

**HIT SUBTYPE OF AFFECT VERB UNDER DIXON'S THEORY IN
ENGLISH AND MAKASSARESE: SEMANTIC PRINCIPLE**

*SUB BAGIAN HIT DARI VERBA AFFECT BERDASARKAN TEORI
DIXON DALAM BAHASA INGGRIS DAN BAHASA MAKASSAR:
PRINSIP SEMANTIK*



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THESIS

**HIT SUBTYPE OF AFFECT VERB UNDER DIXON'S
THEORY IN ENGLISH AND MAKASSARESE: SEMANTIC
PRINCIPLES**

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Makassar, 30 August 2024



Aurelia Ramadhia Lumentut



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Aurelia Ramadhia Lumentut



ABSTRACT

AURELIA RAMADHIA LUMENTUT. *Hit Subtype of Affect Verb Under Dixon's Theory in English and Makassarese: Semantic Principle* (supervised by Harlinah Sahib and Fathu Rachman).

The research aims to compare the sentence structures and meaning interpretations of *hit* verbs in English and Makassarese. The data for the research were drawn from two sources: the English data came from the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA), while the Makassarese data were sourced from the Mangkasara Dictionary. The data were gathered and analyzed using a qualitative descriptive approach. The findings of the research indicates that Makassarese language has fourteen kinds of "hit" as follows: *ambak, bakji, dattek, ganrang, jaguruk, kandatto, peppek, racca', tampiling, tamba', tempa, tette, tunrung, tuntung*. Both English and Makassarese could used intransitive and transitive verbs. In English, "*hit*" has a basic meaning as an action of striking or pounding something with hands or another object. Nevertheless, the meaning of "*hit*" can also be broader and include concepts such as touching or meeting casually with something, achieving or reaching something successfully, like achieving a goal or target, having a strong impact or influencing significantly, gaining popularity or attracting attention quickly or suddenly. In Makassarese, "*hit*" also refers to the sound produced from direct or indirect contact between objects or people. The meaning of "*hit*" is not limited to physical actions of striking, but can also refer to various concepts involving strong influence or impact. The particular differences of hit verb can be seen from two aspects, semantically and syntax. English construction mostly started by subject or something as agent which is followed by verb, while in Makassarese the



tion mostly started by hit as a verb, agent in causer un phrase as target. The clause structures in arese have some variations and can be simplified to only a verb (or a verb phrase) as long as the subject ehensible from the previous context. The pattern of

Makassarese language structure are VP+NP+adj, VP+NP, NP+V+NP, VP+NP+V+N, VP+NP+N.

Key words: *hit verbs; affect verb; meaning; construction*



ABSTRAK

AURELIA RAMADHIA LUMENTUT. *Sub Bagian Hit dari Verba Affect Berdasarkan Teori Dixon Dalam Bahasa Inggris dan Bahasa Makassar: Prinsip Semantik* (dibimbing oleh Harlinah Sahib and Fathu Rachman).

Penelitian ini bertujuan untuk membandingkan struktur kalimat dan interpretasi makna dari kata kerja "*hit*" dalam bahasa Inggris dan Makassar. Data untuk penelitian ini diambil dari dua sumber: data bahasa Inggris berasal dari Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA), sedangkan data bahasa Makassar berasal dari Kamus Mangkasara. Data dikumpulkan dan dianalisis menggunakan pendekatan deskriptif kualitatif. Temuan penelitian menunjukkan bahwa bahasa Makassar memiliki empat belas jenis "*hit*" sebagai berikut: *ambak, bakji, dattek, ganrang, jaguruk, kandatto, peppek, racca', tampiling, tamba', tempa, tette, tunrung, tuntung*. Baik bahasa Inggris maupun bahasa Makassar dapat menggunakan kata kerja transitif dan intransitif. Dalam bahasa Inggris, "*hit*" memiliki makna dasar sebagai tindakan memukul atau menumbuk sesuatu dengan tangan atau benda lain. Namun, makna "*hit*" juga dapat lebih luas dan mencakup konsep seperti menyentuh atau bertemu secara kebetulan dengan sesuatu, mencapai atau meraih sesuatu dengan sukses, seperti mencapai tujuan atau target, memiliki dampak kuat atau mempengaruhi secara signifikan, mendapatkan popularitas atau menarik perhatian dengan cepat atau tiba-tiba. Dalam bahasa Makassar, "*hit*" juga merujuk pada suara yang dihasilkan dari kontak langsung atau tidak langsung antara objek atau orang. Makna "*hit*" tidak terbatas pada tindakan fisik memukul, tetapi juga dapat merujuk pada berbagai konsep yang melibatkan pengaruh atau dampak kuat. Perbedaan khusus dari verba "*hit*" dapat dilihat dari dua



secara semantik dan sintaksis. Konstruksi bahasa sebagian besar dimulai dengan subjek atau sesuatu agen yang diikuti oleh verba, sedangkan dalam Makassar konstruksi sebagian besar dimulai denganagai verba, agen dalam slot penyebab, frasa benda

sebagai target. Struktur klausa dalam bahasa Makassar memiliki beberapa variasi dan dapat disederhanakan menjadi hanya verba (atau frasa kata kerja) selama subjek dapat dipahami dari konteks sebelumnya. Pola struktur bahasa Makassar adalah VP+NP+adj, VP+NP, NP+V+NP, VP+NP+V+N, VP+NP+N.

Kata kunci: *verba memukul; verba mempengaruhi; makna; konstruksi*



TABLE OF CONTENTS

APROVAL SHEET	ii
STATEMENT OF THESIS AUTHENTICITY	Error!
Bookmark not defined.	
ACKNOWLEDGMENT	iv
ABSTRACT	vii
ABSTRAK	ix
TABLE OF CONTENTS	xi
LIST OF TABLE	xiii
LIST OF FIGURE.....	xiv
CHAPTER I.....	1
INTRODUCTION	1
A. Background	1
B. Research Questions	8
C. Objectives of The Research	8
D. Significances of The Research	9
E. Scope of The Research	11
CHAPTER II.....	12
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE	12
A. Previous Studies.....	12
B. Semantic Principle	16
1. Semantic and Grammatical Word Classes	16
2. Affect Verb.....	28
3. Makassarese Language	35
4. COCA (Corpus of Contemporary American English)	39
C. Conceptual Framework	41
ER III.....	43
RCH METHODOLOGY	43
Research Design	43



B.	Techniques of Collecting Data	43
C.	Technique of Analyzing data	45
CHAPTER IV		48
FINDING AND DISCUSSION		48
A.	Finding.....	48
a.	“Hit” Verb in English Data	49
b.	“Hit” Verb in Makassarese Data	56
B.	Discussion.....	72
a.	<i>Affect</i> Verb in English and Makassarese Language in <i>Hit</i> subtype under Dixon’s Principle.....	72
b.	The Similarities and Differences of Hit Verbs in English and Makassarese Language based on <i>Affect</i> Verb in <i>Hit</i> subtype.....	77
CHAPTER V		86
CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION		86
A.	CONCLUSION	86
B.	SUGGESTION	90
BIBLIOGRAPHY		92
APPENDICES I		96
A.	DATA FROM COCA.....	96
APPENDICES II		119
B.	DATA FROM KAMUS MANGKASARA	119



LIST OF TABLE

Table 1. The Classification of *Hit* subtype of *affect* verb in
Makassarese

Language.....71

Table 2. The pattern of Makassarese language

Constructions.....83



LIST OF FIGURE

Figure 1. Transcript of Lontara Makassarese

Language.....38

Figure 2. Conceptual

Framework.....41

Figure 3. Data

Analysis.....47



CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

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

A. Background

Language can produce and comprehend both spoken and written and in the case of sign language, signed) words. Understanding how language works means reaching across many branches of psychology everything from basic neurological functioning to high-level cognitive processing. Language shapes our social interactions and brings order to our lives. Complex language is one of the defining factors that makes us human. Two of the concepts that make the language unique are grammar and lexicon.

All languages obey a set of combinatory rules to indicate an infinite number of concepts. While every language has a different set of rules like Makassarese



between English language, both do obey rules, and all languages too. These rules are known as grammar. Speakers of a language have internalized the rules and exceptions for that language's grammar. There are rules for every level of language, and word formation (for example, native speakers of English have internalized the general rule that -ed is the ending for past tense verbs, so even when they encounter a brand new verb, they automatically know how to put it into past tense); phrase formation (for example, knowing that the use of the verb "sell" it needs a subject and object); and sentence formation. (Lumen, 2019)

In linguistics, the grammar of a natural language can be a set of rules for generating logical communication. All languages have grammar, and native speakers of a language have internalized the rules of that language's grammar. For linguists, grammar is simply the collection of principles defining how to put together a sentence. (Study.com, 2021)



he term usually refers to people who devote
res to analyzing the structure of language. (Webster,

2020). Sometimes some people say a general word and a non-specific word which creates ambiguity for the listeners.

Linguists spend their time studying what language is and what it does. Different linguists study language in different ways. Some study the design features that the grammars of all the world's languages share. Some study the differences among languages. Some linguists focus on structure, others on meaning. Some study language in the head, and some study language in society. (Paul, 2015).

In the field of linguistics, the study of the meaning of language is semantics. It is an attempt to explicate the knowledge of any speaker of a language which allows that speaker to communicate facts, feelings, intentions, and products of the imagination to other speakers and to understand what they communicate to him or her (Kreidler, 1998: 9).

A linguist, Dixon, in his book “A Semantic Approach to English Grammar” intends to provide a fresh look at grammar, arguing that a speaker “codes” a meaningful grammatical forms to communicate a theme to a hearer.



Investigating the interrelation of grammar and meaning, Dixon uncovers a rationale for the varying grammatical properties of different words. Dixon offers a discussion of some English Verbs in terms of semantic types that lead this research to analyze one of English Verb which is *hit* subtype.

The lack of research comparing the usage of the *Hit* subtype of *Affect* verbs in English and Makassarese deeply, as well as a lack of understanding of how cultural and social factors influence the selection of *Hit* verbs in both languages, and limitations in the literature addressing the semantic principles underlying the *Hit* subtype in Dixon's theory, especially in the context of Makassarese.

Therefore, the researcher aims to investigate how the *Hit* subtype of *Affect* verbs is used in English and Makassarese to describe situations or events with significant emotional or psychological impact, to explore the semantic principles underlying the *Hit* subtype in Dixon's theory, including how concepts of influence and emotion are



used in both languages, to understand how cultural and social factors influence the selection and usage of *affect*

verbs in English and Makassarese, and to provide new insights into the differences and similarities between English and Makassarese in the usage of the *Hit* subtype of *Affect* verbs, as well as its relevance within the framework of comparative linguistics.

Furthermore, grammar and semantics are interrelated. A grammatical construction always considers the aspect of meaning and a different form of sentence will also convey a different meaning. Based on a meaning of a word one can think of its grammatical possibilities, for example, the verb *hit* and *ambak* in Makassarese.

The correlation between grammar and semantics can be described as when a speaker of a language encounters a new word they may, first of all learn its meaning, and will then have fair idea of the morphological and syntactic possibilities. First of all, learn something about how to use the word grammatically, and this will help them to work out its meaning. (Dixon, 2005:6)



In order to know the correlation between grammar and semantics, this research investigates the extension of

the *hit* subtype in *affect* verb. *Affect* items are prototypical transitive verbs that involve three basic semantic roles, Agent moves to manipulate something (referred to as the Manip role) so that it comes into contact with something or person (the target role). Either the Manip or Target (or, occasionally, both) will be physically affected by the activity.

Affect verb types are divided into: *hit, punch, cut, sweep, cover, twist, burn*. Only the *hit* subtype will be analyzed in this research. The *hit* subtype refers to Manip being brought through the air to impact on the Target like: *hit, strike, punch, bump, kick, knock, tap, bash, slap, spank; whip, belt, cane, hammer, shoot*.

There have been numerous studies of grammar and use over the last two decades, as researchers have come to realize that the description of grammatical function is as important as structural analysis. In most cases, these studies focus on grammatical features that have two or more structural or semantic variants. By studying these features in



occurring discourse, researchers have been able to systematic differences in the functional use of each

variant. More recently, researchers on discourse and grammar have begun to use the tools and techniques available from corpus linguistics, with its greater emphasis on the representativeness of the database, and its computational tools for investigating distributional patterns in large text collections (Biber, 2015).

In order to try and widen the research database, Corpora was used to collect examples from the web of the sequence corpus linguistics is. Corpus linguistics is a whole system of methods and principles of how to apply corpora in language studies and teaching and learning. There exist corpus-based and non- corpus-based studies in all branches of linguistics. Corpus has an important role in this research to select the texts based on *hit* subtype, and to examine naturally occurring linguistic feature distributions. The results of corpus analyses can be used to improve its representativeness and to discover design lapses and errors.



B. Research Questions

Based on the background, the researcher formulated the research questions as follows:

1. What are the variety of *hit* subtype of *affect* verb under Dixon's theory in English and Makassarese?
2. What are the similarities and the differences of *hit* subtype of *affect* verb under Dixon's theory in English and Makassarese?

C. Objectives 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 variety of *hit* subtype of *affect* verb under Dixon's theory in English and Makassarese.
2. To compare the similarities and the differences of *hit* subtype of *affect* verb under Dixon's theory in English and Makassarese.



D. Significances of The Research

The researcher takes some significance that related to this research. Those are:

1. Theoretic Benefit

Analyzing the *hit* subtype of *affect* verbs in English and Makassarese can provide insights into how emotional and affective concepts are expressed differently across languages, contributing to our understanding of cross-linguistic variation. It can help validate or refine Dixon's theory by examining whether the principles proposed by the theory hold true across diverse linguistic contexts, thus contributing to the validation of semantic universals. Through the analysis, researchers can refine semantic typologies, enhancing our understanding of the underlying semantic structures related to emotions and influence verbs. By investigating how cultural and cognitive factors influence the usage of *affect* verbs in both languages, researchers gain insights into the interplay between language, cognition, and culture in expressing affective



meanings. The analysis contributes to the advancement of linguistic theory, particularly in the fields of semantics and linguistic typology, by providing new insights into the expression of affective meanings in different languages.

2. Practical Benefit

Understanding the nuances of *Hit* subtype usage in English and Makassarese can enhance language teaching and learning, facilitating better comprehension and expression of emotional concepts in both languages. Insights gained from the analysis can improve translation and interpretation accuracy between English and Makassarese, ensuring that the intended meanings are conveyed effectively. It can foster better cross-cultural communication between English and Makassarese speakers by deepening understanding of how emotions are expressed linguistically in both languages. Researcher can benefit from insights into *affect* verb usage for literary and



creative writing purposes, enriching their ability to convey emotions vividly in their works.

E. Scope of The Research

The scope of research on the *hit* subtype of *affect* verbs under Dixon's theory in English and Makassarese includes cross-linguistic comparison, exploration of cultural, examination of practical applications, validation of Dixon's theory, and consideration of limitations and future directions.

This research focuses on Dixon's theory in using the semantic approach to English grammar. The researcher also limits the study particularly in Makassarese dialect to compare with English. The researcher contrasted the similarities and the differences between English and Makassarese which is English as a foreign language also as 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

This chapter consists of three parts. The first is previous studies that are related to this research. The second is the theoretical background which covers some parts, it begins from semantic and grammar, syntactic aspect, Dixon's semantic principles, *hit* subtypes of English and Makassarese language until the conceptual framework.

A. Previous Studies

This part presents some brief outlines of previous studies which are related to the current study, which are mentioned in the previous chapter.

According to Reskiana Hartari (Hartari, 2018) *sit* subtype refers to a stance of resting, some verbs specification of Locus is obligator, and other it is optional. In her journal, she identifies rest verbs in English and Buginese based on the *sit* subtypes divided by Dixon. In her research



that there are nine rest verbs of *sit* subtype in English, sit (down), stand (up), lie (down), kneel, crouch, an, hang (down), and float, while in Buginese, there

nineteen of *sit* subtype: ttudang, ccado', seppo', massampiang, massulekka, makkaddao uttu, mattulak sadang, mappasilojo', mappalempu, tettong, lleu, maggalelu, mattojang, makkaluttu, ccuku', rroko', maccekkeng, ssanre', maggattung, and mmawang. She implied the main differences of rest verbs in English and Buginese based on *sit* subtype which is seen from two aspects, clause structure and a stance of resting. From clause structure, in English, a NP is followed by VP, while in Buginese is permissible that VP is followed by NP that is marked by the suffix –I in VP. From a stance of resting aspect, cultural background plays an important role in determining the variants of the rest verb.

From the Rub subtype, Syamsir (Syamsir, 2018) consists of the similarities and differences between Rub subtype verbs of English and Konjo languages in the aspect of semantic and grammatical construction. Furthermore, the similarities and the differences of Rub subtype verbs in



and Konjo language in two aspects: firstly, in the if semantic, there are twelve verbs of Rub subtype

verbs in English, however in Konjo language, there are nineteen verbs. It depends on the meaning. Secondly, the similarity of Rub subtype verbs of English and Konjo language in the aspect of grammatical construction: consists of the similarities and differences between Rub subtype verbs of English and Konjo languages in the aspect of semantic and grammatical construction.

Therefore, (Melansari & Syafitri) research was aimed to investigate See subtype verbs in English and Wolio languages whereas the meanings and grammatical properties and show that the English See subtype verbs identified are *see, hear, smell, taste, feel, observe, notice and perceive*. While the Wolio See subtype verbs identified are *kamata, rango, bou, penami, namisi, and tuminda*. In the aspect of meaning, the Wolio See subtype verbs do not always have the same function as English in the use. Some verbs in Wolio language have more wide semantic range, such as 'kamata' and 'namisi'. 'Kamata' refers to become



if somebody or something by using of eyes either in
 e or over period of time and carefully or not. In

addition, 'kamata' also can be used to see a movie, witness the accident, and observed somebody or something. 'namisi' also can cover feel and perceive. Though it is a transitive and intransitive verb at once, but the passive sentence of this verb is not allowed. In addition, this verb also does not have the imperative form when it refers to 'perceive'. Contrast with 'tumindaea' that has more narrow semantic meaning. 'tumindaea' is just used to pay attention or notice somebody or his/her speech or advice.

Moreover, in this research, the researcher analyzed the *hit* subtype and identified the used in English and Makassarese with COCA. In addition, the researcher emphasized the *hit* subtype and identified the used among English with COCA and Makassarese. Based on the previous related studies many of the researchers shown that regional languages have more varied verbs, not only referring to one meaning than the data obtained from English itself more than the English uses. The researcher contrasted



grammatical meaning of verbs in sentences of using theory in Makassarese language in tense.

B. Semantic Principle

1. Semantic and Grammatical Word Classes

A powerful method in the study of the semantic structure of lexical items is that of word-formation, in that it describes how complex items can be derived from simplex ones in a regulär way. Looking at the process from the other direction, we can greatly reduce the number of items that have to be assigned a complete semantic specification, if complex items can be derived from simplex ones. This amounts to a considerable simplification of the lexicon. However, there are certain limitations to the method, which are mainly due to the effect of lexicalization. Varying degrees of idiomaticity tend to obscure the originally clear relationship between the constituents of a complex form, which becomes unanalysable.

In all languages, words can be grouped in distinct classes with different semantic and syntactic functions. In

he words have traditionally been classified into eight nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs,



prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections. In contrast, within linguistics a word class is defined in grammatical terms as a set of words that exhibit the same syntactic properties, especially concerning inflections and distribution in sentences.

a. Syntactic Aspect

Syntactic structure, including the division into word classes is language specific. However, one can identify prototypical structures among words that can be used in classifications. The structure of communication is subject to the same cognitive constraints as thinking and problem solving in general. Therefore it is reasonable that the structure of language, at least to some extent, is determined by such general cognitive principles. (gärdenfors, 2014)

These are the functions of arguments (which may be expressed by NPs and/or bound pronouns). An intransitive clause has one core argument, in S (intransitive subject)

and a transitive clause has two, in A (transitive and O (transitive object) functions. There is almost a subtype of transitive extended transitive (or



ditransitive), with three obligatory arguments A, O, and E, for 'extension to core' (this is typically marked by dative case).

Dixon's Semantic Types Underlying both words and grammar there is semantics, the organization of meaning. A word can have two sorts of meanings. First, it may have 'reference' to the world: red describes the color of blood; chair refers to a piece of furniture, with legs and a back, on which a human being may comfortably sit. Secondly, a word has 'sense', which determines its semantic relation to other words, e.g. narrow is the opposite (more specifically: the antonym) of wide, and crimson refers to a color that is a special sort of red (we say that crimson is a hyponym of red).

There are many thousands of words in a language, each with meaning; some meaning differences are large, others small. The words can be grouped together in a natural way into large classes that have a common meaning component. It is referred to these as semantic types. Verbs begin, start, commence, finish, cease, stop, continue, and a few others



make up one type. Adjectives such as big, broad, short, comprise the dimension type. At the level of

semantics, words can be arranged in semantic types, with a common meaning element. At the level of grammar, they can be arranged in word classes (traditionally called 'parts of speech'), with common morphological and 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:

- 1) concrete reference, e.g. girl, horse, wrist, piece, grass, star, fire, hill, city, table. This type can be divided into human; other animate; (body and other) parts; inanimate. inanimate may be further subdivided into: flora; celestial and weather (e.g. sun, wind, shade); environment (air, water, stone, oil, gold, forest); artefacts (building, market, door). One subgroup of human relates to rank (lady, lieutenant, chief); another to social group (nation, army, crowd, company); and another to kin terms (father, daughter, uncle, wife).



- 2) Subtypes here include: 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 idea, unit, problem, method, result, truth. Members of this type are also predominantly basic noun roots although there are some derived stems, e.g. distance, height, truth.
- 3) states (and properties). This covers both the mental (pleasure, joy, honor; ability, sagacity) and the corporeal (e.g. ache; strength) domains. Some are basic nouns (e.g. anger, hunger) but many are derived from adjectives (e.g. jealousy) and a few from verbs (e.g. delight).



- 4) activities. Some are basic nouns, e.g. war, game, but most are derived from verbs, e.g. decision, speculation, whipping, sale. For almost every activity noun there is a corresponding verb, even if it is not always cognate, e.g. play for the game.
- 5) speech acts, e.g. question, order, report, description, talk, promise. In each case there is a related verb; this is usually cognate, e.g. answer, congratulat(ion), although there are some exceptions, e.g. question/ask.

Every language has words of these five types, but they do not always belong to the Noun class. In the Australian language Dyirbal, for instance, almost all nouns are concrete. Dyirbal has an ample supply of words dealing with states, properties, activities, and speech acts, but they all belong to the Verb and Adjective classes; For example, the English words anger, game, and the question must be translated into Dyirbal through adjectives ('angry') and verbs



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:

- 1) dimension, e.g. big, great, short, thin, round, narrow, deep.
- 2) physical property, e.g. hard, strong, clean, cool, heavy, sweet, fresh, cheap, quiet, noisy; this includes a corporeal subtype, e.g. well, sick, ill, dead; absent; beautiful, ugly.
- 3) Speed quick (at), fast (at), slow (at), rapid, sudden.
- 4) Age new, old, young, modern.
- 5) colour, e.g. white, black, red, crimson, mottled, golden.
- 6) value, e.g. (a) good, bad, lovely, atrocious, perfect; (b) odd, strange, curious; necessary, crucial; important; lucky.
- 7) difficulty, e.g. easy, difficult, tough, hard, simple.
- 8) volition, e.g. deliberate, accidental, purposeful.



- 9) qualification, with a number of subtypes: (a) definite, a factual qualification regarding an event, e.g. definite, probable, true, obvious; (b) possible, expressing the speaker's opinion about an event, which is often some potential happening, e.g. possible, impossible; (c) usual, the speaker's opinion about how predictable some happening is, e.g. usual, normal, common; (d) likely, again an opinion, but tending to focus on the subject's potentiality to engineer some happening, e.g. likely, certain; (e) sure, as for (d), but with a stronger focus on the subject's control, e.g. sure; (f) 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).



- 10) human propensity, again with a number of subtypes: (a) fond, with a similar meaning to liking verbs, e.g. fond (taking preposition of); (b) angry, describing an emotional reaction to some definite happening, e.g. angry (with/at/about), jealous (of), mad (about), sad (about); (c) happy, an emotional response to some actual or potential happening, e.g. anxious, keen, happy, thankful, careful, sorry, glad (all taking about); proud, ashamed, afraid (all taking of); (d) unsure, the speaker's assessment about some potential event, e.g. certain, sure, unsure (all taking of or about), curious (about); (e) eager, with meanings similar to wanting verbs, e.g. eager, ready, prepared (all taking for), willing; (f) clever, referring to ability, or an attitude towards social relations with others, e.g. clever, adept, stupid; lucky; kind, cruel; generous (all taking at); (g) honest, judgement of some person or



statement as fair and just, e.g. honest (about/in/at), frank (in); (h) busy, referring to involvement in activity, e.g. busy (at/with), occupied (with), preoccupied (with), lazy (over).

- 11) 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). Almost all the members of dimension, physical property, speed, age, difficulty and qualification are basic adjectives (dead, derived from a verb, is an exception). Many of the less central colour terms are derived from nouns, e.g. violet, spotted. There are a fair proportion of adjectives derived from



verbs in the value and volition types (e.g. interesting, amazing, desirable, accidental, purposeful) and some in the human propensity and similarity types (e.g. thankful, prepared, different). A few words in value and human propensity are derived from nouns (e.g. angry, lucky).

These eleven Adjective types do have rather different grammatical properties. The prefix *un-* occurs with a fair number of qualification and human propensity adjectives, with some from value and a few from physical property and similarity, but with none from dimension, speed, age, colour, difficulty, or volition. Most adjectives are used in comparison; some take suffix *-er*, some take modifier *more*, and some take either of these.

(3) Semantic Kinds Associated with the Verb Class

According to Dixon (2005, p. 96) each semantic type
 ed with the verb class takes a number of semantic
 giving verb involves Donor, Gift, and Recipient; a
 y verb can demand reference to Speaker,



Addressee, Message and Medium. Not every verb from a type necessarily requires all of the roles some motion verbs take just one role, the thing Moving (e.g. John is running), while others also take a second role, the Locus with respect to which motion takes place (e.g. Mary passed the school).

If a verb has only one core role this always corresponds to S (intransitive subject) at the level of syntax. S has a wide semantic range compare JOHN ran away, THE STONE rolled down the hill, FRED is winking, PETER is sleeping. If a verb has two or more semantic roles then one will be mapped onto A (transitive subject) and one onto O (transitive object) syntactic function.

There is a semantic principle determining which role corresponds to which function. Basically, that role which is most likely to be relevant to the success of the activity will be identified as A this is the Speaker for speaking verbs, the Agent for *affect* verbs like *hit*, and the Perceiver for attention verbs.



2. Affect Verb

Dixon (2005: p. 110) stated that *affect* items are prototypical transitive verbs (according to the criteria set out by Hopper and Thompson 1980). They involve three basic semantic role, an Agent moves or manipulates something (referred to as the Manip role) so that it comes into contact with something or person (the Target role). Either the Manip or the Target (or, occasionally, both) will be physically affected by the activity. These roles can be mapped onto syntactic relations in three distinct ways:

I. John (Agent) *hit* the vase (Target) (with the stick (Manip))

II. John (Agent) *hit* that stick (Manip)
on/upon/against the table (Target)

III. That stick (Manip) *hit* the vase (Target)

The most characteristic *affect* verb construction is I, in which the Target is affected by the Manip being brought into contact with it John swings that stick against the vase so that



breaks; the Manip is, in this instance of the activity, than the Target. The Manip will either be an object

held by the Agent (usually, in their hand) or else somebody part of the Agent. The *with* instrumental phrase in construction I need not be stated, although it could always be supplied. (Neither A nor O can be omitted from any of the three construction types.)

Construction II is likely to be used when the Manip is less strong than the Target, so that it is the Manip which is physically affected by impact of Manip on Target—John swings that stick against the table and the stick breaks. That role which is physically affected is most salient in this instance of the activity and is coded onto O syntactic relation, this is the Target in I and the Manip in II. In II the Target is marked by a preposition on, upon, against, etc. It is noteworthy that this prepositional phrase cannot be omitted from II. (If it were, then John *hit* that stick would be taken to have that stick as Target, i.e. an instance of construction I where the *with* phrase has been omitted. This confirms I as the unmarked construction for *affect* verbs.)



is also possible to say, as an alternative to I, John's the vase (when he was swinging it to test its weight,

not aware that there was a vase nearby) or just That stick *hit* the vase (when John swung it), as in III. To put the Manip into A (transitive subject) slot in this way may disclaim the Agent's responsibility for the result of the activity—true, they were swinging that stick, but they did not intend to *hit* the vase (and wouldn't have dreamt of swinging it if they'd known the vase was there). For III the Target must, as in I, be in O slot. The Agent has no obligatory syntactic coding in III, but it is usually hovering somewhere in the sentence, e.g. as possessor to Manip within the A NP (John's stick) or as A within a subordinate clause (when John was swinging it). Pattern III is, like II, a marked construction for *affect* verbs; it is used to achieve a certain semantic effect. (Sentences such as The falling coconut *hit* Mary (as she sat under the palm tree) can also be classified as III. The Manip role in this sentence, the falling coconut, is something moving due to a natural force—here, gravity.) It will be seen that 'patient' and 'instrument' are not appropriate labels for the semantic roles



ed with *affect* verbs. That role which is affected by
ing is the patient and is mapped onto O syntactic

relation—this is the Target in I and the Manip in II. The role which engenders the affect on the patient is the instrument—this is the Manip in I; the Target could conceivably be called an instrument in II.

There are two other construction types applicable to some *affect* verbs. The first is a variant of I, with a preposition inserted before the Target:

IV. John (Agent) kicked at the door (Target) (with his hob-nailed boots (Manip))

The other construction type is also a variant of I. An adverb may replace the O NP, indicating that the activity was indulged in rather wildly (rather than being directed, in a controlled fashion, at a specific Target):

V. John (Agent) hit out (with that stick (Manip))

It is not possible to include the door either before or after out in V. However, at the door is acceptable, yielding a blend of IV and V, where the Agent hits out wildly, but in the direction of a Target, i.e. John hit out at the door (with that



note that there is no necessary connection between

✓. Some verbs can take a preposition before the

Target, in IV, but cannot accept an adverb, in V, e.g. He hammered at the door, but not *He hammered out. (He hammered the message out is different both syntactically and O NP is included and semantically.) A number of *affect* verbs may include an adjective after the Target NP (when this is in O function) in construction I or III describing the state in which the Target was put by the activity, e.g. Mary knocked John unconscious, Mary's stick knocked John unconscious. These can be treated as reductions from underlying structures of the form Mary knocked John so that he was unconscious. Note that the peripheral NP indicating Manip comes after John in Mary knocked John with her stick so that he was unconscious. However, when so that he was is omitted, knocked unconscious functions like a single compound form, and a peripheral NP must follow it, as in Mary knocked John unconscious with her stick. *affect*, like motion and rest, is a large type, involving hundreds of verbs.

It can usefully be divided into eight subtypes, each of which special semantic and syntactic characteristics. (Note



that all *affect* verbs are transitive; verbs in some subtypes (noted below) may also function intransitively.)

affect-b, the *hit* subtype, refers to Manip being brought through the air to impact on Target, e.g. *hit*, strike, punch, bump, kick, knock, tap, bash, slap, spank; whip, belt, stone, cane, hammer; shoot.

All occur in constructions I, II and III. Those like *hit*, strike, punch, kick, which refer to some vigorous activity that can be done quite wildly (just moving the Manip without controlled focus on a particular Target), also occur in V and in IV. Verbs such as knock, tap, bash, slap and spank carry an implication that Manip should make contact with a specific Target they occur in I, II and III, and also in IV, e.g. He knocked on/at/against the door (with his stick), but not in V. Then there are verbs derived from nouns such as whip, belt, stone, hammer which have more restricted syntactic possibilities (as verbs derived from nouns often do have).

They may all occur in I, just whip in III (The rope which John whipped my face) and just hammer in IV. The uses of these verbs include specification of an



archetypical Manip (e.g. the central meaning of hammer is ‘*hit* with a hammer’) and because of this it would be implausible for the Manip to be in O slot in II. (Note, though, that these verbs may be used with a non-cognate Manip, which can be O in II, e.g. He hammered his Wsts upon the door.)

Shoot is an unusual verb in that there are effectively two Manips—the Agent operates a gun or bow (Manip1) which sends on its way a projectile (Manip2) that impacts on the Target. Either ‘gun’ or ‘projectile’ may fill the Manip slot in I/IV and III, with the ‘other Manip’ being introduced in I/IV by using; thus: I/IV John shot (at) the pig with pellets using his shotgun/with his shotgun using pellets, and III John’s shotgun/pellets accidentally shot the pig. The ‘gun’, however, is unlikely to occur in O slot in II, simply because use of the verb shoot implies a gun as Manip we may say John shot pellets at the pig using his shotgun, a II construction with the ‘projectile’ in O slot, but scarcely *John

shotgun at the pig using pellets.



Some verbs from the *hit* subtype may include an adjective after the Target role when it is in O function, describing a state engendered by the action, e.g. kick/punch/knock unconscious, shoot dead.

3. Makassarese Language

Makassarese language is an Austronesian language which is usually spoken by the Makassarese people in parts of South Sulawesi, 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



wo billion people, they are delivered into some of the areas of Pinrang district, the western part of Pangkep

island, the western and southern part of Maros district, Makassar city, Jeneponto district, Takalar district, the southern part of Bone district, Bantaeng district, Bulukumba district, Selayar district, south-east part of Sinjai district. (Usmar, 2000, p. 21).

The variety of languages in the Makassarese tribe forms a dialect continuity, so that the boundary between language and dialect is difficult to determine. A survey of languages in South Sulawesi conducted by linguists and anthropologists Charles and Barbara Grimes separated Konjo and Selayar from Makassarese, while a follow-up survey by linguists Timothy Friberg and Thomas Laskowske split the Konjo language into three (Pesisir Konjo, Mountain Konjo, and Konjo Mountains, and Bentong/Dentong). However, in a book on Makassarese grammar published by Pusat Pembinaan dan Pengembangan Bahasa, local linguist Abdul Kadir Manyambeang and his team included the Konjo and Selayar languages as dialects of Makassarese.



g the Konjo and Selayar languages, the
arese language can be divided into at least three

dialects, namely 1) the Gowa or Lakiung dialect, 2) the Jeneponto or Turatea dialect, and 3) the Bantaeng dialect. The main difference between the various dialects and languages in the Makassar tribe is in the level of vocabulary; the grammars of these varieties are generally not much different. Speakers of the Gowa dialect tend to use Indonesian when communicating with speakers of the Bantaeng dialect or speakers of the Konjo and Selayar languages, and vice versa. The Gowa dialect is generally considered the "prestige variety" of the Makassar language. As a variety spoken in the central region, the Gowa dialect is also commonly used by speakers of other dialects or languages in the Makassarese tribe (Manuputty et al, 2000).
























Makassarese speakers are concentrated in the southwest region of the South Sulawesi peninsula, especially in the fertile coastal areas around Makassar City, Gowa Regency, and Takalar Regency. Makassarese language is also spoken by some residents of Maros district








ngkajene and Islands in the north, alongside the language.

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 (ᨆᨑᨑᨑ ᨆᨑᨑᨑ [ndo' sure' / ina' sure'])

							
ka	ga	nga	ngka	pa	ba	ma	mpa
[kə]	[gə]	[ŋə]	[ŋkə]	[pə]	[bə]	[mə]	[mpə]
							
ta	da	na	nra	ca	ja	nya	nca
[tə]	[də]	[nə]	[nrə]	[cə]	[jə]	[ɲə]	[ncə]
							
ya	ra	la	wa	sa	a	ha	
[jə]	[rə]	[lə]	[wə]	[sə]	[ə]	[hə]	

Vowels diacritics (ᨆᨑᨑ ᨆᨑᨑ [ana' sure'])

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

Other symbols



	
pallawa	end of section

Figure 1. Transcript of Lontara Makassarese Language. (Ager, 2017)



4. COCA (Corpus of Contemporary American English)

The definition of corpus or in plural form called corpora according to Sinclair which is a corpus is a collection of pieces of language text in electronic form, selected according to external criteria to represent, as far as possible, a language or language variety as a source of data for linguistic research. (Sinclair, 2005:12).

It can be seen from the previous definition, the term *corpus* stands for a large collection of natural texts, both written and spoken, and they can be found in digital form stored. A corpus consists of millions of words from various sources and registers: fiction and non-fiction writing, academic papers, newspaper articles, telephone conversations, commercials, lectures, public speeches, television interviews, written and spoken, formal and informal. There are precise rules for developing a corpus

determining the types and quantities of texts and they are used to ensure that a corpus is representative and valid (Meyer, 2002: 30).



The COCA which was released online in 2008 contains more than 402 million words since every year from period 1990-2009 is added by 20 million new words. Therefore, it is designed as a source for observing ongoing changes in the language. It is the first large, diverse and publicly available corpus of American English that contain texts from a wide range of genres and texts (Davis, 2009: 160).

COCA comprises 20% of spoken English and 80% of written texts. Portion of 20% is consistently dedicated to fiction, popular magazines, newspaper, academic and other genres as demonstrated in the contiguous table which contrasts numbers of words assigned to individual genres in the COCA (Davies, 2009: 16)



C. Conceptual Framework

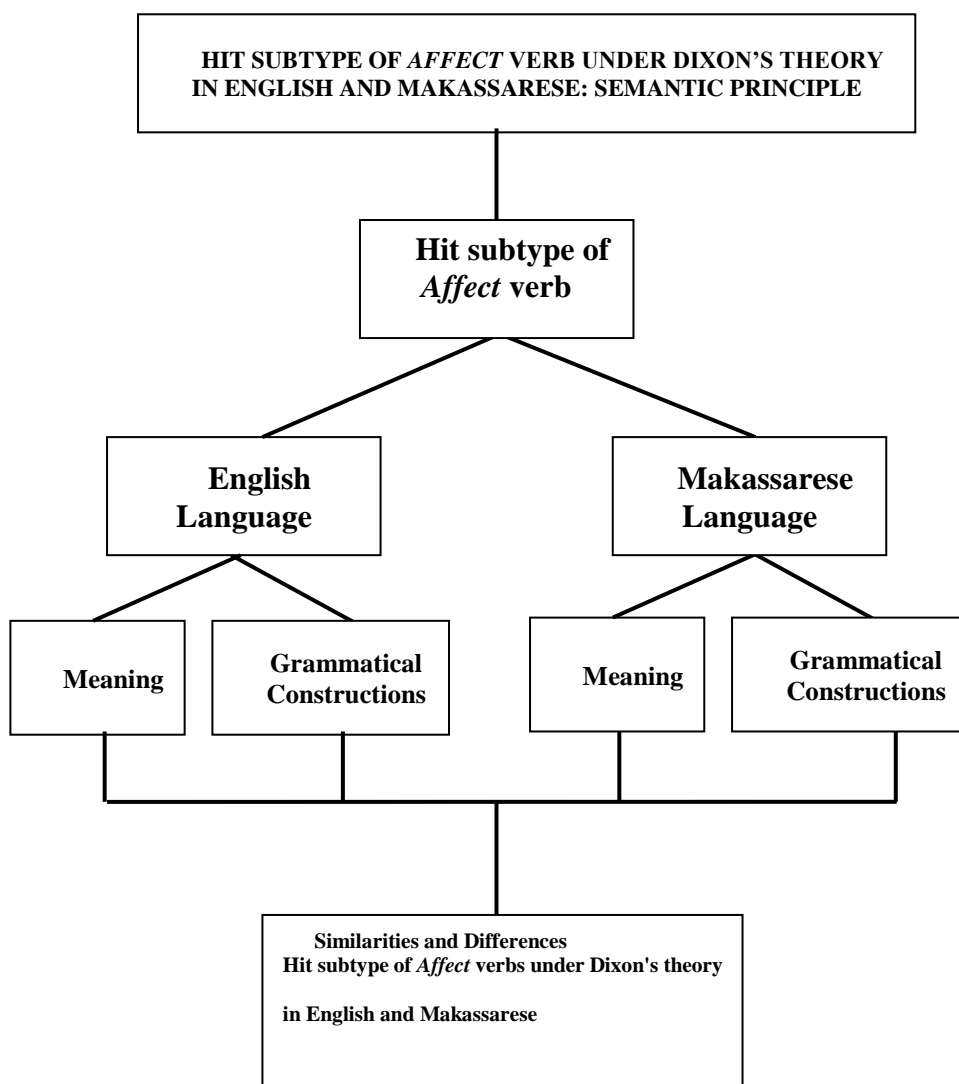


Figure 2. Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework shows the concept which is the relationship between the theory and other variables of the research. This research exposes



Run Subtype in English and Makassarese using Dixon's semantic principle focusing on "*hit*" verb. The theory guides the researcher to work out the meaning of each "*hit*" verb, which is then used as the base comparison to going to their grammatical constructions. As the result, similarities and differences of "*hit*" verb between English and Makassarese language can be seen both in the level of meaning and grammatical construction.

