



**THE SEMANTIC ANALYSIS OF 'SMELL' TERMS
IN JAVANESE**

A THESIS

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PRONOUNCEMENT

The researcher states truthfully that this thesis is compiled by her without taking the results from other research in any university, in S-1, S-2, and S-3 degree and in diploma. In addition, the researcher ascertains that she does not take the material from other publications or someone's work except for the references mentioned in bibliography.

Semarang, September 2010

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MOTTO

"Sesungguhnya urusan Nya, apabila Dia menghendaki sesuatu Dia hanya berkata 'JADILAH', maka jadilah sesuatu itu".
(QS. Yasin: 82)

"Barang siapa menginginkan dunia maka ada ilmunya. Barang siapa menginginkan akhirat maka ada ilmunya. Barang siapa menginginkan keduanya, maka diperlukan ilmu

keduanya.”
(Al- Hadist)

”Belajar ketika orang lain tidur, bekerja ketika orang lain bermalasan, dan bermimpi ketika orang lain berharap.”
(William A. Ward)

”Now is the only time there is. Make your now **WOW**, your minutes **MIRACLES**, and your days **PAY**. Your life will have been magnificently lived and invested, and when you die you will have made a difference.”
(Mark Victor Hansen)

Syukuri apa yang ada...
Hidup adalah anugerah...
Tetap jalani hidup ini...
Melakukan yang terbaik...

JANGAN MENYERAH...
(D'Masiv)

DEDICATION

This thesis is specially dedicated to
my beloved father, mother, and lovely brother

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Semarang, September 2010

The Researcher

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ABSTRACT

Semantic field of a word varies in every language since it is influenced by the culture where people originally come from. Javanese people have various terms in expressing smell. They differentiate each term based on what the object that causes smell is. This research is aimed at describing the semantic analysis of smell terms in Javanese. By using Lyon's theory that is supported by the other linguists, this research shows semantic field of smell terms in Javanese and their definitions. In addition, componential meaning analysis (Nida, 1975) is used to know the differences of each term and find the meaning relations of it.

This research uses a descriptive qualitative method (Moleong, 2007) as it describes smell terms in Javanese. In collecting the data, the researcher uses documentation technique (Mardalis, 2003) because the data that is related to the research is taken from *Kamus Lengkap Bahasa Jawa* (Sudarmanto, 2008). Meanwhile, the researcher uses *total / jenuh* sampling (Sugiyono, 1999) to be able to show differences among each words of Javanese smell terms clearly. In analyzing the data, *teknik perluas* or expansion method (Sudaryanto, 1993) is used to see how the word is grammatical or not if it is expanded. In addition, the researcher also uses substitution method (Sudaryanto, 1993) to see the substituted part is suitable with the data or not.

From the analysis, the researcher finds twenty-nine smell terms in Javanese that can be categorized into pleasant and unpleasant smell terms. In general, the difference among those terms is on their collocation. Moreover, the researcher also finds the meaning relations, such as: hyponymy, synonymy, and antonymy. All smell terms can be grouped into five synonymy, one antonym, and two kinds of hypernymy and hyponymy. Synonymy is the meaning relation that is mostly appeared in Javanese smell terms. It is because some words almost have same semantic components, such as meaning, usage, collocation, etc. The difference things is usually in the Javanese speech level whether it is *krama* or *ngoko* level.

CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION

A. Background of the Study

Semantics is the study of language meaning. Part of language that is meaningful when it has spoken or written by language users can be known as a word which has relation in meaning. The meaning relation among words can be grouped into semantic field or semantic domain as Lyon (1977: 204) stated that semantic field is the organization of related words and expressions into a system, which shows their relationship to one another.

Semantic field of a word varies in every language since it is influenced by the culture where people originally come from. In English, the word *brother* and *sister* are used to

address someone sibling. Those kinship terms above can be differentiated by sex. On the other hand, in Bahasa Indonesia, the word *kakak* and *adik* that are used to address someone sibling, are not differentiated by sex but it is differentiated by age.

The phenomena also found in Javanese. Javanese people have various terms in expressing smell. The word *ambu* (smell) has a meaning relation to *prengus*, *tengik*, and *pesing* which have the same intention for expressing smell. The researcher is interested to analyze the smell terms in Javanese instead of other languages since the semantic field related to smell terms in Javanese is extensive and more than in Bahasa Indonesia. As the dominant language used by most of people in Java, Javanese becomes a very interesting language to study.

Based on the reasons above, the researcher is interested in analyzing this phenomenon and presents it as a thesis entitled “The Semantic Analysis of ‘Smell’ Terms in Javanese”.

B. Aims of the Study

The aims of this study are:

1. Finding some words that have related meaning to the smell terms in Javanese.
2. Showing the semantic fields and semantic features of each word that relates to smell terms in Javanese which do not have by other languages.
3. Identifying the meaning relation of some words that relates to the smell terms in Javanese by using the componential meaning analysis.

C. Scope of the Study

The scope of the study is the Javanese word that has related meaning to smell terms taken from *Kamus Lengkap Basa Jawa* (2008) by Sudarmanto. The researcher classifies them into seven sub semantic fields: 1. Javanese neutral smell terms, 2. Javanese smell terms for human beings, 3. Javanese smell terms for foods, 4. Javanese smell terms for animals, 5. Javanese smell terms for plants, 6. Javanese smell terms for things, and 7. Javanese smell terms for human beings and things. Therefore, the researcher only analyzes those seven sub semantic fields.

D. Significance

The researcher analyzes semantic field that is related to smell terms in Javanese so that people understand the several terms of smell in Javanese. As the biggest population in Indonesia, Javanese is used by most people in Java. Therefore, when they speak this language, they can use it appropriately.

E. Underlying Theory

In this research, the researcher uses Lyon’s theory of semantic field. The other theories in this research are used to support Lyon’s theory.

a) Semantic Field

A word has a meaning with a certain relation among other words. Understanding the nature of meaning is crucial in studying the language since meaning is the basis of communication. Lyons (1977: 204) mentions that research on the meaning of words is the study which deals with meaning relations of some words which can be grouped into a

semantic field. The words that divide the semantic field of a word are mutually exclusive, it means that every word in certain class or group has its own meaning that cannot be substituted with the meaning of the other words. Nida (1975: 174) adds that semantic field or semantic domain consists essentially of a group of meaning (by no means restricted to those reflected in single words) which share certain semantic components.

b) Meaning Relation

According to Lyons (1977: 19), words are meaningful only because of the meaning of other words. Words are, somehow, semantically related to each other. The meaning relation or the sense relation of words can be divided into seven types based on Palmer (1981: 83-108).

1. Simple Logic

It is a logical relation that holds among words in a sentence or among sentences or among sentences in a discourse. To show the relation, Palmer uses a formula that is called 'predicate calculus', for example:

1. *John is a man*

We have a predication in which it is said of the individual 'John' that he has the property of being 'a man'. It is possible to symbolize this with $M(a)$, where M stands for the predicate 'is a man' and (a) refers to the individual 'John'.

2. Hyponymy

It is a term to refer to a set or a group of words that are included in a higher term or word. See the next example:

Figure I.E.b.2. Hyponymy of the Word 'Vegetable'

(Wagiman, 2008: 36)

vegetable

3. Synonymy

It is used to mean 'sameness of meaning'. Synonymous words may have exactly the same conceptual meaning, like: *elevator* and *lift*, *gala* and *festivity*, or *marvis* and *thrush*.

4. Antonymy

It is contrary to synonym as it is used for oppositeness of meaning, for example:

1. *black* >< *white*

2. *silent* >< *noisy*

5. Relation Opposites

It is the relation that holds between two words, for examples:

1. *husband* and *wife*

2. *lend* and *borrow*

6. Polysemy

It is a term to refer to a word which has a set of different meanings which are related by extension, for example:

1. *foot* = 1. human foot
2. the food of bed
3. the foot of hill
4. the foot of mountain

7. Homonymy

It is a term to refer to one form, which is the same in both written and spoken, with two or more unrelated meanings, for instance:

1. *miss* = failure to hit.
2. *miss* = a title of an unmarried woman or girl.

c) Componential Meaning Analysis

Another attempt to describe the meaning of a word is called componential analysis. Lyons (1977: 204) states that the meaning of a word is related to the understanding of componential meaning, so the word is different from one another. Componential analysis is an analysis of the semantic components of a word that views the meaning of a word as consisting of a bundle of semantic components or a bundle of semantic elements.

According to Nida (1975: 32), to understand the meaning, it is necessary to find out what the relations are between the components by discovering the semantic features or component of meaning.

Thus, in componential analysis, we analyze the words by comparing the components of words which we believe to share. In this analysis, the researcher will use the (+) sign to indicate that the word does have a certain component and (-) sign if it does not. The symbol (\pm) will be used if the word has no clear distinction.

In addition, Parera (2004: 159) explains the following steps to analyze the word by componential analysis:

1. choose some words that we assume that they have semantically relation.
2. find some analogies among the words.
3. categorize semantic component or semantic composition based on the analogies that are stated before.

F. Method of the Study

This research uses descriptive qualitative method because it is full of description and explanation about smell terms in Javanese. It also does not include of any calculation or enumerating.

In this research, the researcher uses Javanese words related to smell terms taken from *Kamus Lengkap Bahasa Jawa* (2008) by Sudarmanto as the data. The researcher finds that there are 29 terms that can be categorized as smell terms in Javanese. Then, those terms is divided again into seven subs of semantic fields: Javanese neutral smell terms, Javanese smell terms for human being, foods, animals, plants, things, and both of human beings and things.

As a method of presenting data, the researcher uses informal method since there is no symbol or mark so the usage of natural language becomes the result technique of this method.

In analyzing data, the researcher uses distributional method or *agih* method (Sudaryanto, 1993: 55). The researcher also uses *teknik perluas* in order to see how a word is grammatical or not if it is expanded (Sudaryanto, 1993: 55). In addition, substitution method is also needed to find a special characteristic of a word.

G. Writing Organization

This research is systemically divided into five chapters in order to give a description about its content. They are:

CHAPTER I : INTRODUCTION

This chapter consists of Introducing, Aims of the Study, Scope of the Study, Significance, Underlying Theory, Method of the Study, and Writing Organization.

CHAPTER II : LITERARY REVIEW

This chapter provides theories that are used as a tool to analyze the data. It consists of Previous Study, Investigation of Javanese, Semantics, Definition of Meaning, Type of Meaning, Semantic Field, Meaning Relation, and Componential Meaning Analysis.

CHAPTER III : RESEARCH METHOD

This chapter deals with Types of Research, Unit of Analysis, Data and Data Source, Population and Sample, Method of Presenting Data, Method of Collecting Data, and Method of Analyzing Data.

CHAPTER IV : DATA ANALYSIS

This chapter provides the research finding and the data analysis of smell terms that is categorized as semantic field in Javanese. It also explains meaning relation that is found in smell terms in Javanese.

CHAPTER V : CONCLUSION

This chapter is a closing chapter that contains the conclusion of the whole analysis according to the result of the research.

CHAPTER II REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter deals with meaning, especially word meaning. It provides some theories that are used as a tool to analyze the research. First, the researcher attempts to discuss the definition of meaning, types of meaning, semantic field, meaning relation, and componential analysis.

A. Definition of Meaning

It is important to understand the nature of meaning in studying the language since meaning becomes the basis of communication. Word meaning, sentence meaning, and utterance meaning that reside in the human brain are communicated to other people in language production that includes speaking and writing, and are used to understand communication in language comprehension that includes listening and reading.

In this sub-chapter, the researcher does not make a new definition of meaning nor resolve the ambiguity of it, but she merely reviews the definitions proposed by some linguists. There are many linguists that was trying to look for the definition of meaning but finally they comes out with several theories concerning with the meaning of 'meaning'.

Ullmann (1972: 54) states that meaning is one of the most ambiguous and most controversial terms in the theory of language. The ambiguity can be reduced if one narrows one's attention to word meaning, but by no means resolved. He also suggests three forms for this concept namely 'name', 'sense', and 'thing' (Ullmann, 1972: 57).

In addition, according to Ullmann (1972: 57), the 'name' is the phonetic shape of the word, the sound and also other acoustic features such as accent. The 'sense' is the information conveyed by the name to the hearer, whereas, the 'thing' is the non-linguistic features or events we are talking about.

In line with Ullmann, Lyons (1977: 204) states that the meaning of a word is related to the understanding of componential meaning, so the words is different from one another. Based on that definition, the researcher describes the data according to the lexical meaning of every word that can be found in the dictionaries.

B. Types of Meaning

It has been mentioned above that many linguists defined 'meaning' in various ways. From those various definitions of meaning, Leech (1974: 19-39) comes out with several types of meaning, they are: (1) Conceptual meaning, (2) Connotative meaning, (3) Stylistic and affective meaning, (4) Reflected meaning, (5) Collocative meaning, (6) Associative meaning, and (7) Thematic meaning.

In this research, the researcher does not elaborate all of the types of meaning. She only elaborates the types of meaning that are relevant to this research. The types are:

1. Conceptual Meaning

It is also called 'denotative' or 'cognitive' meaning. It is widely assumed to be the central factor in linguistic communication. Almost all of the words of a language have a conceptual meaning. There are words that have more than one conceptual meaning. The conceptual meaning of a word is universal. It is the same everywhere in the world, which becomes the basis for universal communication. In searching for the conceptual meaning, Leech uses two principles namely 'contrastive' and 'constituent'. The constituent

principle is the principle by which larger linguistic units are built up out of smaller units (Leech, 1974: 11). On the other hand, the contrastive principle contrasts the features of the word with those of another word. The contrastive features of a word can be numerous, for example:

Table II.B.1. Contrastive Features of ‘Student’
(Adisutrisno, 2008: 18)

Word	Contrastive Features
Student	+ animate
	+ human
	+ male or female
	+ young or adult
	+ having the duty to study

The purpose of conceptual meaning is to provide a sentence or statement with an appropriate semantic representation. It also helps us to distinguish one meaning from the meaning of other sentences.

2. Stylistic and Affective Meaning

Leech states that affective meaning is the meaning of word which reflects the personal feelings of the speaker, including his attitude to the listener, or his attitude to something he is talking about. It is used to express personal feelings or attitude to the listener or to the subject matter of discourse. In this type, the social factors determine the use of the words. For example, in Jakarta, a boy will say ‘*gue*’ that means *I* instead of ‘*saya*’ when addressing himself to his friends. But, in contrary, he will say ‘*saya*’ instead of ‘*gue*’ when he is talking with his father.

3. Collocative Meaning

Collocative meaning consists of the associations of word caused by the word-meaning around it. According to Lyons (1977: 261), collocation is a term to refer to words that usually appear together or a word that tend to keep company. More specific meaning is had by the words in particular collocations.

The collocation is strictly restricted because every word has its own domain. In addition, Palmer (1972: 79) shows three kinds of collocational restriction, such as:

- Some are based wholly on the meaning of the item as in the unlikely green *cow*.
- Some are based on range. It means that a word may be used with a whole set o words that have some semantic features in common. For example, we can not say “*the pretty boy*” because the word pretty is being used with words denoting females.
- Some restrictions are collocational in the strictest sense, involving neither meaning nor range, for example: *addled* with *eggs* and *brains*.

Beside the examples of collocation above Palmer also explores the other examples of collocation, such as: *blond hair*, *rancid bacon*, *rancid butter*, *sour milk*. (1972: 76-79)

C. Semantic Field

Meaning is the basis of communication. Therefore, understanding the nature of meaning is crucial in studying the language. There are some or even more words having meaning relation to another. Lyons (1977: 204) states that research on the meaning of words is

the study which deals with meaning relations of some words which can be grouped into a semantic field. The words that divide the semantic field of a word are mutually exclusive, it means that every word in certain class or group has its own meaning that cannot be substituted with the meaning of the other words in the group.

In addition, according to Palmer (1976: 68), the most famous example of field theory is the theory of a linguist named Trier (1934). He compared the field of the ‘intellectual’ aspect of the German around 1200 to 1300. In the earlier period the field was divided into two: *kunst* that refers to courtly qualities and *list* that refers to non-courtly skills. The term *wisheit* was used to cover the whole. But in the 1300 period, the field was divided into three: *wisheit* ‘religious experience’, *kunst* ‘knowledge’ and *wizzen* ‘art’. In those examples, Trier compares a single language at two different periods. Palmer (1976: 68) also adds that we can also compare two languages to see the way in which they divide up a particular field.

The categorization of semantic fields varies in every language as stated by Parera, an Indonesian linguist. He adds that we have to know that the difference of semantic fields is not similar to other languages (Parera, 2004: 140). In addition, Adisutrisno (2008: 23) shows the difference of semantic fields the word ‘eat’ in English and Javanese. See the example below:

Table II.C. Semantic Field of the Word ‘Eat’

(Adisutrisno, 2008: 23)

No	English	Javanese
1	eat (take food into the mouth and swallow it)	mangan (eating by chewing the food and swallowing it)
2	dine (have dinner)	nyikit (nibbling, eating in small amounts)
3	consume (eat)	nlolog (eating without chewing the food)
4	gulp (swallow food greedily)	nguntal (eating without chewing the food)
5	devour (eat hungrily or greedily)	ndublag (eating by taking very big bites)
6	gobble up (eat fast, noisily and greedily)	nggaglag (eating by taking the wholes)
7	gorge (eat greedily)	
8	bolt (swallow food quickly)	

From the example above, we see that semantic fields of the word ‘eat’ in English and Javanese are different. The word ‘eat’ can be divided into 8 terms in English and only 6 terms in Javanese.

Nida (1975: 174) adds that semantic field or semantic domain consists essentially of a group of meaning (by no means restricted to those reflected in single words) which share certain semantic components. The description of the semantic field is not only a meaning field itself but also separated from other meaning field or it is connected with other meaning fields.

D. Meaning Relation

According to Lyons (1977: 19), words are meaningful only because of the meaning of other words. Words are, somehow, semantically related to each other. The meaning relation or the sense relation of words can be divided into seven types based on Palmer (1981: 83-108).

1. Simple Logic

It is a logical relation that holds among words in a sentence or among sentences or among sentences in a discourse. To show the relation, Palmer uses a formula that is called 'predicate calculus', for example:

. John is a man

We have a predication in which it is said of the individual 'John' that he has the property of being 'a man'. It is possible to symbolize this with M(a), where M stands for the predicate 'is a man' and (a) refers to the individual 'John'.

2. Hyponymy

It is a term to refer to a set or a group of words that are included in a higher term or word. It involves the notion of inclusion. See the next example:

Figure II.D.2. Hyponymy of the Word 'Bird'

(Wagiman, 2008: 36)

bird

From the example above, '*vegetable*' as the higher or upper term is called super ordinate and the others as the lower term are called hyponym.

3. Synonymy

It is used to mean 'sameness of meaning'. Synonymous words may have exactly the same conceptual meaning, like: *elevator* and *lift*, *gala* and *festivity*, or *marvis* and *thrush*, but many synonymous words are not exactly alike in meaning. As stated by Palmer, there are at least five ways to differentiate the synonymous words:

- a. Some sets of synonyms belong to different dialects of the language. For instance, the term *soccer* that refers to outdoor game between two teams played with such a ball, is used in the United States but people in Britain would use *football* to address that game.
- b. The synonymous words are used in different style. For example, the word *ayah* and *bokap* (mean 'father') are differed rather in degrees of formality. The former is considered as a formal style, but the latter is colloquial.
- c. Some words may be said to differ only in their emotive or evaluative meanings. Words may have different emotive meanings in different societies. The word *liberal* is a 'good' word that is used in Great Britain, but it is a 'bad' word in South Africa and in some political circles in the United States.
- d. Some words are collocationally restricted, they occur only in conjunction with other words. For instance, *blonde* occurs only with *hair*.
- e. Many words are overlapping or close in meaning. For example, the word *bumbu* has synonym with *rempah-rempah* and also the possible synonym for the word mature is *adult*, *ripe*, *perfect*, *due*.

4. Antonymy

It is contrary to synonym as it is used for oppositeness of meaning. It is a regular and very natural feature of language and can be defined fairly precisely. Palmer classifies two kinds of antonymy, those are:

a. Gradable antonymy

In this case, the meaning of each word is relative and also can be put in a graded scale which is not fixed, for instance:

1. narrow >< wide
2. light >< heavy

b. Complementarity

The meaning of word is absolute in this kind of antonymy. It means that there is only one possibility of meaning which is fixed. Some examples are:

1. open >< closed
2. empty >< full

5. Relation Opposites

It means that the pairs of words are the reversal of a relationship of words, for examples:

- . *give* and *receive*
- . *teacher* and *student*

6. Polysemy

It is a term to refer to a word which has a set of different meanings which are related by extension, for example:

- . *eye* = 1. human eye
- 2. the eye of a potato
- 3. the eye of a needle
- 4. a hook and an eye

According to Djajasudarma (1993: 45-46), polysemy happens because of:

- a. The speed in pronouncing the words, for example: / b a n t u a n / can be meant *ban milik tuan* (Eng: tuan's tyre) or *bantuan* (Eng: help).
- b. Grammatical factor, for instance: *orang tua* (Eng: parents) can be meant father and mother or the older people.
- c. Lexical factors, such as:
 1. when a word is changing in its usage so it has the new meaning. For example, the word *makan* is not only connected with the activity of human and animal but it is also connected with inanimate things, like, *makan angin*, *makan hati*, etc.
 2. when a word uses in different environment. For example, the term *operation* for doctor has a meaning of treating the disease. But its term will has the different meaning if it uses in military. It will be meant planned activity.
 3. because of the appearance of metaphor, for example the word *mata* (Eng: eye) ,has the function to see something, will has different meaning with the word *mata air* that means the source of water.
- d. The influence of foreign language, for example: the word *butir* comes from English word 'item'. It is used to substitute the word *unsur* (Eng: element). *Butir* means the small things like rice, diamond or the quantifiers for small and round things.

7. Homonymy

It is a term to refer to one form, which is the same in both written and spoken, with two or more unrelated meanings, for example:

- . *can* = be able to.
- . *can* = metal container for liquids.

The term homonymy and polysemy are rather problematic to differentiate. Palmer stated that there are at least four ways to determine the word is polysemy or homonymy. First,

homonymous happens when it is known that identical forms have different origins and given separate entities. Then the word will be categorized as polysemic if it is known that they have one origin, even if they have different meanings and given a single entry in the dictionary. Second, a polysemic word has several meanings. The third way is by looking for the central meaning or a core of meaning. It is possible where we have examples of metaphor or the ‘transferred’ meanings we noted for sad and score. But the problem, it is very difficult to decide whether there is any central or core meaning. Fourthly, we can differentiate by using the test of ambiguity. For example, ‘*Jack is going to the bank*’, that sentence is really ambiguous because it can be meant that Jack going to the place to save money or going to the bank of the river.

E. Componential Analysis

Another attempt to describe the meaning of a word is called componential analysis. Lyons (1977: 204) states that the meaning of a word is related to the understanding of componential meaning, so the word is different from one another. Componential analysis is an analysis of the semantic components of a word that views the meaning of a word as consisting of a bundle of semantic components or a bundle of semantic elements.

According to Nida (1975: 32), to understand the meaning, it is necessary to find out what the relations are between the components by discovering the semantic features or component of meaning.

Thus, in componential analysis, we analyze the words by comparing the components of words which we believe to share. In this analysis, the writer will use the (+) sign to indicate that the word does have a certain component and (-) sign if it does not. The symbol (\pm) will be used if the word has no clear distinction.

In addition, Parera (2004: 159) explains the following steps to analyze the word by componential analysis:

1. choose some words that we assume that they have semantically relation.
2. find some analogies among the words.
3. categorize semantic component or semantic composition based on the analogies that are stated before.

To make those explanations clearer, the researcher shows the example componential analysis of addressing someone sibling in English, Bahasa Indonesia, and Javanese as the following table.

Table II.E. Componential Analysis of Kinship Terms in English, Bahasa Indonesia, and Javanese

Language	Address	Differences		
		Sex		Age
		Male	Female	
English	brother	+	-	-
	sister	-	+	-
Bahasa Indonesia	kakak	-	-	+
	adik	-	-	+
Javanese	mas	+	-	+
	mbak	-	+	+
	adhi	-	-	+

From the table above, we know that every language varies in addressing someone sibling. The English use *brother* and *sister* that are differentiated by sex to address someone sibling. It is different with people who use Bahasa Indonesia, they use *kakak* and *adik* that are differentiated by age to address someone sibling. Meanwhile in Javanese, there are three types of kinship terms that are differentiated by both of age and sex. In addressing the elder someone, people use *mas* and *mbak*. *Adhi* is used to address the younger one.

Therefore, we know that the advantages of using componential analysis as stated by Parera (2004: 161-163) are:

1. It can be answered and showed the reason why a sentence is right, wrong, or anomaly.
2. By using it, we can know the meaning relation in every word.
3. It is used to know that the sentence is analytical, contradictive, and anomaly.

After reviewing all of the theories that is related to this research, the researcher uses Lyon's theory that is also supported by other linguists in analyzing smell terms in Javanese. The theories such as semantic fields, meaning relations, and componential analysis are used to analyze it. The researcher collects the words related to smell terms in Javanese, then she categorizes them into the sub semantic field that are suitable. Then by using componential analysis, the researcher finds the meaning relation that happens in each word.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHOD

This third chapter deals with the research method used in this research. It consists of Types of Research, Unit of Analysis, Data and Data Source, Population and Sample, Method of Presenting Data, Method of Collecting Data, and Method of Analyzing Data.

A. Unit of Analysis

It is a part of language that would be analyzed in the research. It can be words, sentences, phrases, utterances, etc. The unit of analysis of this research is the Javanese word that is related to smell terms.

B. Data and Data Source

The data for this analysis is Javanese words whose meaning related to smell terms taken from *Kamus Lengkap Bahasa Jawa* (2008) by Sudarmanto.

According to Bungin (2001: 129), there are two types of data sources: primary and secondary data. Primary data source is the first source from which the data is obtained, while, secondary data is the data that is acquired after getting the primary data. In this research, the researcher uses *Kamus Lengkap Bahasa Jawa* (2008) by Sudarmanto as the primary data source.

C. Population, Sample, and Sampling Techniques

Population is a lot of cases that have to satisfy the certain requirements whose related to research problem (Mardalis, 2003: 53). The population of this research is all the Javanese words that are related to smell terms. Those words are obtained from *Kamus*

Lengkap Bahasa Jawa (2008) by Sudarmanto.

After having population then the researcher takes sample. According to Arikunto (2006: 134), sample is a part or representative of population that will be analyzed. Sugiyono (1999:73) mentioned that there are two ways of sampling: probability and non-probability sampling. The researcher uses non-probability sampling with *total/jenuh* technique sampling which means that all of the data in population are used as the object of the research (Sugiyono, 1999: 78). By using *total/jenuh* sampling, the researcher is able to show the differences among each words of smell terms in Javanese clearly.

D. Method of Presenting Data

There are two kinds of methods of presenting data based on Sudaryanto: formal and informal (1993: 145). In this research, the researcher uses informal method because there is no symbol or mark so the usage of natural language becomes the result technique of this method.

E. Method of Collecting Data

According to Mardalis (2003: 74), in collecting the data, the researcher can use documentation technique beside observation, interview, and questionnaire. The researcher uses documentation technique in this research since the data is obtained from the documents or literatures that are related to the research. The data itself is taken from *Kamus Lengkap Bahasa Jawa* (2008) by Sudarmanto.

F. Research Design

This research is full of description of smell terms in Javanese. Therefore, the researcher uses descriptive method. According to Issac and Michael (1987: 42), descriptive method is used to describe systematically a situation or area of interest factually and accurately. In addition, this research is also a qualitative one since it does not include of any calculation or enumerating.

G. Method of Analyzing Data

Moleong (2007: 11) states that descriptive qualitative is used when the data that is collected by the researcher consists of words and pictures instead of numbers. This research is a descriptive qualitative research that shows semantic field of smell terms in Javanese. In addition, the researcher uses distributional method or *agih* method in analyzing data (Sudaryanto, 1993: 15) because it analyzes Javanese that becomes a decisive factor in this research.

The researcher also uses *teknik perluas* or expansion method for analyzing the data (Sudaryanto, 1993: 55) to see how a word is grammatical or not if it is expanded. Sudaryanto (1993: 55) mentioned that there are two kinds of expansion methods: backward and forward. As an example, if we have the word A, then we can expand it backward into AE or forward into EA (E as an expensive instrument).

Moreover, to find a special characteristic of a word, the researcher uses substitution method (Sudaryanto, 1993: 48) by substituting one linguistic unit of expanded words. The word A that has is expanded into AE, substitutes the word E into S, so it becomes AS (S as substitute). This method uses for seeing whether the substituted part is suitable with the data or not. In guiding this research, the writer takes these following steps:

- a. Finding the Javanese word that is related to smell terms in *Kamus Lengkap Bahasa Jawa* (2008).
- b. Listing all the Javanese words that is found in *Kamus Lengkap Bahasa Jawa* (2008).
- c. Classifying them into semantic field.
- d. Identifying the meaning of each word.
- e. Making the semantic feature or componential meaning of each word in Javanese that is related to smell terms.
- f. Giving plus (+) sign for appropriate feature, minus (-) sign for inappropriate one and (±) sign for the word has no clear distinction.
- g. Listing the words that have same meaning but has different terms and then identifying the differences meaning according to componential analysis.

carrots

cabbages

spinach

lettuce

woodpecker

canary

swallow

quail