

# **A CONTRASTIVE STUDY OF *WALK* VERB IN *RUN* SUBTYPE IN ENGLISH AND MAKASSARESE LANGUAGE**

STUDI KONTRASTIF VERBA *BERJALAN* PADA SUBTIPE BERLARI DALAM BAHASA  
INGGRIS DAN BAHASA MAKASSAR

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**THESIS**

**A CONTRASTIVE STUDY OF WALK VERB IN RUN SUBTYPE IN  
ENGLISH AND MAKASSARESE LANGUAGE**

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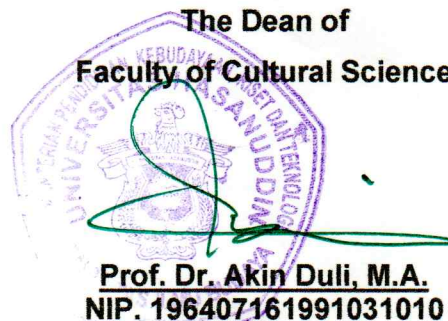
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I hereby declare that this thesis is my own work and thesis which i written does not contain the work of other people. Except, those cited in the quotations and the references as a scientific paper should .

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## ABSTRACT

**FARAH FADILAH.** *A Contrastive Study of Walk Verbs in English and Makassarese Languages* (supervised by Hamzah A. Machmoed and Sukmawaty).

The research aims to contrast the sentence constructions and meaning interpretations of the walk verbs in English and Makassarese languages.

The research data were from two sources. The English data were taken from the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA), while Makassarese language data were taken from Mangkasara Dictionary. The data were collected and analysed using the qualitative descriptive method.

The research result indicates that: 1) there is one walk verb in English and there thirteen walk verbs in Makassarese language; 2) both languages have the similarities which can be implemented in intransitive and transitive verbs; 3) the walk verbs found in both languages have several similarities and differences in terms of the sentence constructions and meaning interpretations; 4) the walk verbs in Makassarese language produces seven structural patterns namely: VP+ADV+NP, ADV+ADJ+NP+VP, ADV+NP+VP+NP, VP+NP+ADV+NP, ADJ.P+NP+ADV VP+NP, VP+NP+NP, VP+NP.

Key words: Verb, walk, construction, meaning



## ABSTRAK

**FARAH FADILAH.** *Studi Kontrastif Verba Berjalan dalam Bahasa Inggris dan Bahasa Makassar* (dibimbing oleh Hamzah A. Machmoed dan Sukmawaty).

Penelitian ini bertujuan mengontraskan konstruksi kalimat dan interpretasi makna verba “berjalan” dalam Bahasa Inggris dan padanan kata kerjanya dalam Bahasa Makassar.

Data diambil dari dua sumber. Data Bahasa Inggris diambil dari *Corpus of Contemporary America English (COCA)*, sedangkan data bahasa Makassar diambil dari Kamus *Mangkasara*. Data dikumpulkan dan dianalisis menggunakan metode deskriptif kualitatif.

Hasil penelitian menunjukkan bahwa: (1) terdapat satu verba “berjalan” dalam bahasa Inggris dan terdapat tiga belas verba dalam bahasa Makassar; (2) kedua bahasa tersebut memiliki persamaan yang dapat diimplementasikan dalam verba intransitif dan verba transitif; (3) kata kerja “berjalan” yang ditemukan pada kedua bahasa tersebut memiliki beberapa persamaan dan perbedaan dalam hal konstruksi kalimat dan interpretasi makna; dan (4) verba “berjalan” dalam bahasa Makassar menghasilkan tujuh pola struktur yaitu: VP+ADV+NP, ADV+ADJ+NP+VP, ADV+NP+VP+NP, VP+NP+ADV+NP, ADJP+NP+ADV VP+NP, VP+NP+NP, dan VP+NP.

Kata kunci: verba “berjalan”, konstruksi, makna



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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the researcher presents some elements starting from the background of the research, research question, objective of the research, significance of the research.

#### A. Background

A language builds up semantic fields or zones of meaning. Vocabulary, grammar, and syntax are adapted to the organization of these semantic fields. Semantics is a branch of linguistics that study of meaning in language. It deals with the expression of linguistic objects such as words, phrases, and sentences (Katz, 1972).

Based on etymology, the word semantics originally comes from the Greek word *semantikos* means '*significant*'; *semainein* means '*to show, signify*' or '*indicated by the sign*'; *sema* means '*sign*'. However, the word '*meaning*' has a wide range of perceptions and there is no general agreement among experts about how it should be described. All morphemes have meaning. Some morphemes have different meanings depending on the type of word. *un-* shows the opposite nature in adjectives, but the opposite in verbs. The reason for semantics existence is to understand the contradiction of meaning in language because, in learning semantics material, the meaning of languages has a strong relation to expressing a signed form. This signed form is also related to



logic, phenomenon, and attitude. Meaning is also related to the way words are combined into phrases, clauses, and sentences. The difference in syntactic arrangements affects the meaning. The meanings of the words are same, but the meanings of the sentences are quite different.

According to linguist Dixon's (2015), he stated that a language consist of grammar and words, while grammar has two parts called Morphology which deals with words' structures and syntax defines how words are combined. In English, an adjective must come before a noun, and an article must come before an adjective that is a noun phrase (or NP). A verb (or a verb phrase) in English must be preceded by a noun phrase, which is a clause. A sentence can be a single clause (it is called a simple sentence) or a complex sentence that contains multiple clauses. There are main clauses and subordinate clauses, which may be connected by conjunctions. It can indicate reasons, time series, etc. Regarding both grammar and words there is semantics.

When language is used, meaning is the most important thing so that the purpose can be conveyed properly. The speaker must have something that wants to convey, both thoughts, feelings, etc. So to convey it, the speaker will choose the suitable meaning that with what is meant and then combine it in appropriate grammatical constructions. Therefore the listener can try to understand the meaning conveyed by the speaker through the message that delivers.

A language is one of the results of culture because it has become a sign system, and has an important role in bridging the understanding of culture, especially for people who want to learn a lot about that culture. Language is an "index" of a culture that reveals ways of thinking or habits in a particular culture, so it is often said that language is a reflection of a culture. Language is not only symbolized as a "sound" spoken by the sender and receiver but it is a series of processes used to ensure there is an agreement and understanding between the sender and the recipient both through sound and movement.

The language produced by the sender and receiver forms an interaction with each other which is called communication. Without language, humans cannot do anything because language is part of a communication tool. Communication is the most important human need to interact, socializing and affects a person's life because people can not do anything by ownself without interacting with anyone. The most important means of communication in the world is language because, without language, humans can not convey their thoughts and feelings the use of appropriate language will make it easier for the listener to know the meaning of the language used. The function of language is not only as a means of communication but also as a symbol of the identity of language users. This is one of the reasons for using language, people need to pay attention to the culture that surrounds participants, both speakers, and listeners. Mesthrie (2000, p. 6) had argued that language is not just

*“denotational, referring to the process of conveying meaning or referring to ideas”* but also it is *“indexical”* in which language is: a symbol of one’s social class, status, region of origin, gender, age, group, and so on”. This means that what is going in particular society can be seen in the language of people speak. This is confirmed by Levi-Straus who said that *“to say language is to say society”* (cited in Duranti 1997, p. 337). This fact shows that what is in one community can be revealed through the language they use.

Each language has its characteristics because it is a reflection of each of its own cultures so that each language must have a variety of meanings, sounds, to a distinctive structure. From this statement, it can be seen that there are contrastive and similarities between the two languages to be studied, namely English and Makassarese from regions in South Sulawesi which are of course contrast.

Related to the previous statement, it is shown that there will be difficulties in learning a language for people who need to learn a certain language as a second language, so people sometimes apply the rules of the local language within the second language they are learning. On occasion, Makassarese people who learn English will tend to apply the Makassarese rule into English.

The use of English as an international language has resulted inevitably in the importance of learning the English language as a second and as a foreign language. The present study looks into the similarities

and differences between the English language and Makassarese languages particularly to study what are the differences and similarities between RUN subtype particularly in the “*Walk*” verb.

Linguist Dixon (2005) examined how grammar encourages communication and how grammar and context interact. He proposed that a group of verbs is classified as a semantic category when they share the same set of participant roles and a common meaning feature.

A grammatical construction always considers aspects of meaning and a different form of sentence will also convey a different meaning. The construction of subject, predicate and object is a complete sentence and has role to define meaning in a language. In Indonesian language, the purpose of subject is same in English language and predicate called as verb. While in English language a sentence is completed enough when it have subject and verb but can be added with adverb. A verb is the main part of the sentence. It has the main role to convey the meaning of the sentence that describes an occurrence, a mental/physical action, or the existence of a condition or a state (to exist, to be). It originated from the Latin word *verbum*, which means “a word.” In linguist Dixon’s theory, he talked about some of the subtypes and one of a section that the researcher will discuss is the primary –A verb subtype is about the RUN subtype.

Motion is described as the movement of an object from one location to another. Motion is also linked to human everyday communication in this life because every language spoken in this world is often conveyed by movement in linguistic speech, even though human languages differ.

Motion verb is verbs used commonly in human daily actions and their meaning refer to verbs showing the motion such as *walk, run, arrive, take, follow, carry, throw, drop*. Since we know that every language has uniqueness itself, therefore the researcher is interested to compare RUN subtype verbs in English and Makassarese.

The RUN subtype refers to a mode of motion, e.g. run, walk, crawl, slide, spin, roll, turn, wriggle, swing, wave, rock, shake, climb, dive, stroll, trot, gallop, jog, dance, march, jump, bounce, swim, and one sense of play (as in The child is playing in the sand). Walk verb is part of Run subtype in which something or somebody produces a movement and has control for the motion. The “Walk” verb in English only uses one word according to Dixon, whereas “Walk” verb in the Makassarese language has eleven verbs based on the semantics meaning. First is “*ajjappa*” which is a general type of walking when something or someone moves from one place to another. Second, “*addakka*” means walking concretely with slow steps, but in this state, the soles of the feet still touch the ground thoroughly. Third, “*addikki*” means walking in sneaking, usually, in this situation, one is lifting his/her heels a little bit and walks slowly on tiptoe. Forth, “*Aklingka*” means stepping or leaving in an abstract context, this



word is usually used to describe someone who has died. Fifth, “*amminro*” means walking/moving circularly. Sixth, “*ammesu*” means moving by edged, for humans usually people who can't walk using their feet anymore, that person will walk by dragging their feet. Seventh, “*Accenreng*” means walking fast. Eighth, “*accanda*” means walking too long way (vacation). Ninth, “*accadondong*” means walking in a hurry or quickly and it looks like stomping the feet while walking. Tenth, “*tappere-pere*” means walking staggeringly because the body is not balanced. Eleventh, “*a'rurung*” means walk together or go along with. Twelfth, “*a'lete*” walking on something carefully. Thirteenth, “*a'lolo*” means walk by move long slowly. This word refers to the use of an object.

Based on the explanation above, the researcher is interested in researching motion verbs in their two languages under the title ***A Contrastive Study of “Walk” Verb in Run Subtype in English and Makassarese Language*** because Dixon's theory does not seem to apply to regional language in Indonesia, especially in South Sulawesi.

## **B. Research Questions**

Based on the background above, the researcher formulates research questions as follow:

1. What are the Walk verb in Run subtype of English and Makassarese language?
2. What are the similarities and differences of Walk verb in Run Subtype of English and Makassarese language?

### **C. The objective of The Research**

Based on the research questions of the research above, the researcher set the objective of the research as follows:

1. To identify the Walk verb in Run subtype of English and Makassarese language
2. To analyze the similarities and differences of Walk verb in Run subtype of English and Makassarese language

### **D. Significances of The Research**

The researcher takes some significance that related to this research.

Those are:

1. Theoretical significance

This research is expected to be an additional reference and contribute to future readers as well as useful for those in need, especially in the form of linguistics like semantic and grammar. This research is important to enrich the readers about the contrastive English language and Makassarese language in semantic verb type particularly in Walk verb in RUN subtype.

2. Practical significance

This research expects to help the reader in understanding linguistics itself more deeply, especially Motion verb in the Run subtype especially in the Walk verb of English language and Makassarese language.

### **E. Scope of the Research**

This research focuses on “*walk*” verb in English language and Makassarese language semantic type of verb by Dixon’s theory using a semantic approach. The researcher contrast the similarities and the differences between English language and Makassarese language where English is a foreign language and is also an international language, and Makassarese language is one of the local languages in Indonesia that is used by Makassar people.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

#### A. Previous Studies

There are some brief outlines of previous studies which are related to the current study.

Firstly, Nurhayati Hudi (2018) in her research entitled *English Verb 'Deliver' and Wolio Verb 'bawa'*. This research used a descriptive qualitative method. The result of this study shows that construction type I in Dixon's theory is the theory that can be applied both in English and Wolio language. In construction type, I focus on the Gift in O slot. From the data which appeared in construction type I, the Donor of both languages is human, as the control of Gift, transferred to the Recipient as the result of giving.

Secondly, Apreliah (2019) in her research entitled *Carry's Subtype of Motion Verbs in English and Buginese*. This research used a descriptive qualitative method. The result of this research shows that there are four motion verbs of 'Carry' subtype in English are carry, bear, cart, and transport, while in Buginese there are twelve motion verbs of 'Carry' subtype found in this research, they are *mattiwi, massoppo, majjujung, maddenge, mangepa, makkaleppi, matteteng, mabbiccang, marrenreng, mallempa, matteke, and maggandeng*. The meaning differences between English motion verbs of 'Carry' subtype and Buginese motion verbs cause the different grammatical constructions. The main differences of motion

verbs of the 'Carry' subtype in English and Buginese can be seen from two aspects, clause structure, and preposition. From clause structure, it can be found that basically clause structure of Buginese is similar to English in which it has a noun phrase followed by a verb. However, the clause structure in Buginese has some variations, they are NP + VP, NP + VP + ADV, VP, VP + NP, VP + NP + ADV, VP + ADV, ADV + VP + ADV and NP(Ob)+VP+ADV. In the aspect of the proposition, it is found that in Buginese two prepositions have a similar meaning and different usage, they are *ri* and *ku* which mean in.

Thirdly, Hartari (2018) in her research entitled *Dixon's Sit Subtype of Rest Verbs in English And Buginese*. This research used a descriptive qualitative method. The result of this research shows that there are nineteen rest verbs of Sit subtype found in this research, they are *ttudang*, *ccado'*, *sEppo'*, *massampiang*, *massulekka*, *makkaddao uttu*, *mattulak sadang*, *mappasilojo'*, *mappalempu*, *tettong*, *lIEu*, *maggalelu*, *makkaluttu*, *ccuku'*, *rroko'*, *maccekkeng*, *ssanrE'*, *maggattung*, and *mmawang*. Several verbs implied the specification of the locus as a place to rest in their meanings such as *seppo'*, *massampiang*, *massulekka*, *makkaddao uttu*, *mattulak sadang*, *mappallempu*, *mappasilojo*, *ccuku'*. Also there some rest verbs could become transitive verbs such as *ttudang*, *tettong*, *mattojang*, *ssanre*, *maccekkeng*, *lleu*, *mmawang* so it needs an object noun phrase. The meaning differences between English rest verbs of sit subtype and Buginese rest verbs because of the different grammatical constructions.



The main differences of rest verbs of Sit subtype in English and Buginese can be seen from two aspects, clause structure and a stance of resting. From clause structure, it can be found that basically clause structure of Buginese is similar with English in which it has locus as place rest and noun phrase for some verbs of Sit subtype is intransitive constructions. However, the clause structures in Buginese have some variations and can be simplified to become only a verb (or a verb phrase) as long as the subject is comprehensible from the previous context. The variations of Buginese clause structure are VP, VP+NP+ADV, VP+ADV, NP+VP+ADV, ADV+VP, VP+NP and, VP+NP+VP+NP.

From all previous studies above there are similarities and differences with this research. The similarity is to investigate motion verb in two languages whereas this research focuses on walk verb in Run subtype as a part of motion verb. The difference between the previous studies and this research is this research uses English language and Makassarese language, then uses different techniques of collecting the data in Makassarese language.

## **B. Theoretical Background**

### **1. Semantic Types and Grammatical Word Classes**

A semantic is a descriptive subject, which is the study of word meaning and sentence meaning apart from context. It is an attempt to describe and comprehend the nature of people's knowledge about meaning in their language as a result of knowing the language. It is not a perspective enterprise interested in advising or pressuring speakers or writers to abandon another meaning in favor of the other. A related point is that someone could be fluent in a language without knowing its history. While learning about the historical currents and changes that explain why there are similarities in meaning is interesting.

The concept of word meaning is as ambiguous as the term meaning itself. According to Ogden and Richards (1946: p. 10), words have no meaning in and of themselves, and it is only if they're used by a thinker that they take on meaning. It is a result of their semiotic triangle-based theory of meaning, in which the relation between symbol and meaning is indirect. As Hanks (2007: p. 7) explained, words represent objects only indirectly, through the thoughts of those who use them, and thus the meaning of a word can differ slightly in the mental schemata of individual speakers, as well as how the world is conceived. Taylor (2003: p. 87) specifically stated that we can only comprehend the meaning of a linguistic form in the sense of other cognitive constructs, and he emphasizes that word meanings are often defined concerning a specific

context, such as the word Monday to the term "*week*." Cruse (1986: p. 16) also highlights the importance of context, arguing that a word's meaning is determined by its contextual relationships. Hofmann then rejected the notion that a word has a fixed meaning that can be found in a dictionary (1993: p. 9) and argued that word definitions are only true or false when they are applied to something (1993: p. 15).

The belief that words represent the meaning in a language is incorrect, according to Crystal (1985: p. 236), since the meaning is carried by sentences. To understand what is meant, we must first place the word in meaning, which normally entails placing it in a sentence (for example, the word "*table*" may refer to either a piece of furniture or a portion of a printed page).

Leech (1981) recognized three main aspects of the study of meaning. The first is that attempting to describe meaning by restricting it to words from sciences other than language science, such as psychology or chemistry, is incorrect. The second is that meaning is better studied as a distinct linguistic phenomenon rather than as something "outside language." This means we look at what it takes to "*know a language*" semantically, such as what goes into identifying meaning relationships between sentences and determining which sentences are meaningful.

Dixon (2005: p. 7) defined semantic types as a group of words that have a general meaning element. Those words are traditionally allocated

to one of the following range of word classes: noun, pronoun, article, verb, adjective, adverb, preposition, conjunction, and interjection; and classified in the same way naturally into large classes at the semantic level. For instance, the Adjectives such as *big, broad, short, shallow* are grouped as the Dimension type. Verbs *begin, start, continue, finish* are grouped as the Beginning type. Furthermore, the allocation of words to word classes is made based on grammatical behavior. This includes the wording environment in which the word appears. Dixon (2005: p. 7) argued that word classes or called parts of speech are grouped from certain words that have general morphological and semantic properties at the level of grammar.

On the other hand, at the level of semantics, words can be set in *semantic types*, with part of general meaning, while at the level of grammar words can be set in *word classes*, with common morphological and syntactic characteristics. Languages differ in the weightings they assign to different parts of grammar. Some languages have a simple morphology but make up for this by having complex rules for how words are combined. There are two sorts of word classes mentioned by Dixon (2005, p. 8) the step one is major, and step two is minor. The minor classes have limited membership and cannot readily be added to. For instance, there are just seven Personal Pronouns in English (me, us, you, him, her, it, them) Most minor classes do not have any independent referential meaning.

Word classes also known as parts of speech are essential for any grammatical description, even though we can never really be entirely sure what their nature is. The reason for this ambiguity is that word classes are mental concepts rather than tangible three-dimensional entities, so they only 'exist' in our heads. Word classes can be thought of as abstractions over groups of words that share some common property or properties. Most linguists agree that in English, at least the following word classes must be recognized: noun, verb, adjective, preposition, adverb, determinative, and conjunction. It is impossible to give an exhaustive list of the many thousands of nouns since new ones are being coined all the time (and others will gradually be dropping out of use).

A semantic approach to defining word classes differs in that it argues that word classes should be defined in terms of more abstract semantic criteria. Thus, according to Langacker (1987: p. 189), word classes are "symbolic units" whose semantics determine which category the elements belong to. A noun, for example, is a symbolic unit that semantically instantiates a schema known as a thing. Processes are denoted by verbs, while temporal relations are denoted by adjectives and adverbs.

Morley (2000, p. 33) explained that verbs can be used to express processes that fall into one of three categories. First, they can denote actions, such as walking, drawing, watching, working, feeling (*pulse*), and sound (*horn*), because they involve someone doing something and can be

identified by questions such as '*What is X doing/did X do?*' Second, they can record events, such as occur, collapse, melt, become, and see, that involve something happening or a state change and are identified by '*What is happening/happened?*' Finally, they can refer to states (a state of affairs, a state of mind, etc.) such as be, seem, like, feel (*ill*), sound (*noisy*), which can refer to any point in time - past, present, or future. While, Dixon (2005, p. 9) stated that a verb is the center of a clause. A verb may refer to some activity and there must be several participants who have roles in that activity or a verb may refer to a state, and there must be a participant to experience the state. Something related to English construction aside from the subject is a verb. Dixon offers a discussion of some English Verbs in terms of semantic types, Dixon's theory also explained English verbs which have two main separations. They are; primary and secondary verbs. Verbs have different grammatical properties from language to language but there is always a major class Verb, which includes words referring to motion (*run, carry, etc.*), rest (*sit, put*), affect (*hit, cut, burn*), attention (*see, hear*), giving and speaking.

#### **a. Dixon's Semantic Types**

Dixon's method involves categorizing words, especially nouns, adjectives, and verbs, into 'semantic forms' based on a common meaning component and several grammatical properties. He then demonstrates how semantic forms, along with other semantic viewpoints, can be used to explain a variety of topics related to clause grammar. In Dixon's

classification, the noun has five main semantic types: concrete, abstract, states/properties, activities, and speech acts. Dimension, physical property, speed, age, color, value, difficulty, qualification, human propensity, similarity are the ten adjectives.

The language has between forty and fifty semantic types, thirty of which are associated with the verb. A type can have both main members that unambiguously belong to the type and more specific members which share semantic and grammatical characteristics with a neighboring type. The lexical words of a language can be grouped into several semantic types, each of which has a common meaning component and a typical set of grammatical properties. Semantic types are not mutually exclusive. The central representatives of a type tend to be frequently used words with a simple, general meaning; these do have unequivocal membership. But words of more specialized meaning may combine the semantic properties of more than one type.

Offer, for instance, relates both to giving (the most frequent kind of offer is an offer to give something) and to speaking (the person offering will usually employ words, although gestures could be used instead). Bite is a corporeal verb, alongside eat, chew, and swallow, but it can also be used as the cut as an affect verb, e.g. He bit/cut through the string; it has slightly different grammatical properties in the two senses a direct object when corporeal and preposition through when affect. Generally, when a verb shares the semantic characteristics of two types, it will also blend its

syntactic properties. (Dixon: 2005, p. 81)

### **(1) Semantic Types Associated with Noun Class**

Dixon (2005, p. 82) explained that there are five major types associated with the grammatical class noun in English. First, Concrete reference is can be divided into animate and animate. Animate may be a further subgroup of humans related to rank (lady, chief, lieutenant); another to a social group (nation, army, crowd, company); and another to KIN terms (father, daughter, uncle, wife). while maybe subdivide into flora; Celestial and Weather (e.g. sun, wind, shade); environment (air, water, stone, oil, gold, forest); Artefacts (building, market, door).

Second, Abstract reference The subtypes are included time (time itself, as well as words referring to position in time, e.g. future, yesterday, and units of time, e.g. month, moment, night, summer); place (place, together with words referring to position or direction, e.g. front, edge, north, and to units of measurement, e.g. mile); quantity (number, amount, age, size, length, etc.); variety (e.g. type, character, shape, and types of shape such as circle, line); language (sound, word, sentence, noun); and general abstract terms such as an idea, unit, problem, method, result, truth. Third, States (and properties) are kinds semantically associated with noun classes that are related to some basic nouns, (e.g. *anger*, *hunger*) but many are derived from adjectives (e.g. *jealousy*) and a few from verbs (e.g. *delight*). Fourth, Activities are commonly this kind same with states (*and properties*). Where both of them is basic noun, e.g. war and game,



but in activities mostly derive from verb, e.g. decision, whipping, sale. From almost every activity noun there is a corresponding verb, even if it is not always cognate, e.g. play for the game. Fifth, Speech acts such as a question, order, report, description, talk, and promise. This kind is related by a verb in each case usually cognate, e.g. answer, congratulate(*ion*) although there are some exceptions, e.g. question/ask.

## **(2) Semantic Types Associated with Adjective Class**

Dixon (2005, p. 84) explained that semantic types are associated with the grammatical class Adjective in English. Namely '*Dimension*' (e.g. big, great, short, thin), '*Physical Property*' (e.g. weak, clean, dirty, hot) this includes a corporeal subtype (e.g. well, sick, ill, handsome, ugly), '*Speed*' (e.g. quick (at), fast (at), slow (at), rapid, sudden. '*Age*' (e.g. new, old, young, modern), '*Colour*' (e.g. white, black, red, crimson, mottled, golden), '*Value*' ((a) good, bad, lovely, atrocious, perfect; (b) odd, strange, curious; necessary, crucial; important; lucky.), '*Difficulty*' (e.g. easy, difficult, tough, hard, simple.), '*Volition*' (e.g. deliberate, accidental, purposeful), '*Qualification*' with several subtypes:

- i. Definite, a factual qualification regarding an event, e.g. definite, probable, true, obvious.
- ii. Possible, expressing the speaker's opinion about an event, which is often some potential happening, e.g. possible, impossible.
- iii. Usual, the speaker's opinion about how predictable some happening is, e.g. usual, normal, common.

- iv. Likely, again an opinion, but tending to focus on the subject's potentiality to engineer some happening, e.g. likely, certain.
- v. Sure, as for (4), but with a stronger focus on the subject's control, e.g. sure.
- vi. Correct, e.g. correct, right, wrong, appropriate, sensible. These have two distinct senses, commenting (i) on the correctness of a fact, similar to (a) (e.g. that the whale is not a fish is right), and (ii) on the correctness of the subject's undertaking some activity (e.g. John was right to resign).

Human propensity, again with several subtypes:

- i. Fond, with a similar meaning to liking verbs, e.g. fond (taking preposition of).
- ii. Angry, describing an emotional reaction to some definite happening, e.g. angry (with/at/about), jealous (of), mad, (about), sad (about)
- iii. (Happy, an emotional response to some actual or potential happening, e.g. anxious, keen, happy, sorry (all talking about); proud, ashamed, afraid (all taking off)
- iv. Unsure, the speaker's assessment about some potential event, e.g. certain, sure, unsure (all taking of or about), curious (about).
- v. Eager, with meanings similar to wanting verbs, e.g. eager, ready, prepared (all taking for), willing.
- vi. Clever, referring to ability or an attitude towards social relations

with others, e.g. clever, stupid, lucky, kind, cruel, generous (all taken at).

- vii. Honest, a judgment of some person or statement as fair and just, e.g. honest (about/in/at), frank (in).
- viii. Busy, referring to involvement inactivity, e.g. busy (at/with), occupied (with), preoccupied (with), lazy (over).

Similarity, comparing two things, states or events, e.g. like, unlike (which are the only adjectives to be followed by an NP with no preposition); similar (*to*), different (*from*), equal (*to/with*), identical (*to*), analogous (*to*), separate (*from*), independent (*of*), consistent (*with*) (which introduce the second role obligatory for an adjective from this type with a preposition).

### **(3) Semantic Kinds Associated with Verb Class**

The last of major word classes in semantic kinds is an action word or basically called Verb since the gathering of verb requires a similar arrangement of the participant. A verb itself may allude to a state or action that is needed by participants either to have a function in the movement of experience.

According to Dixon (2005, p. 96), the English verb is divided into two sorts, they are Primary and Secondary verb. Verbs in Primary types may form a sentence on their own, with noun phrases filling in the semantic gaps; verbs in Secondary types are typically paired with another verb, of which they provide semantic alteration. Primary forms are divided

into two groups, each with ten semantic types: Primary-A and Primary-B. Motion, rest, affect, giving, corporeal, weather, competition, social contract, using, obeying are primary-a forms that must have noun phrases in both subject and object slots, typically with a noun from the concrete semantic form.

## 2. Motion Verb Subtypes

The word Motion in middle English comes from *mocio(u)n*, from Latin *motion-* (stem of *mōtiō*) is the action or process to change of position in space. Motion denotes change of position, either considered apart from, or as a characteristic of, something that moves; usually the former, in which case it is often a somewhat technical or scientific term: *perpetual motion*. It is also to signal or direct (a person) by a movement or gesture. And then, this motion is also related to prepositions. A fair proportion of motion and rest verbs are intransitive. Quite a few of these may be used transitively in a causative sense, Others are transitive (e.g. take). According to Dixon (2005: p. 102) stated that motion verbs are divided into seven subtypes. Such as:

- a. Motion—a Run subtype, refers to a mode of motion., such as run, walk, crawl, slide, spin, roll, turn, wriggle, swing, wave, rock, shake, climb, dive, stroll, trot, gallop, jog, dance, march, jump, bounce, swim, fly, and one sense of play ( as in the child is playing in the 28 sand). Verbs in this subtype are basically intransitive. Since it describes a mode of motion, the only obligatory role is moving. A

locus can be included, but this is optional, e.g. He loves strolling (in the park) Mary is sitting down at last (in her favorite armchair).

- b. Motion –b, Arrive subtype, deals with motion concerning a definite Locus. e.g. (i) Arrive, return, go, come; (ii) enter, exit, cross, depart, travel, pass, escape; come in, go out; (iii) reach, approach, visit, (which spans the motion and attention types). Since verbs from this subtype refer to a motion concerning a Locus, the Locus must normally be stated, either an NP or an adverbial, e.g. He has remained outside/ in the garage, she hasn't yet traveled to Spain/there.
- c. Motion–c, the Take subtype, refers to causing something to be in motion concerning a Locus, e.g. (i) take, bring, fetch; (ii) send (iii) move, raise, lift, steal. These are all transitive verbs with a Causer (normally human) in A function. Set (i) involves the double realization of the moving role-both A and O NPs normally refer to something in motion, e.g. John (Causer, moving) brought his dog (moving) to the party. For sets (ii) and (iii) the Causer need not be moving but of course, the O NP must be.
- d. Motion–d, The Follow subtype, refers to a motion concerning something which is moving, e.g. (i) Follow, track, lead, guide, precede, accompany; (ii) meet. These are all transitive verbs with moving roles in A and Locus (typically, also Moving) in O function, e.g. Motion tracked the car/ Mary, Fred met the train/Jane. Follow

has a further sense in which the O NP is a geographical feature extended in space, e.g. they followed the river. A further extension of meaning, applying to both follow and meet, has geographical features in both A and O slots, e.g. that road follows the spur of the hill; those two rivers meet at the foot of the mountain. Let may have a variety of nonhuman NPs in A function, in extensions from its central meaning.

- e. Motion-e, the carry subtype refers to motion in juxtaposition with some moving object (prototypically, a person's hand), e.g. carry, bear, transport, cart. These are all transitive verbs with the moving role mapped onto the O function. The subject maps a Causer role (normally human) and the Locus is likely to be some part of the human's body; the actual body part involved can be specified by a prepositional NP, e.g. John carried/ held the banana in/ with his hand/teeth. ( if nobody part is specified it is taken to be the unmarked one- hand for a human, mouth for a dog, etc) the carry includes some more specialized verbs whose meaning involves specification of the Locus, e.g. cart '*carry on a cart*' (cf. land 'put on land').
- f. Motion-f, the throw subtype, describe causing something to be in motion, e.g. throw, chuck, fling, pour, spray, water, push, press; pull, jerk, drag, tug, one sense of draw (e.g. draw the sword from a scabbard). These are transitive verbs with the thing Moving as O

and the Causer (which need not be moving) as A. The meanings of individual verbs describe both the mode of motion and how it was caused. g. Motion-g, the drop subtype, refers to unwanted motion, e.g. Fall, drop, spill, tip (over), upset, overturn, capsize, trip, slip. These verbs may be used intransitive, with the Moving thing in the S function. The motion may be due to a combination of natural forces such as gravity (the apple fell from the tree) and weather (the boat overturned in the storm). All drop verbs, with the sole exception of fall, are also used transitively, with the thing moving as O.

- g. Motion-g, the drop subtype, refers to unwanted or unexpected motion, e.g. fall, drop, spill, tip (over), upset, overturn, capsize, trip, slip. These verbs may be used intransitively, with the Moving thing in S function. The motion may be due to a combination of natural forces such as gravity (The apple fell from the tree) and weather (The boat overturned in the storm). All drop verbs, with the sole exception of fall verb, are also used transitively with the thing moving as O. The A NP is Causer —either a natural force responsible for the movement or some *human* who brought the movement about either through planned activities and it is unmarked circumstance through miscalculation. *Fall* verb is interesting because perhaps this subtype is the most common verb that is the only member exclusively intransitive. (There is the

transitive *fall* but this is only used of trees and sometimes people and refers to deliberate action, whereas *fall* normally describes uncontrolled motion towards the ground). Locus NP(s) may be added, but are not obligatory.

### 3. Contrastive Analysis

The word contrastive is derived from the word contrast. In the Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary, contrast is an obvious difference between two or more things. It means, it is putting in opposition or contradiction to show inequality or differences and the similarities between two or more things. Besides, (Fisiak, 1981:56) roughly defined "Contrastive Analysis is a subdiscipline of linguistics that deals with the comparison of two or more languages to determine both the differences and similarities that hold between them.

From this explanation, it can be concluded that what is meant by the term contrastive analysis is the language science that examines the differences and the similarities, as well several differences and the similarities which are contained in two or more languages that do not belong into the same language family.

Contrastive analysis is a little bit different from a comparative study. A comparative study examines the similarities and differences by comparing two or more languages that are cognate. For example, the comparison between Indonesian and Javanese language. Meanwhile,



contrastive analysis examines the differences or inequalities and the similarities that contained in two or more languages that do not belong into the same language family. (Lado, 1957) states that contrastive analysis is a method for comparing the elements of two different languages in terms of form and function to obtain the similarities and differences that can be useful for studying both languages, for example, the contrastive of English language and Makassarese language. In addition, contrastive analysis is a branch of study that has an important role in the process of studying a foreign language. It is important because by doing contrastive analysis we can predict learning problems or points of difficulty that may appear when learning a foreign language. In the process of language study, the most important is to determine aspects of similarities and differences in the two languages which are compared.

Stig Johansson in his paper title "*Contrastive Analysis and Language Learner: a Corpus-based Approach* (2008:11)" states that:

*"The importance of contrastive analysis extends beyond individual languages. When we compare across a number of languages, we can also see more clearly what is characteristic of languages more generally. There is a lot of interest in universals of language – that is, what is characteristic of language in general. To study this, to predict points of foreign language learner learning difficulty, there is a need for language comparison."*

To sum up, contrastive analysis is a branch of linguistics study that has a function to contrast two or more languages that do not belong to the same language family. Furthermore, contrastive analysis can help difficulties that

may be experienced by a person while learning two different languages at the same time.

#### **4. English Language**

The English language is the language that has resulted from the history of the dialects spoken by the Germanic tribes who came to England. English mainly belongs to the low west Germanic branch of the Indo-European family. This means that it shares certain characteristics common to all the Germanic languages. The period from 450 to 1150 is known as old English. It is sometimes described as the period of full inflections because during most of this period the endings of the noun, the adjective, and the verb are preserved more or less unimpaired. This period was over in the twelfth century from 1150 to 1500, the language is known as Middle English.

English is the first international language that is widely used. English is taught widely in various parts of the world. According to Richard & Rodger (1986), many populations in various countries use English as an international-level communication tool. Viney (2008, p. 1) in his book also mentioned that The English language is spoken today in parts of Europe, the Americas, Asia, Africa, Australia, New Zealand, and in some of the islands of the Atlantic, Indian, and Pacific oceans. It is spoken as a first language by 270 to 400 million people. It is also used as a second language by a similar number of people and as a foreign language by hundreds of millions of people. English is often called the 'world language'

because so many people in many places use it. English is the first language of most people in Britain and the US, which means English is the first language people learn from the child and they communicate using English all the time. In other countries like India, Kenya, Singapore, and Papua New Guinea, a large number of people use English as a second language. Peoples in their countries have their first language but because English is one of the official languages, they use it in education, business, government, radio, and television.

English is important not because it has more first-language speakers than other languages but it is used extremely widely. Finally, in many countries, English is taught in schools as a foreign language but it is not an official language. So mastery of English becomes a very important aspect because almost all global sources of information in various aspects of life use this language. Crystal (2000, 1) states that English is a global language. This statement represents the meaning that English is used by various nations around the world.

## **5. Makassarese Language**

Makassarese, sometimes also called Bahasa Makassar or Mangkasara' is a language used by an ethnic group of Makassar, the citizens of South Sulawesi in Indonesia. This language has its alphabet which is called Lontara, but nowadays, it is mostly written in the Latin alphabet also. The source of the Lontara alphabet is from the ancient Brahmi alphabet, India. As many generations of this alphabet, each of its

consonants contains the alphabet “a” without any sign. And the vocal alphabet is given a sign above, under, in front, or behind each consonant. Makassarese is used by the villagers of South Sulawesi as their communication tools. This language is pronounced by around two billion people, they are delivered into some of the coastal areas of Pinrang district, the western part of Pangkep island, the western and southern part of Maros district, Makassar city, Jenepono district, Takalar district, the southern part of Bone district, Bantaeng district, Bulukumba district, Selayar district, south-east part of Sinjai district. (Usmar, 2000, p. 23).

The language of Makassar is a living language and is a means of communication for the people who use it and even become a supporter of culture in South Sulawesi. This language is the second language after Bugis in South Sulawesi. According to Manyambeang, Mulya, et al (1996: 2), Makassarese language has 5 different dialects, namely:

- a. Lakiung dialect. This dialect is used in Ujung Pandang Municipality, the western part of Gowa district, starting from Salutoa to the estuary of the Jekbeneberang river, Takalar district and the surrounding islands, parts of Jenepono district, starting from Allu to the west, West Maros district, Pangkajene district, the Western Islands, and part of the coast of Pinrang district. Lakiung dialect which was chosen to be the standard of the Makassar language is not only because it is an agreement by the Makassar tribal community itself, but also because it is supported by the

Makassarese language factor and has written document, most of Makassarese language has long time been the official language in the Makassar ethnic area and are marked by the making of Makassar language as the official language of the Kingdom of Gowa in the XVI century (Manuputty et al, 2000). In addition, Makassar language textbooks, as well as local communication media in Makassar, use lakiung dialect (Dola et al, 2015).

The Lakiung dialect is one of the regional languages that have verbs or words that can state a process of occurrence of events and the circumstances of the occurrence of an action or thing. Verbs in Makassar language especially in the Lakiung dialect play a very important role because they can affect the existence of sentence and clause components. This is confirmed by Usmar (2000) who states that the existence of constituents in the form of nouns or noun phrases as companions can function as the subject, object or complement. This shows a symptom that Makassar language verbs have the potential to be different based on the number of nouns or noun phrases that become their companion constituents.

- b. Turatea dialect. This dialect is used in Jenepono district, starting from the east of 'Allu to the border of Bantaeng, all the way to the interior of the north to the border of Malakaji.
























- c. Bantaeng dialect. This dialect is spoken in Bantaeng district and the west coast of Bulukumba district.
- d. Konjo dialect. The area of use for this dialect occupies a very large area of use in the interior. It covers Pangkajene Archipelago district in the north, which is around Mappatuwo Tabo-Tabo, to the southeast by cutting Balocci sub-district, crossing the eastern part of Maros district. Then it continues to follow the eastern part of Gowa district which consists of Tinggimoncong and Tompobulu districts, continues to infiltrate parts of West Sinjai (Manipi) districts, and covers most of Bulukumba district to the east coast of Kajang. Due to the wide area of use of this dialect, this language appears in several variations, First namely the Highland Konjo or '*Konjo Pegunungan*' (west) where the Konjo dialect is used the most and the largest. The people who live in highland konjo work as a farmer and grow fruits, vegetables, and coffee. Second, namely Coastal Konjo or '*Konjo Pesisir*' (east) where life in coastal konjo mainly work as fishermen and boat builders. Last is Tana Towa or Kajang is the name given to an isolated group reported to speak a dialect of konjo. The Tana Towa people resist modern ways and their contact with outsiders is limited. The people prefer black clothing and practice their traditional religion and black magic. This group is located in the mountains of the northeastern part of Bulukumba district.

- e. Selayar dialect. The dialect began to be used in Ujung Bira, crossing to Selayar Island, covering Bontotekne and Bontoharu sub-districts to the border of Layolo village, then to Tambolongan and Pulasi islands, Kayuadi Island, most of Tanah Jampea Island and Kalao Island.

The language is almost exclusively used in rural areas and poorer parts of Makassar city, and while it competes with Indonesian in the upwardly mobile sections of Makassar society, the command of the Makassar language is an important part of ethnic identity. Makassarese and Indonesian code-switching and mixing are widespread in urban areas, less so in rural ones. In fact, some urban Makassarese now speaks Indonesian at home especially if they are middle-class and/or in a mixed marriage (for example, marriages between Bugis and Makassarese are common), and children born into this situation will not be fluent in Makassarese. However, based on the researcher's observations, this remains a minority case and Makassarese will continue to be spoken for generations.






On the other hand, Literacy is a different case. It was rare to read the earlier Makassarese script, although few become fluent readers of the Bugis script, and at the same time, due to the lack of standardization and a lack of available texts, people are usually prevented from acquiring literacy in Romanized Makassarese. The script of Lontara Makassarese can be shown in the figure below.

**Consonants** (ᑎᑎᑎᑎ ᑎᑎᑎᑎ [ndo' surə' / ina' surə'])

							
ka	ga	nga	ngka	pa	ba	ma	mpa
[kɔ]	[gɔ]	[ŋɔ]	[ŋkɔ]	[pɔ]	[bɔ]	[mɔ]	[mpɔ]
							
ta	da	na	nra	ca	ja	nya	nca
[tɔ]	[dɔ]	[nɔ]	[nrɔ]	[cɔ]	[jɔ]	[ɲɔ]	[ncɔ]
							
ya	ra	la	wa	sa	a	ha	
[jɔ]	[rɔ]	[lɔ]	[wɔ]	[sɔ]	[ɔ]	[hɔ]	

**Vowels diacritics** (ᑎᑎᑎᑎ ᑎᑎᑎᑎ [ana' surə'])

						
ki	ku	ke	kə	ko		
[ki]	[ku]	[kɛ]	[kə]	[ko]		

**Other symbols**



	
pallawa	end of section

Figure 2.1. Transcript of Lontara Makassarese Language. (Ager, 2017)



### C. Conceptual Framework

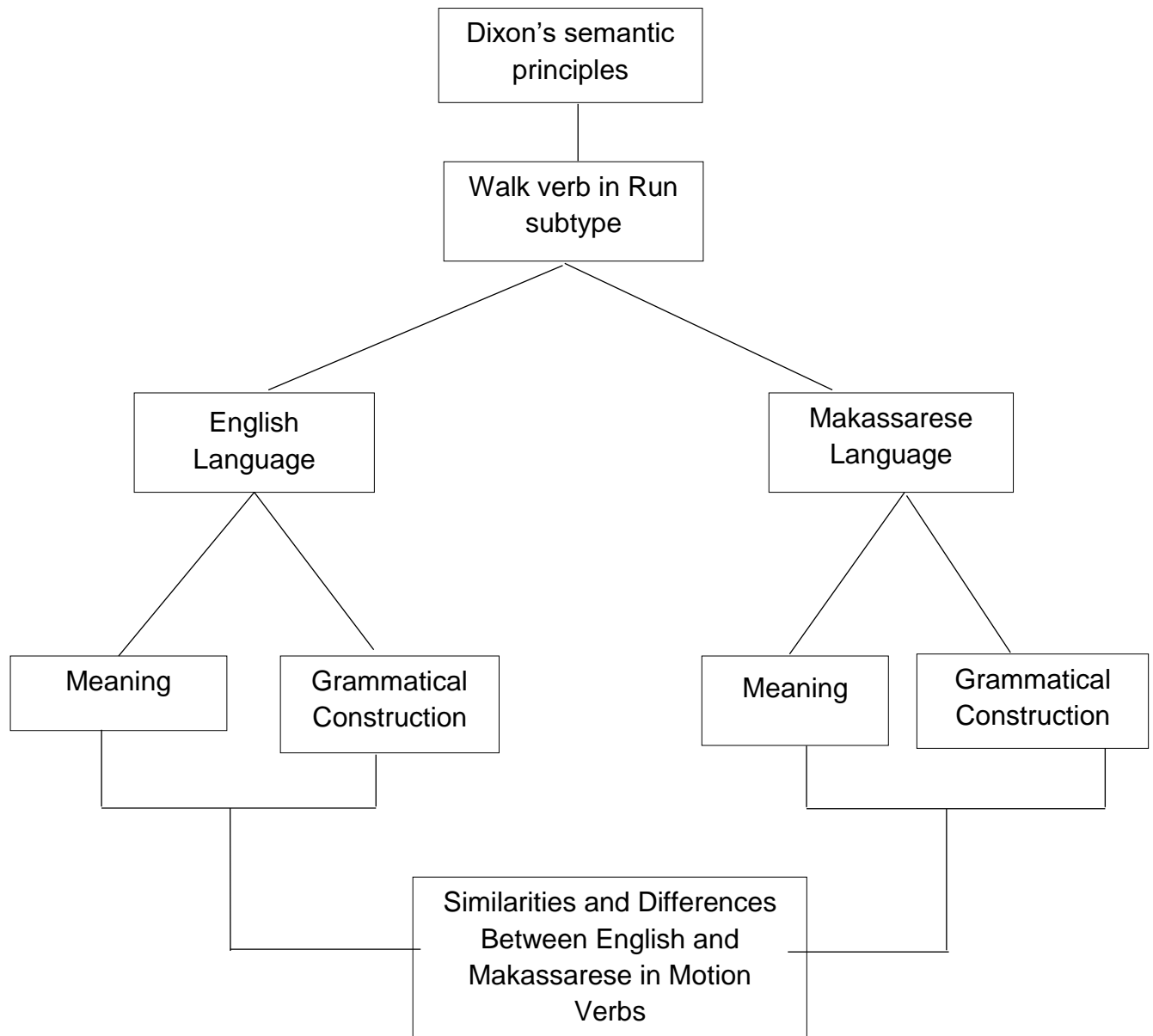


Figure 2.2 Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework shows the concept which describes the relationship between the theory and other important variables of the research. This research exposes Run Subtype in English and Makassarese using Dixon's semantic principle focusing on "Walk" verb.

The theory guides the researcher to work out the meaning of each “Walk” verb, which is then used as the base comparison to going to their grammatical constructions. As the result, similarities and differences of “Walk” verb between English and Makassarese language can be seen both in the level of meaning and grammatical construction.