

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

I.1. Background of the Study.

Learning a second language involves familiarizing oneself with at least part of its vocabulary and learning to apply the rules of its grammar. This means that a great many lexical elements have to be learnt by heart: the L2 (target language) learner has to get acquainted with words and fixed phrases. Undoubtedly, a large number of the latter can be expected to require a greater learning effort than single words. The ability to use fixed phrases seems to be a fairly good indication of the command one has of the second language. It is well-known fact that it is far more difficult to write in a second language than it is to understand a text in the same language. For text production, one has to be able to select the appropriate words, or fixed phrases, from the lexicon and to use them according to the rules. So L2 learner has at least two difficult things to do: memorizing the fixed phrases and learning how to use them appropriately (*Verstraten, p.28 par.1*)

According to Benson, Benson and Ilson, the compilers of the BBI Combinatory Dictionary of English (1986; ix), in English as in any other languages there are many fixed, identifiable, non-idiomatic phrases and constructions. Such groups of words are called recurrent combinations, fixed combinations or collocations. These authors give the example of *murder* and its collocates. On hearing the noun we immediately recall from memory the verb to commit and the phrases *to commit a murder*. It is only later that other verbs like to

verbs like *to investigate (a murder)*, *to describe (a murder)* or *to witness (a murder)* appear. To commit a murder is a far more fixed collocation than those with the other three verbs. Relative fixedness is a characteristic of collocations. Another characteristic is their non-idiomaticity.

Although idioms are another category of fixed sequences, their meaning is often non-combinatory, i.e. it can not be decoded from the meanings of their constituents; on the contrary the meaning of collocations is always transparent.

Two principal classes of collocations can be distinguished, namely grammatical collocations and lexical collocations. Grammatical collocations consist of a content word (verb, noun or adjective) and a grammatical word such as a preposition or certain structural patterns, e.g. *that*-clause, *to* + infinitive, gerund.

Examples:

- a pleasure to do something
- in advance
- he kept talking

While lexical collocations contain no subordinate element in combination.

Surprisingly, it turns out that there are not many references that can be found concerning vocabulary learning and teaching as part of applied linguistics up to this time. According to Arnaud and Bejoint (1992: x), taking evidence from a survey of *Les Langues Modernes* (the journal of the French foreign-language teachers' association) by Parze (1990) between its inception in 1903 and its first thematic issue on vocabulary in 1985, it turns up

that there were only a handful of relevant publications on vocabulary learning or teaching. In the mean time, a survey of ongoing research on language testing by Jones (1980) mentioned only ten references concerned with vocabulary as against 73 on communicative competence. Meanwhile, Meara entitled his 1980 survey article 'Vocabulary acquisition: A neglected aspect of language learning'. However, in recent years the situation has begun to change as shown by the number of books or collections of papers such as shown by the number of books or collections of papers such as Wallace (1982), Allen (1983), Morgan and Rinvoluceri (1986), Carter (1987), Carter and McCarthy (1988), Nation and Carter (1989), McCarthy (1990), Nation (1990), Taylor (1990), etc. This constitutes evidence of the present research activity in the field of vocabulary.

Arnaud and Bejoint (1992; x-xii), quoting Carter, divide the research in the field of vocabulary into three groups. First is vocabulary description. This is mainly the domain of lexicology and its applied branch, lexicography. If we are to understand the processes of the acquisition of a foreign vocabulary, it is indeed necessary to be able to rely on descriptions of the units that make up the lexicon and on analyses of their characteristics in discourse.

With different circumstances, the same thing may happen here in the English Department of Airlangga. The research on vocabulary according to the writer is still a new subject and barely touched. This is a new frontier for further studies where students have never gone before quoting the remarks in the Star Trek movie.

One of the big problems of lexicography, with obvious consequences in language learning and teaching, is the identification of the basic lexical unit. The writer's study belongs to this category.

Second is vocabulary learning. This is a mental activity which, like all mental phenomena, can be viewed from many angles. How do foreign words and other lexical units find their way into the learner's mind and how are they organized there? A research by Wode who adduces a series of lexical considerations in support of a 'universal theory of language acquisition', says that the mechanisms that underlie language acquisition are fundamentally the same, whatever the learner and learning circumstances. Observable differences are due to different maturational stages; for instance, lexical acquisition by children is influenced by phonological development, cognitive maturation and the appearance of grammatical categories.

The third group is vocabulary teaching. This is mainly concerned with finding effective and efficient ways of teaching vocabulary such as active discoveries.

Cowie (1992) says that journalistic prose draws heavily on verb-noun collocations that are already well established and widely known. In-up-to-the-minute news reporting especially, there is little evidence of lexical originality, even mildly adventurous matchings of verb and noun, such as: *ride out a criticism* (cf. *ride out the storm*), *recoup the ground loss* (cf. *recoup one's losses*), are extremely rare.

Neither for the most part, do news writers use idioms in the strict sense (i.e. word-combinations that are semantically opaque as well as formally fixed). To a remarkable extent.

they select collocations in which the sense of the verb, long established as a figurative extension of some primary sense, is now moribund or dead: *solve a problem*, for example or *abandon one's principle* or *call for action*.

The high incidence of such familiar expressions in news coverage suggests that the professional skill of reporters owes less to verbal inventiveness than to the memorization and re-use of existing locutions. According to Brumfit (1980: 171) that vocabulary resources are essentially plastic and manipulable. In a passage that sets the language user's creative management of these resources above his simple knowledge of them, Brumfit states:

It is important to emphasize that people use language rather than have language, and it is important to emphasize that as they use it they create new things from it, as craftsman does with clay. (1980: 171)

Yet the sheer pervasiveness of familiar word-combinations in the performance of mature native speakers shows that this view is at best an oversimplification. In a much quoted study of so-called 'memorized sequences' in conversational data, Pawley and Syder (1983) attribute the skilful speaker's ability to encode whole clauses at a time, thus achieving great fluency, to his or her knowledge of many thousands of memorized sequences and a much larger stock of lexicalized units (i.e. those which would call for inclusion in a collocational dictionary, and which Cowie is chiefly concerned with in his paper). In a paper which stressed stability of form and meaning as highly characteristic of vocabulary use, Cowie (1988a: 132) suggests that the evolution of idioms (in the strict sense) was a result of memory storage of multiword units and their constant re-use in a stable form. Repetition of

invariable units has the effect, in time, of draining away meaning from the constituent words and transferring it to the composite as a whole.

Therefore, it is very interesting to trace and find out about the use of *multiword lexical units* (the term used by Zgusta and Cowie) in the only English daily newspaper in Surabaya, the Indonesian Daily News (IDN). This is based on some grounds. First, Cowie in his study says that often journalists and news reporters/writers most of the time have to work under tight time constraints or deadline and this condition tends to pressure and limit their creativity in choosing and selecting the words and phrases.

Furthermore, Cowie stresses that under that condition, English native speaker reporters are inclined to use verb-noun collocations, phrases and expressions that are already well established and widely known and there is only little evidence of lexical originality. Lexical originality here means that the writer can freely and creatively manipulate established idioms and collocations. Cowie also says that in news reports (in this case news reports in countries where English is the first language) the number of idioms as part of multiword lexical units tends to be small.

It is very interesting to find out how far these multiword lexical units are used in the Surabaya based English newspaper 'The Indonesian Daily News' especially in the national scope articles (including here are news around Surabaya, Indonesia's economy, politics and society), which are written by Indonesian journalists (non-English native journalists). The reason behind this study of multiword lexical units in the articles of Indonesian Daily News is the writer's own experience in the journalism especially in the field of Indonesian-English

translation when the writer worked for the newspaper and found how difficult it was to acquire full knowledge of English multiword lexical units.

Here on the thesis about the study of the use of multiword lexical units in an English newspaper, the writer uses the classification made by Rosamund Moon although the writer also finds similar definitions and classifications by other authors such as Linda Verstraten and Anthony P. Cowie. The writer also includes Lattey's schematic and pragmatic classification of fixed expressions according to the orientation with which they are used. In addition, Moon's Textual Functions of Fixed Expressions are also used.

Moon actually uses the term *expressions* instead of *multiword lexical units*, while Verstraten (1992) comes up with '*fixed phrase*', which according to her will stand for any stable unit made up of at least two words. This is because according to her there seems to be no consensus on the meaning of terms like *idiom*, *expression*, *phrase*, etc. So *fixed phrase* is a broad working definition. She further says that it will be used to cover other terms such as *idiom*, *proverb*, *saying*, *expression*, etc. Trying to replace one or more elements by possible synonyms can test the stability of the unit. Most fixed phrases according to Verstraten do not allow such replacements at all, or they lose their meaning as units. Their meanings on the other hand can be compositional, partly compositional and partly non-compositional, or completely non-compositional. Non-compositional phrases are usually called *idioms*. According to Wood *an idiom* is a complex expression which is wholly non-compositional in meaning and wholly nonproductive in form. Because of the fixedness of fixed phrases one

can not freely replace a constituent by another without losing the whole or at least without either changing the meaning of the unit completely or causing a certain effect.

If close attention is paid to the definitions of Moon and Verstraten, a similarity can be found. This is supported by what Zgusta (1971:290) says, 'if a set expression or multiword lexical unit seems really to have the status of a stabilized lexical unit, there is no reason why it should not be treated and indicated in the same way as the other lexical units....'

So here it can be concluded that *multiword lexical unit* has the same meaning as both *fixed expression* and *fixed phrase* because it can cover all the terms mentioned by Moon and Verstraten. Furthermore, it can also cover collocations, fixed, identifiable, non-idiomatic phrases and constructions. These groups are also called recurrent or fixed combinations. In Verstraten's term, collocations have partly or wholly compositional meanings.

L2. Statement of the problems

Based on the background of the study stated above, the writer would like to answer the following problems:

- What are the kinds of multiword lexical units found in the article of the national scope articles of the Indonesian Daily News?
- Are there any free-variations or creative manipulations of the well-established collocations or other forms of multiword lexical units by the reporters of the articles in the Indonesian Daily News?

L3. Objective of the Study.

Through this study of the use of multiword lexical units in the national scope articles of the Indonesian Daily News, the writer would like to find out:

- The kinds of multiword lexical units found in the national scope articles of the newspaper.
- The existence of free-variations or creative manipulations of the well-established collocations or other forms of multiword lexical units by the reporters of the articles in the Indonesian Daily News.

L4. Significance of the study.

This study is expected to give a meaningful and useful contribution to the linguistics field, particularly for studies and research about vocabulary description, vocabulary learning and teaching.

This study is also hoped to provide the appropriate strategies for those who want to be involved or plunge into the world of English Journalism particularly concerning the use of multiword lexical units as one of the measurements for the proficiency of the English language users and learners.

L5. Scope and Limitation

Because of the time constraint faced by the writer to conduct this study, the scarcity of useful references concerning lexicography in Indonesia and the writer's limited ability, the writer will limit the study as such:

- This study is limited only in finding out about the kinds of multiword lexical units in the national scope articles of the Indonesian Daily News.

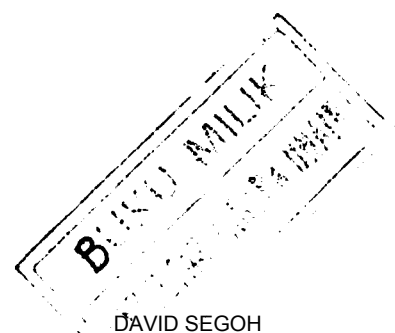
I.6. Theoretical Framework

The term 'multiword lexical unit' is coined by Zgusta, while other writers such as Linda Verstraten prefers to call them fixed phrases.

Zgusta (1971:154) says that Multiword Lexical Units carry lexical meaning in the same way as do single words. And just as in the case of single words, their lexical meaning can be of different types. Multiword lexical meaning like *sea anemone* or *guinea pig* has designative meaning; a multiword lexical unit as *good day!* is a pragmatic operator like (colloquial) *bye!* a multiword lexical unit like *good heavens!* is an attitudinal symptom like *Oho!*; a multiword lexical unit like *as to, inasmuch as* is a grammatical or relational operator like *if* etc. The parallelism of the multiword lexical unit and the single words is absolute and the lexicographer must take it into consideration.

Another writer, Lattey (1986:220ff.) mentions about the term fixed expressions which are also another name for multiword lexical units. Lattey produces a schematic and pragmatic classification of fixed expressions, according to the orientation with which they are used. She has four main groupings:

- expressions focusing on the interaction of individuals, - e.g. *lend someone a helping hand, be hard on someone's heels;*



- b. expressions focusing on the interaction of individuals and the world, - e.g. *take up arms for something, burn your bridges behind you*;
- c. expressions focusing on an individual - e.g. *keep a stiff upper lip, throw in the towel*;
- d. expressions focusing on the world - e.g. *go down the drain, be touch and go*.

These groupings can be further refined according to whether they evaluate positively, negatively or neutrally. The main thrust of this work is important, as it firmly situates fixed expressions in real discourse and real situation.

Moon (1992:13-15) says that the term 'fixed expressions' is a reasonably transparent, but the set of fixed expressions is an open one, according to how lexical fixedness is judged or determined, and the extent to which a lexically fixed collocation must be considered semantically opaque in order to count as a 'fixed expression'.

She also thinks that the class or subset of idioms is even more problematic. One of the key issues addressed in the literature of idiomatology is the distinction between idiom and non-idiom: what an idiom actually is. Yet, according to her, little or no agreement can be found, except for a weak consensus notion that an idiom is not the sum of its part (Verstraten, 1992).

This notion itself depends on the highly questionable idea that words have stable meanings, which may be isolated from their contexts. It is certainly true that there is a cline in strength of lexical association, from fixed or fossilized multiword units at one end of the cline to looser lexicalised sentence-stems and semi-restricted collocations at the other.

Moon says that the latter group is of greater significance for the language learner. They enable faster decoding and encoding of text, as work by Pawley and Syder (1983), Peters (1983) and Sinclair (1987)) suggests. However, she argues that the set of such units is impossible to define, and they are difficult to present lexicographically.

Fixed expressions may be divided into three groups. First, there are anomalous collocations. These are collocations which may be considered aberrant with respect to the lexicon as a whole: either because they are grammatically ill-formed (for example, *at large*, *by and large*, *through thick and thin*, *see you*) or because they are 'cranberry' idioms (Makkai, 1972: 43 and *passim*) in the sense that one component word is fossilized within that particular collocation and no longer found outside it (for example, *kith and kin* and *from afar*, where *kith* and *afar* are the fossilized elements). Secondly, there are formulae such as proverbs, slogans, quotations, catchphrases, gambits and closed-set turns: institutionalized or conventionalized stretches of language which are almost certainly stored and produced holistically, and which can be decoded compositionally, word by word, but which may be considered idiomatic because of a mismatch between their compositional values and their overall pragmatic function. Examples include *Half a loaf is better than none*, *You've never had it so good*, *Shut your mouth!* and so on. Thirdly, there is the group of fossilized or frozen metaphors, the so-called pure idioms (Fernando and Flavell, 1981: *passim*; Cowie, 1988: 133). The metaphor may be retrievable, as in the case of *skate on thin ice*, or completely opaque, as in the case of *kick the bucket* (= 'die') or *spill the beans* (= 'reveal a secret'). Such metaphorical expressions can be seen as cultural schemata, as shorthand ways of describing

particular sorts of experiences or of conveying particular evaluations. They are like proverbs in this respect: not simply fusions of individual words, but also fusions of words with outlooks and opinions, which are institutionalized in both language and culture.

Fixed expressions, especially idioms and formulae according to Moon, are selected as lexical items for communicative reasons. They have crucial roles with respect to maintaining interaction between speaker/writer and hearer/reader. Leech (1983:145-7) sees the use of hyperbole and idioms as evidence of an Interest Principle, the strategy of adding interest to a text. They also have crucial roles in conveying the attitude and evaluations of the speaker/writer in a very special indirect way.

Meanwhile, Moon (1992:20-21) classifies fixed expressions according to their primary function: one which is typically performed by a fixed expression in most of the discursual contexts in which it occurs, and which may therefore be attributed to the fixed expression as well as and as part of its meaning. She further explains that any explanation of the fixed expression in isolation or in citation form, for example one given for lexicographical or pedagogical purposes, needs to explain the fixed expression in terms of its primary function. Moon states that there are four main functions of fixed expressions:

- a. *Informational* expressions are used to communicate information, and they contribute to a discourse propositionally. The information may be of various kinds. It may be circumstantial and relate to time, place or manner (for example, *in time, in advance, on top, by means of*), or quantitative (for example, *a few, two or three, all manner of*), or it may consist of an indication of a logical relationship between two clauses or groups (for

example, *in spite of, on the grounds that*). The information may also be attributive or process-oriented in nature, taking the form of a description of a state or quality or of a process (for example, *in a twist, white as a sheet, hold all the aces, spill the bean*).

- b. *Evaluative* expressions are used by speakers/writers to communicate their evaluations to their hearers/readers. Very many informational expressions also convey attitude and evaluation, but there are a number of expressions, which have no other function than to indicate judgement. Examples include a pain in the neck and many proverbs such as *Beggars can't be choosers* or *It's an ill wind (that blows nobody any good)*.
- c. *Situational* expressions are found almost exclusively in spoken discourse: they are responses to something in the extralinguistic situation and are often constrained by sociocultural aspects. They are oriented towards the situational context and the behavior of the hearer. Situational expressions include greetings and valedictions, expressions of sympathy or solidarity, apologies, regulators, and so on: for example, *How do you do?, Good morning, See you, So long, Have a nice day, Excuse me, Oh dear, Thank you, and Shut up*. These are institutionalized formulae. Other situational expressions may belong less to conversational rituals, though still restricted to speech. For example, *talk of the devil* is purely a response to something extralinguistic, the arrival in a situation of someone who has been referred to prior to this point.
- d. *Hyperpropositional* expressions are used to organize and modify the text, and represent the speaker/writer's commitment to the coherence of the discourse and to its truth-value. They include discourse signals which indicate, for example, a summary (*in short, in a*

nutshell) or topic boundary (*by the way, that was the end of that*), delimiters which indicate the parameters of a proposition (*from a...point of view, in...terms*); attitude markers which indicate speaker's attitude and commitment (*in a way, to be honest*); and other markers of modality (*by and large, sooner or later, on the whole*).

I.7. Method of the Study

In doing this study, the writer uses the descriptive qualitative method. According to Ary, Jacobs and Razavieh (1990), descriptive research studies are designed to obtain information concerning the current status of phenomena. They are directed toward determining the nature of a situation as it exists at the time of the study. The aim of this kind of method is to describe "what exists" with respect to variables or conditions in a situation.

Those writers further explain that there are several types of studies that maybe classified as descriptive research. They are surveys, developmental studies, follow up studies, documentary analyses, trend analyses and correlational studies.

Referring to the above categories, the writer's study fits into the category of documentary analyses because it is concerned with information obtained by examining records and documents, in this case articles of the Indonesian Daily News, a Surabaya based English newspaper.

I.7.1. Technique of Data Collection

Technique of data collection is the technique that is used by the writer during the gathering of all materials for the analysis. The steps are:

1. Choosing the population

First, the writer determined what the appropriate source of English multiword lexical units is. The one and only English newspaper in Surabaya, **Indonesian Daily News** is chosen to be the population for the study. This is based on some reasons, first it is very interesting to analyze the multiword lexical units used in newspapers particularly English newspapers. Surely, there are many English newspapers circulating in Indonesia, foreign as well as domestic such as **New York Times, the Strait Times, the Washington Post, USA Today, The International Herald Tribune, the Jakarta Post, the Indonesian Observer** and of course **Indonesian Daily News (IDN)** itself. However, the writer finally decided to study multiword lexical units found in **IDN** based on some considerations, such as the availability of sources, the desire to introduce the newspaper to the public at large and to the academic world as well and the quality of the writings of the journalists.

2. Taking the sample

However, due to the fact that there will be too many multiword lexical units that can be found in the newspaper, the writer decided to limit the population by taking a sample. The sample consists of six day editions (Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, Friday, and Saturday and Sunday) from September 11 until September 17, 2000.

3. Doing the primary research on the national scope articles of the Indonesian Daily News.

After taking the sample, the writer then narrowed the research again by only analyzing articles written by Indonesian journalists (non-native English speakers).

4. Collecting the data.

The writer collected the data by first going to the office of the newspaper, asking permission to analyze the content of its newspaper and lastly scanning through all the national scope articles found in the six editions of the newspaper. Upon finding one multiword lexical unit, the writer made notes and went through to find other units until about 50 multiword lexical units of different kinds could be collected.

I.7.2. Technique of Data Analysis

The steps for analyzing the data are:

1. Classifying the data.

After doing the data collection, it comes the time to analyze the data. The first thing conducted by the writer was to classify the data. The writer divided the data into their categorizations in order to make it easier to analyze them.

2. Analyzing the data.

The next step is to analyze all the data gathered. The writer used the classification proposed by Rosamund Moon (1992) to analyze all the data.

3. Making a conclusion.

After all data have been analyzed, put into their categorizations and analyzed, the writer then can make a conclusion regarding the phenomena that occur in the use of multiword lexical units in the newspaper.

I.7.3 Population

The population of this study is the one and only Surabaya based English newspaper, the Indonesian Daily News. However, the writer will only analyze the national scope articles due to the varieties of articles presented in the newspaper such as sports, entertainment and the world. So here, the national scope articles include articles about national politics, economy, business, society, human interests and Surabaya City. The reason for choosing these articles are that they are written by non-native English writers, in other words Indonesian writers.

I.7.4. Sample

Since there will be too many articles that can be analyzed from the Indonesian Daily News and it is almost impossible to analyze all of them, the writer will only take a sample. If we examine the Indonesian Daily News closely, for one day edition there is a total of about 50 articles in the 8-page newspaper. And for the national scope articles in one day, there are about 10 articles. So, the writer has decided to analyze in one week span (6 editions).

I.8. Definition of Key Terms

-Cliché:

Phrase or idea, which is used so often, that it has become stale or meaningless.

-Collocation:

A word or phrase which is frequently used with another word or phrase, in a way that sounds correct to people who have spoken the language all their lives, but might not be expected from the meaning. (from Cambridge International Dictionary of English (CIDE)).

-Expression:

A word or group of words used in a particular situation or by particular people, e.g. *a can of worm* is an expression which means 'in a difficult situation'. (from CIDE).

-Formulae:

Fixed arrangement of words, esp. as used on social, legal or ceremonial occasions, e.g. *'How do you do?', 'Excuse me'* ---*social formulae* (from Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (OALD)).

-Idiom:

Phrase or sentence whose meaning is not clear from the meaning of its individual words and which must be learnt as a whole unit, e.g. *give way, a change of heart, be hard put to it* (from OALD).

-Journalism:

Work of collecting, writing, editing and publishing material in newspapers and magazines or on television and radio (from OALD).

-Journalese:

Style of language thought to be typical of newspapers, containing many cliches.

-Lexeme:

The smallest contrastive unit in a semantic system (such as *run, cat, switch on*); also called 'lexical item'.

-Lexicon:

Or dictionary as commonly known; a specific list of Lexical Unit of a language, arranged in a specific way and supplied with specific information.

-Lexicography:

The theory of dictionary compiling and use.

-Lexicology:

The unified theoretical study of dictionary and of lexical units, considered on both semantic and grammatical levels.

-Proverb:

Short well-known saying that states a general truth or gives advices, e.g. *'It takes two to make a quarrel'* or *'Don't put all your eggs in one basket'* (from OALD).

CHAPTER II

GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF THE OBJECT OF THE STUDY