

## CHAPTER II

### THEORITICAL REVIEW

#### A. Semantics Theory and The Concept of Meaning

##### 1. Semantic Theories

The term ‘semantics’ came to be widely used in the 20th century, however the subject it represents is very old, reaching back to Plato’s and Aristotle’s writing, and attracting the special interest of philosophers, logicians, and these days linguists (Tambunan, 2009, p.13). Griffiths (2006, p.15) says “Semantics is one of the main branches of the linguistic study of meaning”. Griffiths calls semantics as the study of the “toolkit” for meaning; it is knowledge encoded in the vocabulary of the language and in its patterns for building more elaborate meanings, up to the level of sentence meanings (2006, p.15).

Hurford and Heasley (1983) cited in Tambunan (2012, p.1) say that semantics is defined as the study of meaning in language. Semantics studies the meaning at two basic levels mainly: the word and the sentence (Salinas, 2005, p.2). In semantics we have to explain and clarify the nature of meaning although there is no very general agreement either about the nature of meaning or about the way in which it should be described.

Hurford et al. explain more, semantic theory is a part of a larger enterprise, linguistic theory, which includes the study of syntax (grammar) and phonetics (pronunciation) besides the study of meaning (as cited in Tambunan, 2012: 11). The different grammar and pronunciation in a

language may differ the meaning of that language. Therefore, other studies are involved in semantics.

Katz cited in Tambunan (1972-2009, p.7) suggests that a semantic theory must explain why the meaning of a linguistic construction makes it a case of a certain semantic property or relation, makes it exhibit the phenomenon of synonymy, ambiguity, or redundancy, and so forth. Salinas (2005, p.2) added “semantics also deals with “shades” of meaning (polysemy) interpretations, presuppositions, implications, prepositional meaning, and figures of speech such as metaphor and similes”. In the other word, semantics should be able to define any expression in a language and specify those meanings based on their case whether it is meaning properties or relation.

Yule (2006, p.100) states that linguistic semantics deals with the conventional meaning conveyed by the use of words, phrases and sentences of a language, rather than on what an individual speaker might want them to mean on a particular occasion. This technical approach is concerned with objective or general meaning and avoids trying to account for subjective or local meaning. So that semantics can help an analysis to see the network of lexical relations in its complexity (Missikova, 2009, p.67).

Dealing with the definition from sense expert it can be concluded that semantic is study of meaning in language that has two basic level, the

word and sentence that make it exhibit the phenomenon of synonym, ambiguity, or redundancy, and so forth.

## **2. Meaning**

As has already said on the explanation above, there is no very general agreement either about the nature of meaning or about the way in which it should be described, Kempson argues there is no way to determine whether it be false or not (1977, p.1). Besides, the word “meaning” is described in various definitions by semanticists, for instance, Leech in Tambunan (1981-2012: 23) notes three points of meaning through the following:

- a. Meaning involves the speaker’s intention to convey a certain meaning that may or may not be evident from the message itself.
- b. Consequently, interpretation by the hearer is likely to depend on the context.
- c. Meaning in the sense is something, which is performed rather than something that exists in static way. It involves action (the speaker produces and effects on the hearer) and the interaction (the meaning being negotiated between the speaker and the hearer on the basis of their mutual language).

## **3. Lexical, Grammatical and Contextual Meaning**

Chaer (2007, p.289) defines “*Makna leksikal adalah makna yang dimiliki atau ada pada leksem meski tanpa konteks apa pun*” (Lexical meaning is a meaning that possessed by a lexeme without any context). It

is the actual thing that is observed through human senses. For example, the lexeme 'horse' has a lexical meaning 'a large animal with four long legs'. And the lexeme 'house' has lexical meaning 'the building made for people to live in'.

Unlike lexical meaning, grammatical meaning is meaning that possessed by a stem because of grammatical process, such as affixation or tenses. For example, in the affixation of suffix *-s* attached to a stem 'chair' produces 'chairs'. It changes the meaning of the word 'chair' from one chair (singular) to be many chairs (plural).

Chaer (2007, p.290) concludes in his research "*Makna kontekstual adalah makna sebuah leksem atau kata yang berada di dalam satu konteks*" (Contextual meaning is meaning of a word within a certain context). For example, the question of 'What is a war?' may have two different contextual meanings. They are as following:

- a. If a teacher asks a child of preschool, the child will answer 'That's horrible'.
- b. If we ask to a soldier, he will consider a war as an attitude to get the peace.

#### **4. Part of Speech**

Part of speech is the traditional term for a grammatical class of words . Yule divides it into 8 types; they are noun, article, adjective, verbs, adverb, preposition, pronoun, conjunction (2006, p.74).

- a. Nouns are words used to refer to people (boy), objects (backpack), creatures (dog), places (school), qualities (roughness), phenomena (earthquake) and abstract ideas (love) as if they were all things..
- b. Articles are words (a, an, the) used with nouns to form noun phrases classifying those ‘things’ (e.g. You can have **a** banana or **an** apple) or identifying them as already known (e.g. I will take **the** apple).
- c. Adjectives are words used typically with nouns, to provide more information about the things referred to (e.g. **happy** people, **large** objects, a **strange** experience).
- d. Verbs are words used to refer to various kinds of actions (go, talk) and states (be, have) involving people and things in events (e.g. Jessica **is** ill and **has** a sore throat so she can’t **talk** or **go** anywhere).
- e. Adverbs are words used typically with verbs, to provide more information about actions, states and events (slowly, yesterday). Some adverbs, such as really and very, are also used with adjectives to modify information about things (e.g. **Really** large objects move slowly. I had a **very** strange experience yesterday)
- f. Prepositions are words (at, in, on, near, with, without) used with nouns in phrases providing information about time (e.g. **at** five o’clock, in the morning), place (e.g. **on** the table, **near** the window) and other connections (e.g. **with** a knife, **without** a thought) involving actions and things.

- g. Pronouns are words (she, herself, they, it, you) used in place of noun phrases, typically referring to people and things already known (e.g. **She** talks to **herself**. **They** said **it** belonged to **you**).
- h. Conjunctions are words (and, but, because, when) used to make connections and indicate relationships between events (e.g. Chantel's husband was so sweet **and** he helped her a lot **because** she couldn't do much **when** she was pregnant).

## 5. Kinds of Phrase

Crystal (1980 in Tambunan 2009, p.170) states that phrase is a term used in grammatical analysis to refer to a single element of structure containing more than one word, and lacking the subject-predicate structure typical of clauses. Eastwood (2012, p.3) distinguishes phrase into five types: noun phrase, verb phrase, adverbial phrase, adjectival phrase, and prepositional phrase.

Noun phrase is the construction into which nouns most commonly enter, and of which they are the head word (Crystal, 1980 in Tambunan, 2009, p.170). Eastwood (2012, p.168-169) explains about noun phrase; it can be a noun on its own (e.g. ***Silence** is gold*). It can be the subject, object, or complement of a sentence (e.g. ***The vehicle** hit **the tree***). It can be combination between noun with articles (*a house*), possessives (*my job*), demonstratives (*this way*), quantifiers (*many cars*), adjectives (*a good idea*), or with other noun (*a car accident*).

Crystal (1980 in Tambunan 2009, p.170). explains for the other phrases. Verb phrase consists of a main verb and one or more auxiliaries For example: *is coming, may be coming, get up to, etc.* Adverbial phrase functions in sentence as the adverbial, its head word and modifier are adverb. For example: *yesterday morning, very quickly, rather quietly, etc.* Adjectival phrase functions in sentence as the adjectival, its head word is adjective. For example: *very important, extremely hot, etc.* Prepositional phrase consists of a preposition, the object of the preposition and the modifiers (if any). For example: *in the corner, under the big tree, etc.*

## **6. Kinds of Sentence**

According to Crystal (1980 in Tambunan 2009, p.319), sentence is the largest structural unit in terms of which the grammar of a language is organized. He classifies sentence based on the function into four types which are statement, question, command, and exclamatory.

Crystal defines those types (1980 in Tambunan 2009, p.319). Statement is a sentence which contains a subject occurring before a verb. For example: *The man is coming.* Question is a sentence with inversion of the subject and first verb in the verb phrase, commencing with a question word, or ending with a question tag. Eastwood (2012, p.18) divide the questions into two types: a yes/no questions (*Is he coming?*) and a wh question (*What should we do?*). Command (in Eastwood called as Imperative) is a sentence which typically has no subject, and where the verb is in the imperative mood. For example: *Come here!* Exclamatory

refers to any emotional utterance, usually lacking the grammatical structure of a full sentence, and marked by strong intonation. For example:

*What a fool he was!, How nice!, Lovely!, etc.*

## **B. Ambiguity**

### **1. The Definition of Ambiguity**

It may seem as though little need to be said about ambiguity in that it is a clear cut-phenomenon which both words and sentences can have more than one meaning (Kempson, 1977 in Irawan, 2009, p.123). Moreover, Cann (1993 as cited in Irawan 2009, p.8) states that a sentence is said to be ambiguous whenever it can be associated with two or more different meanings. Irawan (2009, p.115) conclude both Cann and Kempson agree that ambiguous words, phrases or sentences have more than one interpretation. He says that to figure out the exact meaning or the message conveyed in the ambiguous words or sentences, it demands the specific context. The first sort of ambiguity occurs where an expression is associated with two or more unrelated meaning.

According to Djajasurjana in Andriani (1999-2012, p.56) a meaning may be unclear because: (a) the word or sentence is common (general). For example, the word 'book' has multiple meanings; (b) the word or sentence which is interpreted is not the same with the speaker/the writer's intention. The interpretation should depend on the context though the context is unclear; (c) the meaning limit connected to language and non-language is not clear. For example, there's no limit to say that

someone is clever at something; (d) the use of the word or sentence is not familiar to us.

## 2. **Kinds of Ambiguity**

Ullmann (1972, in Irawan, 2009, p.202) divides ambiguity into three: phonological ambiguity, lexical ambiguity, and structural ambiguity.

### a. Phonological Ambiguity

Ambiguity in the level of phonology arises from the sound of language uttered not in written form (Ullmann cited (1972, in Irawan, 2009, p.103). Hamidy (2009, p.2) says it occurs when a set of sound can be interpreted in more than one way. Sometimes people speak too fast and make other people feel doubt about the meaning or message of the utterance so that people may interpret it in many ways. Hamidy argues that this type of ambiguity arises at the level of the surface structure rather than the deep structure (2009, p.2).

Example:

“*I scream* (I skri:m) or *Ice cream* (ais kri:m).”

When the hearers hear the utterance above, they may have the different interpretation whether ‘*I scream*’ refers to the action ‘scream’ or ‘*icecream*’ refers to the kinds of drink.

### b. Lexical Ambiguity

Hamidy (2009, p.2) states that lexical ambiguity arises when a single word has more than one meaning that can be accepted. According to Rodd Gaskell, and Marslen-Wilson (2002, p.245),

ambiguous words can refer to more than one concept on the basis of the context in which the word occurs. Linguists attempt to clearly make distinction in ambiguity between two types; polysemy and homonymy (Cruse, 1986; Lyons, 1977, 1981 as cited in Rodd et al, 2002, p.245).

According to Pateda (2001), lexical ambiguity is considered the most common form that this phenomenon characteristic of natural languages tends to take, due to the numerous occurrences of polysemous words and to the various cases languages. Rodd et al. (2002, p.246) explain polysemy as "...is considered to be a single word that has more than one sense". For example the word *walk* is *polysemous*, as proven by the following examples:

- a. Jane preferred to *walk* alone. (to go on foot)
- b. Do you *walk* the dog twice a day? (to escort on foot)
- c. This armchair is too heavy to choose for them to *walk* it into the living room (to move a large object by rocking it).
- d. He who dies a violent death in this church is sure to *walk* the tower. (to move about a place, haunting it as a ghost).
- e. The workers threatened to *walk*. (to move about instead of working at the workplace because one is on strike).
- f. *Walk* with God! (to walk the paths of life by acting in a moral way)

A homonym is a word that not only sounds the same, but is also

spelled the same that is considered to be different words (Rodd et al., 2002, p.245). For example, *bark* has two semantically unrelated. It can refer either to a part of a tree or to the sound made by a dog.

Rodd et al. (2002, p.245) explain more, however, there is a looser sense of this term: a word that is spelled the same as another word but has a different meaning, technically called a homograph (e.g. the metal lead and the present tense of the verb lead), while a word that is pronounced with the same sound technically called a homophone (e.g. die and dye). Then, Rodd et al. conclude that if this linguistic relation is complete called as full homonymy, and if it is partial called as homophony or homography (2002, p.245).

Here is another example for lexical ambiguity:

*“Experts warn the current global financial turmoil may take a bigger toll on emerging Asia.”*

The word ‘*toll*’ in the sentence above may be interpreted into different ways since the word ‘*toll*’ has many meanings.

Toll (n):

- a. Payment for road, bridge etc.
- b. Lost or suffered

Based on the definitions of the word ‘*toll*’ above, the readers may interpret the sentence into:

3. First interpretation

*“Experts warn the current global financial turmoil may*

*need or require a bigger payment on emerging Asia.”*

4. Second interpretation

*“Experts warn the current global financial turmoil may cause a bigger lost on emerging Asia.”*

c. Structural Ambiguity

Ambiguity in the level of grammar occurs when phrase, clause or sentence create ambiguity because their structure may be interpreted more than one way (Bach, 2016). Muhonen and Purtonen states that ambiguity is structural rather than lexical; they explain “the possible ambiguity is primarily caused by word order: the potentially ambiguous expression is located between the main verb and the (participial) NP” (2012, p.3).

Example:

*“Indonesian women and children are trafficked overseas for sexual and labor exploitation.”*

The sentence above may be interpreted into different ways. The readers may be confused in modifying the word ‘Indonesian’, whether it modifies the word ‘women’ only or ‘children’ also. However, the readers may interpret the sentence into:

1) First interpretation

*“Women from Indonesia and children are trafficked overseas for sexual and labor exploitation”.*

2) Second interpretation

*“Indonesian women and Indonesian children are trafficked overseas for sexual and labor exploitation”.*

Yule (2006, p.80) suggests an alternative type of diagram to show how constituents in sentence structure can be marked off by using labeled brackets. The first step is to put brackets (one on each side) round each constituent, and then more brackets round each combination of constituents. For example :

[[	(The)		(dog)]		[	(loved		[	(the)	(girl)]	]]]
	Art		N			V			Art		N

With the procedure, the different constituents of the sentence are shown at the word level [the] or [dog], at the phrase level [the dog], or [loved the girl], and at the sentence level [The dog loved the girl]. We can then label each constituent using abbreviated grammatical terms such as ‘Art’ (= article), ‘N’ (= noun), ‘NP’ (= noun phrase), ‘V’ (= Verb), ‘VP’ (= Verb Phrase) and ‘S’ (= sentence) (Yule, 2006, p.80).

#### **b. The Causal Factors of Ambiguity**

Regarding its problem and complexity, it can be determined a *linguistic* condition which makes words, phrase or sentence ambiguous. It is called as causal factors. Ullmann (1972, in Irawan, 2009, p.203-206) states the causal factors of ambiguity as follows:

##### **a. Polysemy**

Polysemy or multiple meaning occurs when one word has two

or more senses. Yule (2006:107) states that relatedness of meaning accompanying identical form technically known as polysemy, which can be defined as one form (written or spoken). For example is the word *port* which possibly mean as “the town or city with the harbor”, “a place where ships load and unload”, or “the side of a ship or an aircraft”.

b. Homonym

Homonymy is two different words with the same form (Lyons, 1981 cited in Turangga, 2013, p.146). Moreover, Bloomfield (1961 cited in Turangga, 2013, p.45) states that homonymy refers to the different linguistics forms which have the same phonetic form (and differ, therefore, only as to meaning)

*Experts warn the current global financial turmoil may take a bigger toll on emerging Asia.*

Homonymy is divided into three varieties:

1) Homophones: Different words pronounced alike but spelt differently.

E.g.: *two (tu:) – too (tuw:); sea (sie) – see (sie).*

2) Homographs: Different words spelt alike but pronounced differently

E.g. : *minute ('minit')- minute (mai 'nju:t) ; bow (bav-bow (bav).*

3) Homonyms: words both spelt and pronounced alike.

E.g.: *club (kl^b) (social organization); club (kl^b) (a blunt*

weapon).

c. Grammatical word form

1. Prefix

Prefix is an affix which is placed before the stem of a word. Some prefixes can cause ambiguity (Tambunan, 2009, p.13). For example:

*“The door is unlockable”.*

Prefix *un-* and *-able* in the sentence above may cause ambiguity. The readers may be confused. The readers may interpret the sentence into:

- a) *The door is unlock-able*: The door is capable of being locked, or;
- b) *The door is un-lockable*: The door is impossible to lock.

2. Suffix

Some suffixes have more than one meaning and some of them may cause ambiguity (Tambunan, 2009, p.13). For example is suffix *-ing* in the verb or noun in the sentence:

*“Visiting relatives can be boring.”*

Here, *visiting relatives* may be interpreted into two ways:

First, “*visiting*” functions as gerund → the activity (visit the relatives can be boring). Second, “*visiting*” functions as active participle → relatives who are visiting make bored.

### 3. Equivocal Phrasing

Equivocal phrasing is known as amphiboly where the individual words constructing the phrase are not ambiguous but their combination can be interpreted in two or more ways (Tambunan, 2009, p.18). For example:

*“Indonesian women and children are trafficked overseas for sexual and labor exploitation.”*

The description of the sentence above may seem confusing whether the word ‘*Indonesian*’ modifies the noun ‘*women*’ only or ‘*children*’ also. It contributes two interpretations:

- a) *Women from Indonesia and children are trafficked overseas for sexual and labor exploitation.*
- b) *Women from Indonesia and children from Indonesia are trafficked overseas for sexual and labor exploitation.*

#### d. Contextual Ambiguity

Irawan (2009, p.123) explains that contextual ambiguity depends on context of the speaker’s intention or in the context of situation. Then he gives example.

e.g.: Utterance “*Get Out!*”

This utterance may generate ambiguity when the context of situation makes two possible meanings. In other word, the hearers do not really understand the meaning until it comes to the context. Here is an example of the situation where the utterance is said:

*The headmaster is talking with a student who always makes a trouble in the school. He is angry with the student. When he is angry, he asks the student to leave him by saying Get out! At the same time, another student enters the headmaster's room and hears the command of the headmaster.*

Here, the student who enters the headmaster room will not understand the meaning of his headmaster's command whether it is for him or for the student who is sitting in the front of the headmaster. In this case, utterance "Get out!" is a kind of contextual ambiguity because it may be interpreted more than one way. To avoid contextual ambiguity, people should really understand the context of the speaker's or writer's condition, or the context of situation.

**c. How to avoid Ambiguity**

Pateda (2001 in Irawan 2009), in *Semantik Leksikal* reveals the way to avoid ambiguity. They are:

- a. By asking the speaker to repeat his/her utterance in the case of phonological ambiguity.
- b. By considering the context of situation or the supra-segmental elements. People may avoid ambiguity, whether lexical ambiguity or grammatical ambiguity, even phonological ambiguity by considering the context of situation (Irawan, 2009) In listening unclear spoken utterance or reading unclear sentences, people occasionally have some difficulties to understand the meaning. They may ensure the meaning

of words, phrases and sentences in a certain context of situation (Rodd et al. 2002).

c. By replacing technique

The ambiguous word may be overcome by replacing its synonym or another word which is closely related without changing the message of the sentence. For example is in distinguishing the word *view* from the meaning of natural scenery or personal opinion (point of view). It may be replaced by the word *scenery* if the writer intends to talk about natural scenery (Irawan, 2009).

d. By expansion technique

Expansion technique is the other techniques to avoid ambiguity. The ambiguous word may be described or explained more by using the additional information about the ambiguous word (Tambunan, 2009). For example is when someone says “*Get out!*” that can be ambiguous because of the less information. People who hear these utterance may be confused because there is no explanation about the place to go, the people should go, the time to go and the purpose of their gone. This phenomenon can be avoided by expanding and add the information such as “*Get out from my house right now!*” (Irawan, 2009).

e. By insertion technique

Insertion technique can be used as the way to avoid ambiguity. By inserting some morphemes or words to the ambiguous words,

phrases or sentences. Therefore, the meaning or the message of the utterance is intentionally conveyed (Irawan, 2009).

Irawan (2009) gives example for this case by the word *toll*. It can be inserted by the word *a payment for a road, bridge or etc.* The brackets, apostrophe or comma can be used as a symbol to avoid ambiguity. By using the techniques which are explained above, the writer can give clear information to the readers so that they will not be confused and have wrong interpretation. There is also no misunderstanding between the writer and the readers.

### **C. Cable News Network**

The Cable News Network (CNN) is an American basic cable and satellite television channel that is owned by the Turner Broadcasting System (Wikipedia). It was founded on June 1, 1980 by Robert 'Ted' Turner as a 24-hour cable news channel (*Bierbauer, 2000, as cited in Wikipedia*). CNN cite Time Warner Inc. as its father company (CNN Edition). Wikipedia explains by April 2016, a CNN executive officially announce that CNN has been a 24-hour global multiplatform network. According to Kiesewetter (2009, as cited in Wikipedia), CNN was the first television channel to provide 24-hour news coverage, and was the first all-news television channel in the United States.

CNN primarily broadcasts from the Time Warner Center in New York City, and studios in Washington, D.C. and Los Angeles (Wikipedia). History.com says that CNN's headquarters at the CNN Center in Atlanta,

Georgia. Since CNN has numerous affiliates, CNN referred their broadcasts with tags depending on which area the news channel cope to distinguish from its sister networks as well as its other program that is not named CNN. Here is the table of its sister channel (Wikipedia).

**Table 2.1 : List of Sister Channels of CNN**

No	List of Sister Channels of CNN	Explanation
1	CNN International	It can be seen by viewers in over 212 countries and territories.
2	CNN Philippines	A Filipino news channel launched on March 16, 2015.
3	CNN Indonesia	An Indonesian news channel that launched on August 17, 2015. (co-owned with Trans Corp)
4	CNN-News18	An Indian English-language news television channel based in Noida, it is owned by Network 18
5	CNN Airport Network	The service broadcasts general news, weather, stock market updates, entertainment, and travel content to airports across North America
6	CNN Türk	A Turkish media outlet.
7	CNN en Español	A Spanish news channel.
8	CNN-IBN	An Indian news channel.
9	Cnnj	A Japanese news channel.
10	Cnngo	The online streaming platform of CNN
11	HLN	An American basic cable and satellite television channel
12	CNN Chile	A Chilean news channel that launched on December 4, 2008.
13	TNT	It stands for <b>Turner Network Television</b>
14	Turner Classic Movies	An American movie-oriented basic cable and satellite television network
15	Cartoon Network	The channel airs primarily children's show
16	Boomerang	It specializes in classic and contemporary animated programming from Time Warner's archival history
17	Trutv	A network that focused on crime-themed programs, such as documentary

		series, legal dramas, and coverage of prominent criminal cases
18	TBS	It stands for <b>Turner Broadcasting System</b>

## 1. Platforms

CNN is basic cable and satellite television channel that is owned by the Turner Broadcasting System division of Time Warner. Obviously, its basic platform is television channel; however, nowadays, CNN is as "no longer a TV news network" and instead as "a 24-hour global multiplatform network" (NetNewsCheck.com, 2016, as cited in Wikipedia). Thus, here would be mentioned its other platforms

### a. Online

CNN launched its website, CNN.com (initially an experiment known as CNN Interactive), on August 30, 1995. On October 24, 2009, CNN launched a new version of the CNN.com website; the revamped site included the addition of a new "sign up" option, in which users can create their own username and profile (CNN, 2010, as cited in Wikipedia). However, most of the news stories archived on the website were deleted (Wikipedia).

Lee (2014) states on Engadget.com (as cited in Wikipedia) that CNN also has a channel in the popular video-sharing site YouTube, but its videos can only be viewed in the United States, a source of criticism among YouTube users worldwide. In 2014, CNN launched a radio version of their popular Television programming on TuneIn

Radio, an online radio.

Brion (2010) reports on Eater.com (as cited in Wikipedia) that in April 2010, CNN announced via Twitter that it would launch a food blog called "Eatocracy," which will "cover all news related to food – from recalls to health issues to culture." CNN had an internet relay chat (IRC) network at chat.cnn.com. CNN placed a live chat with Benjamin Netanyahu on the network in 1998 (CNN, 2013, as cited in Wikipedia).

b. Films

In October 2012, CNN formed a film division called CNN Films to distribute and produce made-for-TV and feature documentaries. Its first acquisition was a documentary entitled *Girl Rising*, a documentary narrated by Meryl Streep that focused on the struggles of girls' education (Deadline.com, 2012, as cited in Wikipedia)

c. Radio

In July 2014, Cumulus Media announced that it would end its partnership with ABC News Radio, and enter into a new partnership with CNN to syndicate national and international news content for its stations through Westwood One beginning in 2015, including access to a wire service, and digital content for its station websites. CNN will not use its name on-air, allowing individual stations to use its own news brands (Atlanta Business Chronicle, 2014, as cited in

Wikipedia).

## 2. News Categories on CNN

Dijk (2016) says that news deals with a number of formal categories, which indicate to the reader which information in the text is most important or prominent. He states “Headlines have a special role in such a relevance structure, because we just assumed that headlines express the most important topic of the news”. Furthermore, Dijk explains that the headlines have a very specific thematic function: it usually expresses the most important topic of the news item. He adds that It can be seen that themes and schemes, macrostructures and superstructures are closely related.

As news platform, CNN also has category for each item of news. The categories can be found on the top and the bottom of CNN website. They are: Regions, U.S. Politics, Money, Entertainment, Technology, Sport, Travel, Style, Features, and Video. However, even this research will study about CNN video, every news video has its own category.

### **D. Previous Study**

This research deals with some previous researches but it has difference in some matters. In this previous related studies, the writer would like to review two others studies, done by Hartono (1999) and Kusumawati (2001). The first research was phrases and sentences in news headlines in *The Jakarta Post* newspaper. His goals on that research are classifying the ambiguities into

phrases and sentences. He collected the data for the structural ambiguities study in one week and found twenty five ambiguities.

He found that the ambiguities are mostly caused by the arrangement of the prepositional phrases in sentences (20 ambiguities=80%), which are used as an adverb of place in the sentence, besides that the ambiguities could also be caused by the arrangement of the noun phrases in sentences (5 ambiguities=20%). From the first previous studies above, it can be concluded that the writer's study is almost similar to Hartono's study. Both the writer's and Hartono's study are about structural ambiguities and use *The Jakarta Post* newspaper as the source of the data. On the other hand, the different from the first previous studies that Hartono's study did not analyze the structural ambiguities in *Your Letters of The Jakarta Post* newspaper, but it only analyzed the News Headlines of *The Jakarta Post* newspaper. Hartono's study has led the writer to use Phrase Structure Rules as her theory to do the analysis.

The second research is conducted by Kusumawati, in her research (2001) entitled *The Study of Ambiguity in the Articles of Hello Magazine*. The object is analysis phrases and sentences in the articles of *Hello Magazine*. Her research aims at analyzing the structural ambiguities in *Hello Magazines* by using Andrew Radford and Diane D. Bornstein's theories, and the lexical ambiguities in *Hello Magazines* by using Jacob and Rosenbaum's theories.

She found out that the structural ambiguities appear more frequently than the lexical ambiguities. She found sixteen structural ambiguities and four

lexical ambiguities from twenty ambiguities, so the frequency of structural ambiguities is 80% and the frequency of lexical ambiguities is 20%.

From the second previous studies above, it can be concluded that there is the similarity between her study and the writer's study, which is the analysis of lexical and structural ambiguity. On the other hand, the difference from the second previous study of Kusumawati's is that she did not analyzed the lexical and structural ambiguities in *Your Letters of The Jakarta Post* newspaper but she analyzed the lexical and structural ambiguities in the articles of the *Hello Magazine*.