronym</th>
<th>Denotative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>life-threatening</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Even her post is not life-threatening but her negative posting should be concerned by every person.

5. Has tyranny and bullying given way to better judgment? Everyone should be able to express oneself freely in Indonesia, the largest democracy in Southeast Asia.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Popular word</th>
<th>Synonym</th>
<th>Denotative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>expression</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Everyone just needs to express oneself freely in Indonesia without tyranny and bullying.

6. During the presidential election, many who sided with Joko Widodo hurled bitter criticism toward rival

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<table>
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<tr>
<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>supporters</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

The supporters from the
<p>| | |</p>
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<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Prabowo Subianto and his supporters.</strong> The same was true of Prabowo’s backers toward Joko, in a hotly contested election that divided the nation. Yet, not everyone was arrested.</td>
<td><strong>Common word</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td><strong>7.</strong> Should Indonesia become a military state like in Thailand, where protesters are arrested and detained for utterances critical of military rule? No.</td>
<td><strong>Common word</strong></td>
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<td><strong>8.</strong> In Florence’s case, she had apologized for her remarks, and we should have left it at that. To draw the matter into the courts would be senseless and a waste of legal</td>
<td><strong>Jargon</strong></td>
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resources. **There are bigger fish to fry.**
B. Data Analysis

- Text I (Weaning Indonesia of subsidized fuel)

1. According to Keraf, in the first paragraph, *quota volume* is a phrase of popular word because that phrase is commonly used by all levels of society, either the intelligentsia or the average person. In addition, John Saeed includes to the meronyms of quantity, because this words ‘quota and volume’ used to describe a part – whole relationship between lexical items and part of quantity, usually used to describe amount. *Quota volume* phrase can be classified into a denotative meaning, because the meaning can be found in the dictionary, the phrase quota volume explains amount of gasoline. The main context of the first paragraph is returning back the quota volume on the sale of subsidized fuel.

2. In this second paragraph, *panic buying* is a phrase that includes abstract word in the types of diction because that have a referent in h form of concepts, words described as difficult abstract references cannot be absorbed by human sense whereas in lexical relation this phrase is including to retronym. Why it is called retronym because that is a new phrase created for an old object or concept whose original name has become associated with something else. *Panic buying* itself has a connotative meaning because it’s not used the meaning in
dictionary, in dictionary panic buying means buy something in panic condition but that phrase actually means the buyer who buys a lot of gasoline in order to avoid the scarcity of subsidized gasoline.

3. In this paragraph upset is synonym with unrest because has different phonological words that have the same meaning. Those words commonly used by all levels of society. Upset and unrest are using denotatively meaning because used dictionary meaning. Just like in Cambridge Dictionary upset/ʌp'set/ verb [ T ] : upsetting , upset , upset WORRY to make someone worried, unhappy or angry. Whereas unrest/ʌn'rest/ noun [ U ] : disagreements or fighting between different groups of people. Upset and unrest will be experienced by Indonesian people if the subsidized fuel allotment has been used up.

4. In this paragraph subsidized and nonsubsidized is simple antonym according to John Saeed because the relation between words such that the negative of one implies the positive of the other. The type of diction on that word is popular word because commonly used by all levels of society and denotative because it is using the meaning that can be finding in the dictionary. The main context of this paragraph is the elected
president Joko Widodo will face heavy task for raising subsidized oil prices before the end of this year.

5. In this paragraph rise and increase have a same meaning in dictionary that’s why they call synonyms and also prices and costs. Rise /rʌːz/ verb rose, risen MOVE UP [ I ] : to move upwards and increase /ɪnˈkriːs/ verb [ I or T ] : to (make something) become larger in amount or size. Also price /praɪs/ noun [ C ] : the amount of money for which something is sold and cost /kəst/ /kɔːst/ noun Money [ U ] : the amount of money needed to buy, do or make something. Rice and increase also costs and prices are denotative meaning and popular words because used by all levels of society. The context of this paragraph is the debate between the president and the legislators in deciding how much the subsidized fuel will be raised.

6. In this paragraph cars and motorcycle are hyponyms of vehicle because those words refer to the vertical relationship of taxonomy or more general word. That has denotative meaning which include to the concrete word because those words refer to something that can be seen or sensed directly by human senses. In that context the white collared workers will take more advantage than the farmers and the poor refer to fuel prices rise.
7. In the seventh paragraph, the phrases “evoking a tantrum when a toy taken away” and “let the child cry it out” are jargon in the forms of idiomatic expressions, both of them have similar meaning, that is, make the child angry and cry. In other words, both phrases are synonyms. This paragraph describes that at this situation (raising oil prices) Indonesia is similar as an angry child when his toy is taken away and let him crying it out – for the child own good.

Text 2 (Subsidized fuel and social media protest)

1. In the first paragraph, social media is a retronyms of media because the new phrase that created for an old object or concept whose originally name has become associated with something else. That includes to the popular word because used by all levels of society and use denotative meaning because the meaning was stated in the dictionary. This paragraph talks about Florence’s post on path; negative posting can make a negative effect in life.

2. In this paragraph jeered and upset are synonyms because they have similar meaning, jeer /dʒɪər/ verb [ I or T ]: to laugh or shout insults at someone to show you have no respect for them and upset /ʌpˈset/ verb [ T ]: upsetting , upset , upset WORRY to make someone worried, unhappy or angry but in
this context the meaning is closer to something annoying which uses denotative meaning. That includes to the common word in the types of diction because almost everyone is often and known that words and commonly used by people. The main context of the second paragraph is about Florence who feels jeered when she tries to cut in line in buying non-subsidized fuel but she can’t, and then she left the gas station with upset.

3. In the next paragraph we find post and write, which include popular word because commonly used by all levels of society and have synonyms relation because that words have similar meaning. Just like in Cambridge Dictionary their meaning are similar post /pəʊst/ /poʊst/ verb [ T ] : MESSAGE to stick or pin a notice on a wall in order to make it publicly known and write /raɪt/ verb wrote , written or old use writ [ I or T ] : to send a letter or similar message to someone, giving them information or expressing your thoughts or feelings. That use denotative meaning. The main context in the third paragraph is about negative posting that Florence wrote on path after she left the gas station, she writes some negative comments about Jogja. That’s why she gets arrested.

4. In this paragraph life-threatening is a retronyms of life because life was named before and then turns up that life-threatening. That includes to the abstract word because that
used to explain the thoughts are technically and specialized and use denotative meaning. This paragraph talks about Florence’s post on path, even her post is not life-threatening but her post should be concerned by everyone and no one get arrested just because their posting on social media.

5. In this paragraph **tyranny** and **bullying** are synonyms because those have same meaning just like we can see in Cambridge Dictionary **tyranny** /ˈtɪr.əni/ noun [ U ] : when a situation or person controls how you are able to live, in an unfair way and **bullying** /ˈbʊliŋ/ noun [ U ] : treating people or animals badly. That includes popular word because commonly used by all levels of society and use denotative meaning. The main context of this paragraph is everyone just needs to express oneself freely in Indonesia without tyranny and bullying.

6. In this paragraph **Supporters** and **backers** are synonyms because have similar meaning as like in Cambridge Dictionary **supporter** /ˈsəˈpɔːtər/ noun [ C ] : someone who supports a particular idea, group or person and **backer** /ˈbækər/ noun [ C ] : someone who gives financial support to something. That is common word because general words refer to many things and use denotative meaning. The main context in this sixth paragraph is about supporter of the two candidates of presidential election is being hurl bitter criticism each other.
7. In this paragraph arrested and detained is synonyms because that have a similar meaning in context, also in dictionary arrest
/ar'sest/ verb [ T ] : CATCH If the police arrest someone, they take them away to ask them about a crime which they might have committed and detain /d'teɪn/ verb [ T often passive ] : to force someone officially to stay in a place. That is a common word because general words refer to many things and use denotative meaning. This paragraph is talking about making the rule where the protesters for critical of military utterance are arrested and detained just like in Thailand

8. In this paragraph the phrase “there are the bigger fish to fry” is including jargon and use connotative meaning. In that phrase there is no lexical relation. That phrase means there is more important problem that Indonesia has to fix.
CHAPTER IV

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

A. Conclusion

From the data that the researcher analyzes according to the research question mentioned in chapter I, the conclusions can be arranged. The research question is what are the types of diction and lexical relation written in understanding the context are. Firstly the researcher groups the diction and lexical relation from the editorials, and then the researcher explains the contextual meaning in every paragraph of the editorials.

The researcher found some kinds of lexical relation and diction that used in the editorials. The lexical relations that found were synonyms, antonyms, hyponyms, meronyms, and retronyms. But the lexical relations that often used by the editor were synonyms. The kind of diction that found is abstract word, popular word, concrete word, common word and jargon. Whereas for the type of diction that often used by the editor was popular word.

B. Suggestion

After analyzing the data, the researcher has some suggestions are related to the results of the research will be presented as follows:

1. For future researcher, the researcher suggests to add more theories about diction and add the understanding about lexical relation and diction also the future researcher have to more concern to research design.
2. For the reader, the researcher suggests to be more carefully when the reader read this thesis, in order to avoid the misunderstanding.
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Journal

Indrawati suleman, 2013 (diksi dalam novel saat langit dan bumi bercumbu).
After a little more than a week of imposing daily quota volumes on the sale of subsidized fuel, Pertamina rolled them back.

The reason? Long lines and Indonesians concerned of running out of subsidized gasoline and diesel before the end of the year, which led to a so-called “panic buying.”

Legislators aren’t likely to extend the quota of 46 million kiloliters for this year, once all of the subsidized fuel allotment has been used up. It’s a politically charged issue; if the government is unwilling to forgo the quota, Indonesians would be upset, and that could potentially lead to unrest.

With the government’s inability to raise subsidized fuel prices further this year — a move that would have at least narrowed the gap between subsidized and non-subsidized fuel — the heavy task now falls to President-elect Joko Widodo.

It’s now no longer a matter of when fuel prices will rise, but by how much. Legislators have hinted at raising the price by Rp 1,000 (8 cents) a liter, which suggests an increase of 15 percent. Last year, a liter of gas was raised by 44 percent. The increase will cause prices of other goods and services to rise, but it would at least be a concrete move toward reducing the burden of subsidies costs.

The archipelago has become accustomed to cheap fuel. For a program that was originally meant to help poor farmers in covering their transportation costs, white-collared workers are now taking advantage. The situation would be easier if the country had fewer cars and motorcycles on the road, but that’s not going to happen in this growing economy.

Indonesia can, at this point, be likened to a child that once again has gotten its way by evoking a tantrum when a toy is taken away. But probably it’s time to let the child cry it out — for its own good.
Text 2

Editorial: Subsidized Fuel and Social Media Protest

By Jakarta Globe on 11:17 pm Aug 31, 2014
Category Editorial, Opinion
Tags: Path, social media, yogyakarta

One consequence can lead to another. In the case of Florence Sihombing, it was fears of dwindling supplies of subsidized fuel that led to a negative posting on social media.

When the 26-year-old student of Gadjah Mada University in Yogyakarta tried to buy non-subsidized gasoline for her motorcycle on Wednesday, she was directed toward the end of a long queue of people buying subsidized fuel. After being jeered for attempting to cut in line, she left the station upset and vented her frustration on the social media network Path.

"Jogja is poor, stupid and uncultured. Friends in Jakarta and Bandung, please don't stay in Jogja," she wrote. Her post went viral and a flurry of protests ensued. A local group lodged a complaint with the police, who questioned and then arrested her.

The circumstances of her detainment should be a concern for every person in Indonesia. While her remarks may be considered insensitive, her comments were not life-threatening.

Has tyranny and bullying given way to better judgment? Everyone should be able to express oneself freely in Indonesia, the largest democracy in Southeast Asia.

During the presidential election, many who sided with Joko Widodo hurled bitter criticism toward rival Prabowo Subianto and his supporters. The same was true of Prabowo's backers toward Joko, in a hotly contested election that divided the nation. Yet, not everyone was arrested.

Should Indonesia become a military state like in Thailand, where protesters are arrested and detained for utterances critical of military rule? No.

In Florence's case, she had apologized for her remarks, and we should have left it at that. To draw the matter into the courts would be senseless and a waste of legal resources. There are bigger fish to fry.