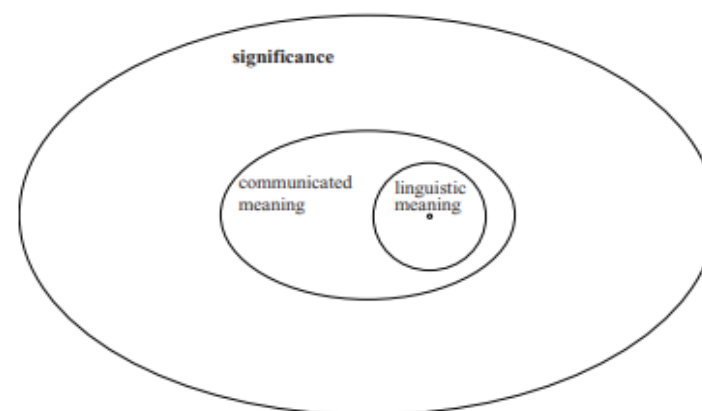FIGURE 1.1
Significance, communicated meaning and linguistic meaning.

successfully takes place. Of course, if they had enough breath left, they could simply cry out 'I'm choking', and there would be no ambiguity. These cases show that a fully articulated sentence is not always necessary to communicate an intended meaning: the same meaning can be suggested in a variety of different ways, all of which rely on implicit conventions. The sentence expresses the intended meaning more precisely and unambiguously than the others: both the single cry and its three syllable variant are open to many interpretations, and are therefore much less reliable than the fully explicit sentence. But we can nevertheless remove the language from a communicative situation and retain much of the meaning. Situations are inherently meaningful. Meaning, we might say, is already there in the world: all we have to do is draw attention to it, and language is the most specific and unambiguous way of doing so. The different types of meaningfulness we have been discussing so far could be diagrammed as in Figure 1.1.

1.2 Talking about meaning in English and other languages

Semantics, then, is the study of meaning. But what actually *is* meaning? In Section 1.6 we will discuss some specific answers to this question. For the moment, we will make a start by looking at what place the notion of meaning has in our ordinary talk about language. The way we use the concept of meaning in ordinary language is important because it provides us with a *pretheoretical* starting point for theoretical semantic analysis, and gives us the initial vocabulary with which we can begin to identify and describe the phenomena which strike us. Informal talk about what pieces of language mean is a very common part of everyday life: we explain new words, give paraphrases of what people mean by a certain phrase or expression, sometimes translate words from one language to another in order to show their meaning. But even though we *use* the

Introduction

<div style="text-align: right; font-size: 3em;">1</div>

1.1 Semantics and pragmatics

The study of linguistic meaning is generally divided in practice into two main fields, semantics and pragmatics. **Semantics** deals with the literal meaning of words and the meaning of the way they are combined, which taken together form the core of meaning, or the starting point from which the whole meaning of a particular utterance is constructed. **Pragmatics** deals with all the ways in which literal meaning must be refined, enriched or extended to arrive at an understanding of what a speaker meant in uttering a particular expression. This division can be roughly illustrated with (1) below:

(1)   I forgot the paper.

Semantics provides the literal meaning of the elements *I*, *forget*, past tense, *the* and *paper*, and the meaning drawn from the order of the words, giving very approximately 'The person who is speaking at some time before the time of speaking forgot a particular item which is a paper'. Pragmatic considerations flesh this out to a more complete communication.

Suppose that it is Sunday morning. Anna, the speaker, has just returned to her flat from the local shops where she went to buy croissants and the Sunday newspaper. In this context her flatmate Frances understands Anna to say that she forgot to buy a copy of the Sunday newspaper for that morning, and the time of her forgetting was while she was at the shops – she presumably remembered her intention to buy a paper when she set out and has obviously remembered it on returning. If the shops are nearby, Anna might also intend Frances to infer that Anna will go back for the paper.

Suppose, alternatively, that a man has been found murdered in the fields near a farmhouse. Two nights before the body was found the farmhouse was broken into, although nothing was reported missing. The owners of the house are renovating a small upstairs room, and the floor of this room is currently littered with sticky scraps of stripped wallpaper. The dead man was found with a scrap of the wallpaper on the sole of his shoe. Two detectives are discussing the

other possible facts—what must be antecedent (a presupposition) to that fact and what is a likely consequence, or entailment of it; what statements are mutually contradictory, which sentences express the same meaning in different words, and which are unrelated. (There is more about presupposition and entailment later in this chapter.)

Linguists want to understand how language works. Just what common knowledge do two people possess when they share a language—English, Swahili, Korean or whatever—that makes it possible for them to give and get information, to express their feelings and their intentions to one another, and to be understood with a fair degree of success? Linguistics is concerned with identifying the meaningful elements of specific languages, for example, English words like *paint* and *happy* and affixes like the *-er* of *painter* and the *un-* of *unhappy*. It is concerned with describing how such elements go together to express more complex meanings—in phrases like *the unhappy painter* and sentences like *The painter is unhappy*—and telling how these are related to each other. Linguistics also deals with the meanings expressed by modulations of a speaker's voice and the processes by which hearers and readers relate new information to the information they already have.

Semantics is the systematic study of meaning, and linguistic semantics is the study of how languages organize and express meanings. Linguistic semantics is the topic of this book, but we need to limit ourselves to the expression of meanings in a single language, English. Here and there throughout the book we make comparisons with other languages, but these are meant to be illustrative of language differences, not full accounts of what differences exist.

1.2 The nature of language

All animals have some system for communicating with other members of their species, but only humans have a language which allows them to produce and understand ever-new messages and to do so without any outside stimulus. Bees, birds, dolphins and chimpanzees, among other animals, transmit and interpret a fixed number of messages that signal friendliness or hostility, the presence of food or of danger, or have to do with mating and care of offspring. But human language differs from these animal communication systems in two crucial ways (Hockett 1957:574–85; Bickerton 1990:
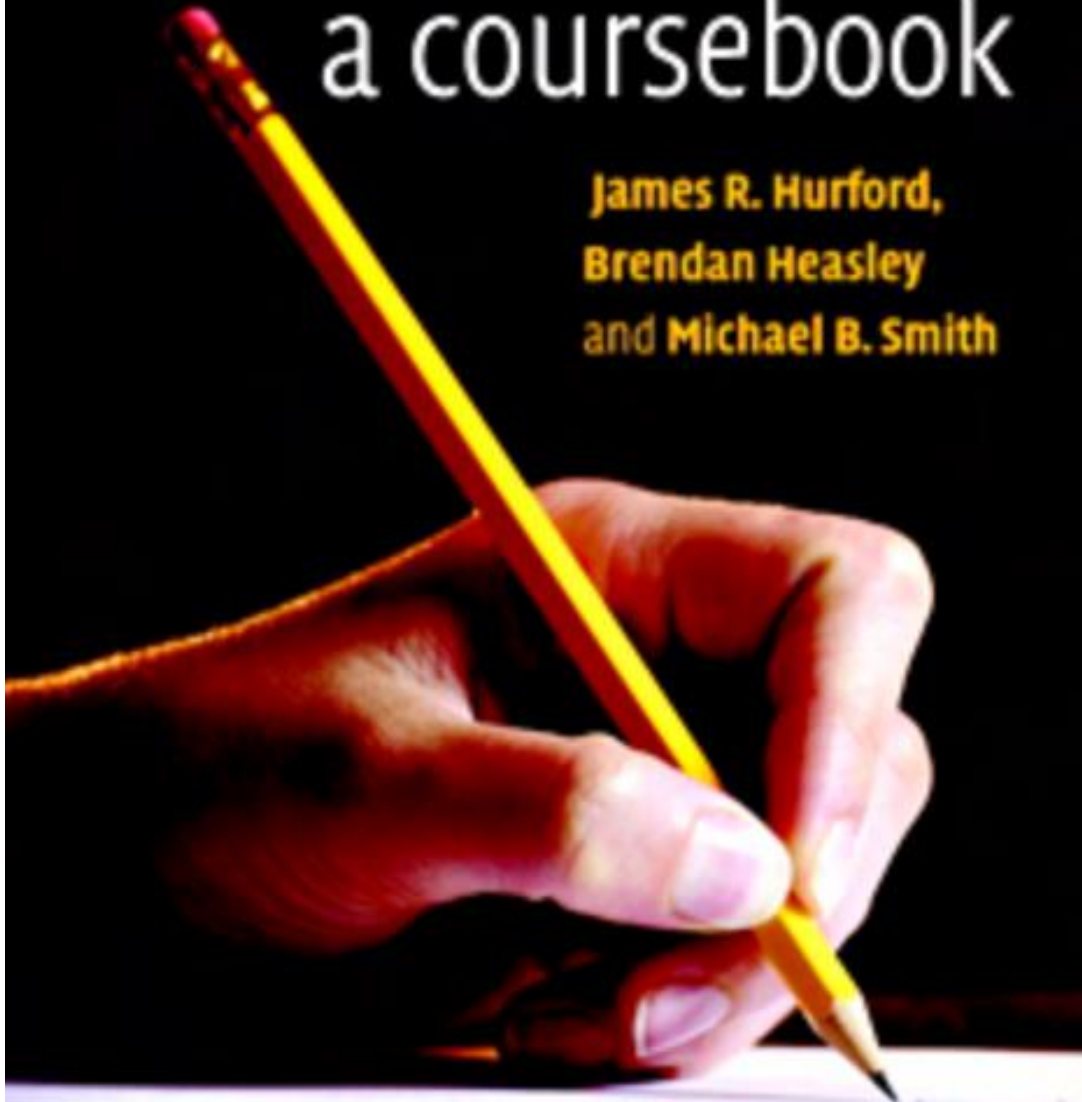
1 Basic ideas in semantics

UNIT 1 ABOUT SEMANTICS

Definition <mark>SEMANTICS is the study of MEANING in LANGUAGE.</mark>

Comment The rest of this book can be regarded as an example of how one goes about investigating and understanding semantics. It may seem to you that meaning is so vague, insubstantial, and elusive that it is impossible to come to any clear, concrete, or tangible conclusions about it. We hope to convince you that by careful thought about the language you speak and the way it is used, definite conclusions CAN be arrived at concerning meaning. In the first exercise below, we ask you to start to get yourself into the habit of careful thinking about your language and the way you use it, concentrating, naturally, on instances of such words as *mean*, *means*, and *meaning*.

Practice Reproduced below is a well-known passage from Lewis Carroll's *Through the Looking Glass*. Pick out all the instances of the word *mean* (or *means*, or *meant*), noting which lines they occur in. (Some line numbers are given in the margin for convenience.) After the passage there are some questions for you to answer.

> 1 '. . . that shows that there are three hundred and sixty-four days when you might get un-birthday presents.'
>
> 'Certainly,' said Alice.
>
> 'And only one for birthday presents, you know. There's glory for
> 5 you!'
>
> 'I don't know what you mean by "glory," ' Alice said.
>
> Humpty Dumpty smiled contemptuously. 'Of course you don't – till I tell you. I meant "there's a nice knockdown argument for you." '
>
> 'But "glory" doesn't mean 'a nice knockdown argument', Alice
> 10 objected.
>
> 'When I use a word,' Humpty Dumpty said in rather a scornful tone, 'it means just what I choose it to mean – neither more nor less.'
>
> 'The question is,' said Alice, 'whether you can make words mean so many different things.'
>
> 15 'The question is,' said Humpty Dumpty, 'which is to be master – that's all.'

Semantics

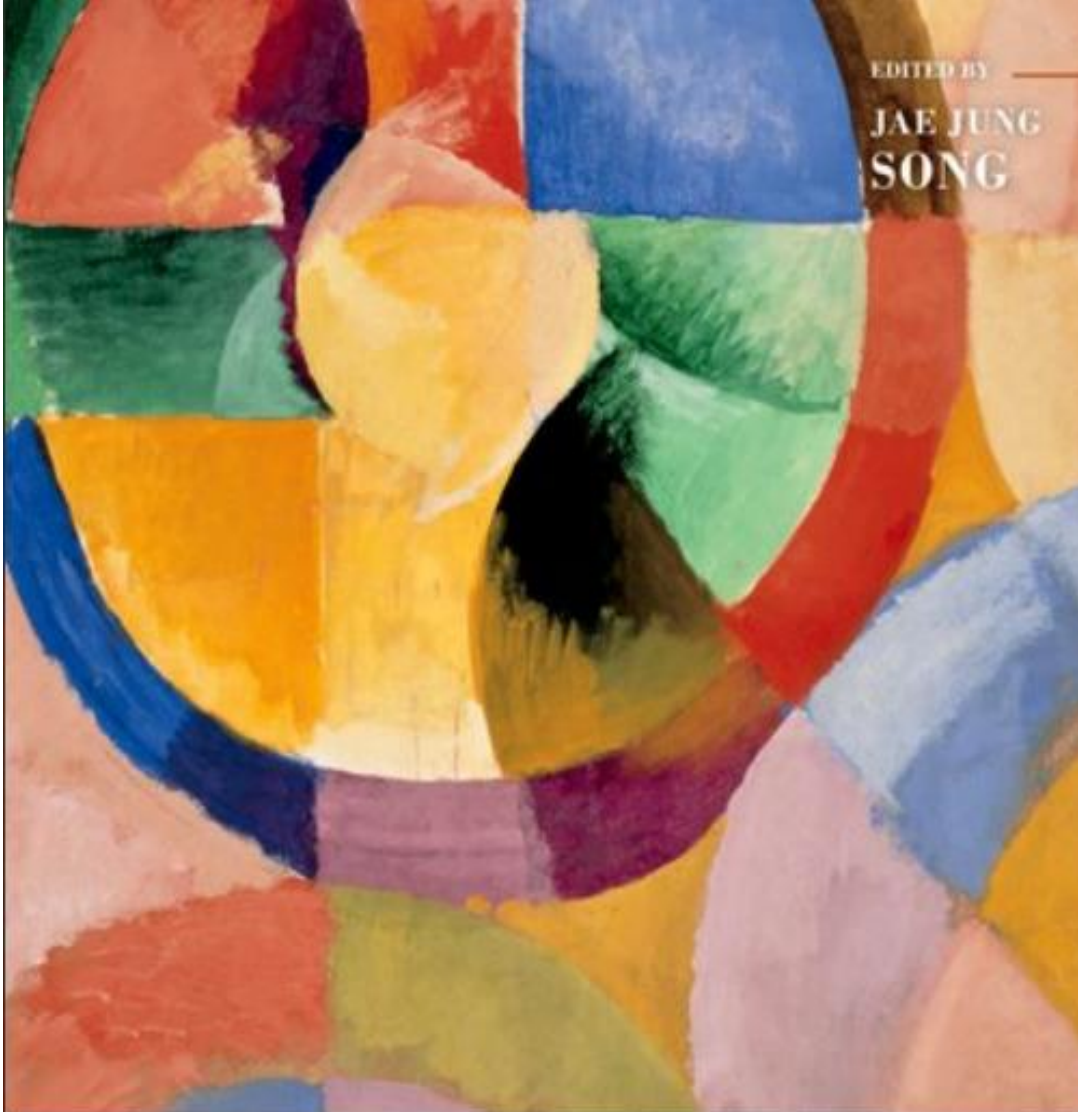**Fourth Edition**

John I. Saeed

chapter 1

Semantics in Linguistics

1.1 Introduction

Semantics is the study of meaning communicated through language. This book is an introduction to the theory and practice of semantics in modern linguistics. Although this is not an introduction to any single theory, we begin with a basic assumption: that a person's linguistic abilities are based on knowledge that they have. It is this knowledge that we are seeking to investigate. One of the insights of modern linguistics is that speakers of a language have different types of linguistic knowledge, including how to pronounce words, how to construct sentences, and about the meaning of individual words and sentences. To reflect this, linguistic description has different **levels of analysis**. So **phonology** is the study of what sounds a language has and how these sounds combine to form words; **syntax** is the study of how words can be combined into sentences; and **semantics** is the study of the meanings of words and sentences.

The division into levels of analysis seems to make sense intuitively: if you are learning a foreign language you might learn a word from a book, know what it means but not know how to pronounce it. Or you might hear a word, pronounce

[–] **Abstract and Keywords**

This article outlines the typological variables that define or condition specific grammatical relations (GRs). It specifically discusses the relational roles and the referential properties of arguments. The article also reports the kinds of constructions that have GRs, and explores the interactions between GR definitions in different constructions. It then briefly addresses issues of worldwide distributions, and provides suggestions for future research. There is a common principle in the way referential features affect GR specifications. The properties of conjunction reduction are presented. The statistical evidence for referential hierarchy effects on case alignment is weak. GRs hold in constructions and not in languages. It is virtually impossible to estimate a priori which values on which variables will reveal significant clusters worldwide. The variables described in this article are meant to help in this work by providing a toolkit for comparing GRs across constructions in a single language, as well as across languages.

Keywords: grammatical relations, typological variables, arguments, constructions, worldwide distributions, conjunction reduction, referential hierarchy

1. Grammatical relations: past and present

Traditionally, the term 'grammatical relation' (GR) refers to the morphosyntactic properties that relate an argument to a clause, for example, its subject or its object. Alternative terms are 'syntactic function' or 'syntactic role', and they highlight the fact that GRs are defined by the way in which arguments are integrated syntactically into a clause, i.e. by functioning as subject, object, etc. Whatever terminology one prefers, what is crucial about the traditional notion of GRs is (a) that they are identified by syntactic properties, and (b) that they relate an argument to the clause.[1] This differentiates GRs from semantic roles (SRs), also known as thematic roles (θ-roles): SRs are semantic not syntactic relations, and they hold between arguments and predicates (typically verbs), rather than between arguments and clauses. The difference between GRs and SRs is best visible in such contrasts as *Sue has killed the shark* vs. *Sue was killed by the shark*. In both cases, the NP *Sue* is the subject of the clause. But in the active clause, the referent of *Sue* is the agent of 'kill', while in the passive clause, *Sue* is the patient of 'kill'.

The syntactic properties that have traditionally been considered the key identifiers of GRs are the property of triggering verb agreement and the property of being assigned a specific case. In our example, *Sue* triggers third person singular agreement in the verb, and this identifies the NP as the subject of the clause. In some languages—for example, Russian and Turkish—the subject would furthermore be identified by nominative case assignment.

Research over the past three decades has greatly expanded the range of syntactic properties that identify GRs in particular languages, and one of the most important results of this research is that properties often do not converge on a single set of GRs in a language. Consider the following examples from Nepali:

(1) Nepali (Indo-European, Himalayas)
   a.

Thomas E. Payne

Exploring Language Structure

A Student's Guide

CAMBRIDGE

8   Grammatical relations

Grammatical relations (GRs) are structurally defined relations between words in phrases and clauses. Common terms used to refer to particular grammatical relations are SUBJECT, DIRECT OBJECT, INDIRECT OBJECT, ERGATIVE, ABSOLUTIVE, GENITIVE, and OBLIQUE. Sometimes the oblique relation (discussed below) is considered to be the *absence* of a grammatical relation. Like other structural notions, GRs are *defined* independently of function (such as semantics or topicality), though they clearly have communicative functions. Even as the structure of any tool is logically distinct from (though intimately connected to) its function, so GRs are logically distinct from the functions that they perform. Nevertheless, it is important to recognize that GRs play a significant role in expressing meaningful distinctions, such as who is acting upon whom, what is topical, and so on.

A second important fact about GRs is that they are essentially *relational* concepts. In other words, they don't exist unless there are two elements that are related. A nominal element by itself does not "have" a grammatical relation. It is only when it occurs in a structure with a verb that we can say that it is a "subject" or an "object," etc. In fact, it may be better to always say "subject of" or "object of" since these terms make it clear that there must be another element in the construction. The grammatical properties that identify GRs are determined by syntactic constructions, and not simply by semantic properties of individual nouns or verbs.

Here is an analogy from real life. A concept like "boy" is not inherently relational, because it depends solely on the characteristics of the individual. The concept of "brother," on the other hand, is relational, because someone can't be simply a *brother* without reference to someone else. Getting back to grammar, a category like plurality is non-relational, because it usually depends on the semantic characteristics of the individual referent of a noun. This semantic characteristic is reflected structurally in many languages by some kind of "plural marking." Subject, on the other hand, is a category that depends on the structure of the whole clause. A nominal element can only be the "subject of" some other grammatical element.

Sometimes the term ARGUMENT is used to refer to any nominal that has a grammatical relation to a verb, or to another noun. This sense of the term "argument" is borrowed from mathematics where an argument is an independent variable in a function; in other words, a thing that has a property, or has a relation

Automatic Labeling of Semantic Roles

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*We present a system for identifying the semantic relationships, or **semantic roles**, filled by constituents of a sentence within a semantic frame. Given an input sentence and a target word and frame, the system labels constituents with either abstract semantic roles, such as AGENT or PATIENT, or more domain-specific semantic roles, such as SPEAKER, MESSAGE, and TOPIC.*

The system is based on statistical classifiers trained on roughly 50,000 sentences that were hand-annotated with semantic roles by the FrameNet semantic labeling project. We then parsed each training sentence into a syntactic tree and extracted various lexical and syntactic features, including the phrase type of each constituent, its grammatical function, and its position in the sentence. These features were combined with knowledge of the predicate verb, noun, or adjective, as well as information such as the prior probabilities of various combinations of semantic roles. We used various lexical clustering algorithms to generalize across possible fillers of roles. Test sentences were parsed, were annotated with these features, and were then passed through the classifiers.

Our system achieves 82% accuracy in identifying the semantic role of presegmented constituents. At the more difficult task of simultaneously segmenting constituents and identifying their semantic role, the system achieved 65% precision and 61% recall.

Our study also allowed us to compare the usefulness of different features and feature combination methods in the semantic role labeling task. We also explore the integration of role labeling with statistical syntactic parsing and attempt to generalize to predicates unseen in the training data.

1. Introduction

Recent years have been exhilarating ones for natural language understanding. The excitement and rapid advances that had characterized other language-processing tasks such as speech recognition, part-of-speech tagging, and parsing have finally begun to appear in tasks in which understanding and semantics play a greater role. For example, there has been widespread commercial deployment of simple speech-based natural language understanding systems that answer questions about flight arrival times, give directions, report on bank balances, or perform simple financial transactions. More sophisticated research systems generate concise summaries of news articles, answer fact-based questions, and recognize complex semantic and dialogue structure.

But the challenges that lie ahead are still similar to the challenge that the field has faced since Winograd (1972): moving away from carefully hand-crafted, domain-dependent systems toward robustness and domain independence. This goal is not as

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the final database. Thus, the focus of the project was on completeness of examples for lexicographic needs, rather than on statistically representative data. Sentences from each subcorpus were then annotated by hand, marking boundaries of each frame element expressed in the sentence and assigning tags for the annotated constituent's frame semantic role, syntactic category (e.g., noun phrase or prepositional phrase), and grammatical function in relation to the target word (e.g., object or complement of a verb). In the final phase of the process, the annotated sentences for each target word were checked for consistency. In addition to the tags just mentioned, the annotations include certain other information, which we do not make use of in this work, such as word sense tags for some target words and tags indicating metaphoric usages.

Tests of interannotator agreement were performed for data from a small number of predicates before the final consistency check. Interannotator agreement at the sentence level, including all frame element judgments and boundaries for one predicate, varied from .66 to .82 depending on the predicate. The kappa statistic (Siegel and Castellan 1988) varied from .67 to .82. Because of the large number of possible categories when boundary judgments are considered, kappa is nearly identical to the interannotator agreement. The system described in this article (which gets .65/.61 precision/recall on individual frame elements; see Table 15) correctly identifies all frame elements in 38% of test sentences. Although this .38 is not directly comparable to the .66–.82 interannotator agreements, it's clear that the performance of our system still falls significantly short of human performance on the task.

The British National Corpus was chosen as the basis of the FrameNet project despite differences between British and American usage because, at 100 million words, it provides the largest corpus of English with a balanced mixture of text genres. The British National Corpus includes automatically assigned syntactic part-of-speech tags for each word but does not include full syntactic parses. The FrameNet annotators did not make use of, or produce, a complete syntactic parse of the annotated sentences, although some syntactic information is provided by the grammatical function and phrase type tags of the annotated frame elements.

The preliminary version of the FrameNet corpus used for our experiments contained 67 frame types from 12 general semantic domains chosen for annotation. A complete list of the semantic domains represented in our data is shown in Table 1, along with representative frames and predicates. Within these frames, examples of a total of 1,462 distinct lexical predicates, or target words, were annotated: 927 verbs, 339 nouns, and 175 adjectives. There are a total of 49,013 annotated sentences and 99,232 annotated frame elements (which do not include the target words themselves).

How important is the particular set of semantic roles that underlies our system? For example, could the optimal choice of semantic roles be very dependent on the application that needs to exploit their information? Although there may well be application-specific constraints on semantic roles, our semantic role classifiers seem in practice to be relatively independent of the exact set of semantic roles under consideration. Section 9.1 describes an experiment in which we collapsed the FrameNet roles into a set of 18 abstract thematic roles. We then retrained our classifier and achieved roughly comparable results; overall performance was 82.1% for abstract thematic roles, compared to 80.4% for frame-specific roles. Although this doesn't show that the detailed set of semantic roles is irrelevant, it does suggest that our statistical classification algorithm, at least, is relatively robust to even quite large changes in role identities.

Grammatical relations in
Bahasa Indonesia

1 An overview of Relational Grammar

1.1 Introduction

In this chapter I present an overview of the theory of Relational Grammar, especially those aspects of the theory which are necessary for a proper understanding of the analysis to follow in later chapters. For a more complete presentation of the theory, the reader is referred to Perlmutter (1980) and the articles in Perlmutter (1983).

1.2 Basic claim

The basic claim of Relational Grammar is that grammatical relations such as 'subject of', 'direct object of', and 'indirect object of' are primitives of human language and as such cannot be defined in terms of other notions such as phrase structure configurations, word order, case marking, or semantic roles. In this, the theory differs from most other current syntactic theories, such as Government and Binding and Functional Grammar. It shares this claim with Lexical-Functional Grammar, though the two theories part ways in other matters.

These relations are needed to achieve three goals of linguistic theory:

- a. to formulate linguistic universals
- b. to characterise the class of grammatical constructions found in natural languages
- c. to construct adequate and insightful grammars of individual languages.

(Perlmutter 1980:196)

Linguistic theory must deal with both language-general and language-specific data. Grammatical relations provide a convenient way of talking about how languages work in general (goals a and b); they also provide a means of describing individual languages (goal c).

1.3 Primitive linguistic elements

The set of primitive linguistic elements needed to accomplish the goals above includes:

i) a set of nodes representing linguistic elements (such as clause, verb, noun phrase, etc.);

1

PATTERNS OF LANGUAGE

Structure, Variation, Change

ROBBINS BURLING

subject, *men, hammer,* and *window,* respectively. The subjects are easy to identify, primarily because of the firm English rule that requires the subject to precede the verb, but verb agreement supports this identification. *Men* requires a plural verb, while *hammer* and *window* both require singular verbs. In the first and second sentences *break* must be considered transitive, since it is followed by an object, *window,* but in the third sentence, *break* has no object, so it counts as intransitive. In the first sentence, the preposition *with* is used along with *hammer* to form a prepositional phrase, *with a hammer,* but no prepositional phrase is found in either the second or the third sentence.

These are traditional, and accurate, ways of describing these three sentences, and they point to some obvious differences among them. At the same time, some equally important similarities have been missed. It is always the *window* that shatters. Where it is mentioned, it is always the *hammer* that comes into contact with the glass. In the only example where the *men* are mentioned, it is they who wield the hammer. When we point out that the three nouns of these sentences appear variously as "subject," "object," and "prepositional phrase," we risk losing sight of this deeper consistency. We need ways to refer both to the similarities among these sentences and to their differences.

The term **semantic role** can be used to describe the consistent sense that these noun phrases carry. We will say that *men* has the semantic role of **Agent** in the first sentence, that *hammer* has the semantic role of **Instrument** in both the first and second sentences, and that *window* has the semantic role of **Patient** in all three sentences. The nouns keep their semantic roles in the three sentences, but they fill the different **syntactic roles** of "subject," "object," and "prepositional phrase." By distinguishing semantic roles from syntactic roles, we make it possible to talk about both the similarities and the differences among the noun phrases of sentences such as these.

English has scores of verbs like *break* that can be used with the semantic roles of Agent, Patient, and Instrument: *shatter, split, dissolve, connect, open, close,* and many others. A bit of experimentation will show that all these verbs share with *break* the ability to form three kinds of sentences, each with a different constellation of semantic roles: *Florence opened the door with a key, The key opened the door, The door opened; The chemist dissolved the zircon in the acid, The acid dissolved the zircon, The zircon dissolved.* With these verbs, an Agent and an Instrument are both optional, but a Patient is always required.

How does a speaker decide which semantic roles to assign to the syntactic roles of subject, object, and prepositional phrase? In the case of these verbs, the rules are clear. When all three semantic roles are expressed, the Agent is always put into the subject. Indeed, the Agent can be regarded as a kind of ideal, or prototypical, subject. If there is an Instrument but no Agent, the Instrument becomes the subject. English has a strict requirement that every sentence must be provided with a subject, and a sentence with no semantic role except Patient must have the Patient as its subject.
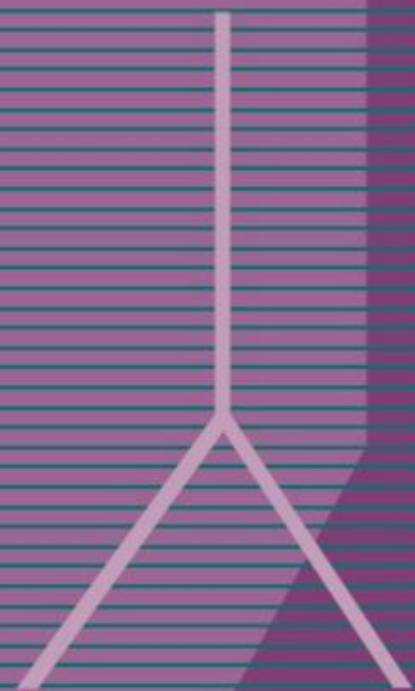
3 Thematic Relations and θ-Roles

3.1 General Introduction

<mark>Thus far, we have been concerned exclusively with phrase structure, that is with the hierarchical relations between elements of phrases and sentences. There is another type of relation that plays an important role in the grammar, which has more to do with meaning.</mark> Consider the sentences in (1).

(1)   a.   Jennifer ate the apple.
        b.   The apple was eaten by Jennifer.

Notice that in (1a), the subject is *Jennifer*, while in (1b) it is *the apple*. In (1a), *the apple* is the object, while there does not seem to be an object in (1b). However, by merely describing the structural relationships in these two sentences, we are missing an important point. That is, both sentences describe the same event. In both sentences, *Jennifer* plays the role of *agent*, or doer of the action, and *the apple* plays the role of *patient*, or undergoer of the action. The roles of agent and patient, among others, are *thematic relations* that noun phrases can have. It should be fairly clear that any description that fails to take account of thematic relations is missing a large part of how sentences are put together.

Thematic relations were first described in the generative framework by Jeffrey Gruber in his 1965 doctoral dissertation. Jackendoff (1972) is an expansion and development from Gruber's work, and for years it remained the standard approach to the phenomenon. More recently, research in this area has been extremely productive, and many new insights have been gained.

We will begin with a brief synopsis of the central aspects of Jackendoff's (1972) theory of thematic relations, with some minor modifications, and then go on to look at the results of more recent work.

3.2 Individual Thematic Relations

The following is a list of thematic relations. Some were proposed by Jackendoff (1972), and some have come into general use since then.

Agent—initiator, doer of action
      —must be capable of volition (desire) or deliberate action

Study Guide

CONTEMPORARY LINGUISTICS

AN INTRODUCTION

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PRACTICE 6.4: Identifying constructional meaning and ambiguity

1. What constructional meaning is found in each of these sentences?

   a. Joe sold Sabrina the car.

   b. Dan flew the airplane to Harrisburg.

   c. Jen swept the papers aside.

   d. The donor wrote the charity a hefty check.

2. Each of the following sentences is ambiguous. For each sentence, state whether the ambiguity is lexical or structural and provide an unambiguous phrase or sentence for each possible meaning.

   a. Cool beer and wine are what we want.

   b. I met the woman standing by the water cooler.

   c. Congress passed a dangerous drug bill.

   d. Businessmen like black and white ties.

   e. George and Harry or Fred will draw the picture.

   f. I want to look at the pictures in the attic.

   g. The instructor left his key in the office.

Draw tree structures for ambiguous phrases in sentences a, c, e, and f. Remember that each meaning will have a different structure.

Thematic Roles (Section 3.3, pp. 224–228)

To interpret any sentence, we need to know who is doing the action, what is undergoing the action, the starting point of the action, etc. **Thematic**, or theta, **roles** capture the relation between a sentence and the event it describes.

There are three important properties of thematic roles.

- **Common thematic roles.** Some of the common thematic roles include:

  Agent (actor)—The entity performing an action.
  Theme—The entity undergoing an action.
  Source—The starting point of a movement.
  Goal—The end point of a movement.
  Location—The place where an action occurs.

- **Thematic role assignment.** Thematic roles are assigned to noun phrases based on their position within the sentence. Typically, verbs and prepositions assign thematic roles.

  Verbs   Assign the agent role (if it has one) to its subject noun phrase
                   Assign the theme role (if it has one) to its complement noun phrase

Semantics

Fourth Edition

John I. Saeed

WILEY Blackwell

We begin by sketching the basic picture of these roles that seems to be assumed by much of the syntax and semantics literature. Thus in sections 6.2–6.4 we outline the main contenders for individual types of roles, look at the relationship between thematic roles and grammatical relations, and discuss the idea that verbs must have their thematic role requirements listed in the lexicon. In section 6.5 we review criticisms that have been made of the notion of thematic roles and then in 6.6 we review the job these roles do in linguistic description. Section 6.7 discusses causation, which reminds us that although we are discussing them in separate chapters thematic roles are intimately linked to the semantics of situation type.

In the second part of the chapter, section 6.8, we investigate **voice** systems and see how they allow speakers some flexibility in the relationship between thematic roles and grammatical structure: we focus on **passive** voice and **middle** voice. In the final part of the chapter we turn our attention to semantic classification systems that are based on the inherent features of nominal rather than their roles within a predication. In section 6.9.1 we discuss **classifiers** and in 6.9.2 **noun classes**. Each of these semantic systems reflects the speaker's decisions about how to characterize entities involved in a situation.

6.2 Thematic Roles

Each of the writers mentioned above, and others, for example Andrews (1985) and Radford (1988), have proposed lists of thematic roles. From this extensive literature we can extract a list of thematic roles like the following (where the relevant role-bearing nominal is in bold):

AGENT: the initiator of some action, capable of acting with volition, e.g.

6.2   **David** cooked the rashers.

6.3   **The fox** jumped out of the ditch.

PATIENT: the entity undergoing the effect of some action, often undergoing some change in state, e.g.

6.4   Enda cut back **these bushes**.

6.5   The sun melted **the ice**.

THEME: the entity which is moved by an action, or whose location is described, e.g.

6.6   Roberto passed **the ball** wide.

6.7   **The book** is in the library.

EXPERIENCER: the entity which is aware of the action or state described by the predicate but which is not in control of the action or state, e.g.:

6.8   **Kevin** felt ill.

SCIENCE OF TRANSLATION

Eugene A. Nida

American Bible Society

Developments in linguistic theory have shed important light upon the theory and practice of translation, resulting in the recognition that translating is basically not a process of matching surface forms by rules of correspondence, but rather a more complex procedure involving analysis, transfer, and restructuring. Such linguistic procedures as transformation and componential analysis provide far more satisfactory bases for translation than have existed in the past. At the same time, the theory of translation is able to provide linguistic science with new insights into structure and with improved methods for testing hypotheses.

1. THE NATURE OF TRANSLATING. In view of the fact that one can translate without knowing anything about linguistics, even as one can speak a language without being a student of the science of language, many persons have concluded that translation is scarcely even an aspect of applied linguistics.[1] Rather, it has often been regarded only as a more complicated form of talking or writing, in which one decodes from one language and encodes into another. Those who have seen in translation something which merits scientific description have been inclined, however, to think of translating merely in terms of certain more or less complex techniques of comparative linguistics (Jumpelt 1961, Cary & Jumpelt 1963). This has led to attempts to set up series of ordered rules, which could be more or less mechanically applied, bearing in mind at least two conditioning elements: the context and the literary level. Such a description of linguistic procedures has led to the establishment of techniques for moving from one set

Anyone attempting to discuss the science of translation (or, perhaps more accurately stated, the scientific description of the processes involved in translating) is almost inevitably confronted with two questions. The first concerns translation as an art rather than a science, and the second raises the issue as to whether translation is even possible (see Güttinger 1963:7–48, for a summary of opinions on this issue). In reply to those who insist that translation is, at least in some senses, an art, one can only heartily agree, but with the proviso that speaking a language effectively and esthetically is also an art. Translation is actually describable in terms of three functional levels: as a science, a skill, and an art. In response to those who insist that translation is impossible, one can only say that from time to time it is very tempting to take such a position seriously. One must, of course, recognize the incommensurability of languages, in the absolute sense. This means that absolute communication is impossible, but that is true not only between languages but also within a language. Rather than being impressed by the impossibilities of translation, anyone who is involved in the realities of translation in a broad range of languages is impressed that effective interlingual communication is always possible, despite seemingly enormous differences in linguistic structures and cultural features. These impressions as to the relative adequacy of interlingual communication are based on two fundamental factors: (1) semantic similarities between languages, due no doubt in large measure to the common core of human experience; and (2) fundamental similarities in the syntactic structures of languages, especially at the so-called kernel, or core, level.

conventional, e.g. *baked ham* and *roast beef*; others depend upon relatable components, which become conspicuous by their absence, e.g. in *cast-iron featherbed*. (3) Is there sufficient variety in the sequencing of lexical units to sustain interest and provide impact appropriate to the content? Different genres of literature quite naturally differ radically in the extent to which novelty in wording is either desirable or obligatory, but in all communication a certain amount of lexical freshness is important in overcoming the psychological noise of inattention.

The principal difficulty in the analysis of the connotative values of syntactic and semantic structures is that we cannot employ judgments based on binary contrasts of a positive or negative character. Rather, one must set up graded series which depend upon judgments of degrees of quantity and quality. In such cases the extent of difference in individual evaluation becomes much greater, but this should not be surprising or alarming. This is the very nature of stylistic analysis, namely, the wide differences of judgment by different persons, even trained professional critics.

5. TRANSFER. The process of transfer takes place on a near-kernel level for two essential reasons. First, the relations between the linguistic units of a message are most clearly marked at the kernel or near-kernel level; second, languages exhibit far greater similarity of structure at the near-kernel level than they do on the level of the surface structures. By transferring on this near-kernel level, one is least likely to distort the message.

One must recognize, of course, that in any transfer there is an inevitable modification in the meaning, generally associated with some degree of loss, especially in the degree of impact of the original communication. In fact, the greater the literary quality of the original message, the greater the extent of distortion and loss, for literary quality normally implies the fullest possible exploitation of the genius of the source-language structure. To be able to exploit the genius of the receptor language to a comparable degree requires quite exceptional skill.

Modifications of the syntactic structure in the process of transfer are dictated primarily by the obligatory contrasts in the respective near-kernel structures. The optional modifications figure at a later stage as one undertakes to restructure the message by forward-transformation to the appropriate level.

In transferring the referential content of the message, one is not concerned primarily with the precise words or exocentric units (i.e. the idioms), but with the sets of components. In fact, one does not really translate words but bundles of componential features. The words may be regarded essentially as vehicles for carrying the components of meaning. In fact the words may be likened to suitcases used for carrying various articles of clothing. It really does not make much difference which articles are packed in which suitcase. What counts is that the clothes arrive at the destination in the best possible condition, i.e. with the least damage. The same is true in the communication of referential structures. What counts is not the particular words which carry the componential features, but the fact that the correct componential features are lexically transported.

In the process of transferring the referential content of the message, there are three different types of redistribution of the componential structures. First, there

AN INTRODUCTION TO
LANGUAGE

seventh edition

Victoria FROMKIN   *Robert* RODMAN   *Nina* HYAMS
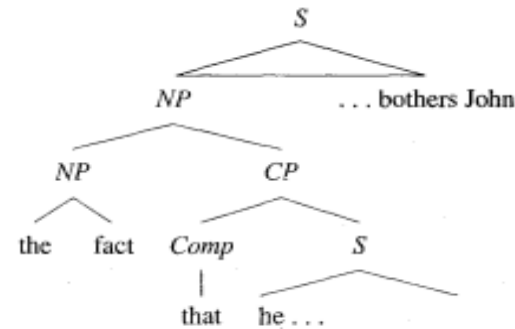
A precise statement of the rule that is at work here goes beyond the scope of this introductory text. The point is that syntax and semantics interrelate in complex ways, and that sentence structure is crucial. This is further proof that knowing a language is knowing the syntactic structures and the semantic rules, and how they interact.

To Mean or Not to Mean

> For all a rhetorician's rules
> Teach nothing but to name his tools.
>
> Samuel Butler, *Hudibras*

The meaning of an expression is not always obvious, even to a native speaker of the language. There are many ways in which meanings may be obscured, or at least require some imagination or special knowledge to be apprehended. Poets, pundits, and yes, even professors, can be difficult to understand.

We would like to examine three ways in which meaning may be veiled or even absent. They are **anomaly**—expressions that appear to follow the rules of syntax, but go awry semantically; **metaphor,** or nonliteral, indirect, but often creative meaning; and **idioms,** wherein the meaning of an expression is unrelated to the meaning of its parts, though it is conventionally understood.

Anomaly: No Sense and Nonsense

> Don't tell me of a man's being able to talk sense; everyone can talk sense. Can he talk nonsense?
>
> William Pitt

> There is no greater mistake in the world than the looking upon every sort of nonsense as want of sense.
>
> Leigh Hunt

GIÁO TRÌNH LUYỆN KỸ NĂNG VIẾT TIẾNG ANH
THIRD EDITION

Writing
ACADEMIC ENGLISH

ALICE OSHIMA – ANN HOGUE

GIỚI THIỆU: LÊ THANH TÂM (M.S.)
LÊ NGỌC PHƯƠNG ANH (M.A.)
BAN BIÊN DỊCH FIRST NEWS

NHÀ XUẤT BẢN TRẺ

Robots

[1]A robot is a mechanical device that can perform boring, dangerous, and difficult tasks. [2]First of all, robots can perform repetitive tasks without becoming tired or bored. [3]They are used in automobile factories to weld* and paint. [4]Robots can also function in hostile environments. [5]They are useful for exploring the ocean bottom as well as deep outer space. [6]Finally, robots can perform tasks requiring pinpoint accuracy. [7]In the operating room, robotic equipment can assist the surgeon. [8]For instance, a robot can kill a brain tumor. [9]It can operate on a fetus† with great precision.

[10]The field of artificial intelligence is giving robots a limited ability to think and to make decisions. [11]However, robots cannot think conceptually. [12]Robots cannot function independently. [13]Humans have to program them. [14]They are useless. (Use *otherwise* to combine sentences 13 and 14.) [15]Therefore, humans should not worry that robots will take over the world—at least not yet.

Writing Technique Questions

1. What is the main idea of each paragraph? What sentences state the main ideas?
2. What method of organization is used to develop the first paragraph?

Complex Sentences

A **complex sentence** contains one independent clause and one (or more) dependent clause(s). In a complex sentence, one idea is generally more important than the other one. The more important idea is placed in the independent clause, and the less important idea is placed in the dependent clause.

There are three kinds of dependent clauses: adverb, adjective, and noun. The following chart presents an overview of them. You will study all of these kinds of clauses in greater detail in Chapters 11, 12, and 13.

DEPENDENT CLAUSES

ADVERB CLAUSES
A dependent adverb clause begins with an adverbial subordinator such as *when, while, because, although, if, so that,* etc. 1. **Although women in the United States could own property,** they could not vote until 1920. 2. In the United States, women could not vote until 1920 **although they could own property.** Notice that there are two possible positions for an adverb clause: before or after the independent clause. If it comes before the independent clause, it is followed by a comma (sentence 1). If it comes after the independent clause, no comma is used (sentence 2).

---

* **weld:** join metal by applying heat
† **fetus:** unborn baby

distribution." In this regard, the convergence of computers and telecommunication has brought forth a new understanding of journalism, as well. All in all, online journalism is based on the use of a certain technology; thus, focusing on how this technology is used is more important than focusing on what this technology is and will be. Boczkowski (2004) suggests that instead of emphasizing technology's revolutionary effects, it is more fruitful to analyze how this technology is implemented.

Literature Review

Digital news can be defined as "content that is accessible through the Internet and other digital environments, whether it also appears in print, radio or television" (Mitchelstein and Bockowski, 2010: 1096). In simple terms, a digital newspaper is the online version of a newspaper, either as a stand-alone publication or as the online version of a printed periodical. In its earlier stages, digital journalism is defined as "the use of digital technologies to research, produce and deliver (or make accessible) news and information to an increasingly computer-literate audience" (Kawamoto, 2003: 4). And various technology-based characteristics of the concept are emphasized such as hypertextualilty, interactivity, nonlinearity, the use of multimedia, convergence, customization and personalization. (Kawamoto, 2003). When compared to its predecessor, Ward (2002) summarizes what make online journalism practices distinctive. According to the author, the range of access to sources, the amount one can access, the speed of access, ability to analyze data, and the ability to tap in to debates and discussions are the benefits of online as a research tool. When it comes to publishing online, the differences lie within features of information dissemination, archiving, the relationship with the reader, interactivity, and linkage. According to Ward (2002) publishing online can provide new opportunities for information dissemination and build a more dynamic relationship with the reader. In addition, capacity, flexibility and permanence can be added to these features (Stovall, 2004). In digital journalism, limitations of time and space are eliminated; the web can handle a wide variety of forms like words, pictures, audio and video for the information it presents; and its content is more permanent, if properly maintained, than any other kind of medium.

It can be said that beginning of online journalism, in its current sense, occurred with the emergence of first commercial web browsers, namely Netscape in 1994 and Internet Explorer in 1995. At that time, most news outlets had a web site where they used the original

Reading or Scanning? A Study of Newspaper and Net Paper Reading

Kenneth Holmqvist, Jana Holsanova, Maria Barthelson and Daniel Lundqvist

Net paper readers have been shown to read deeper into articles than newspaper readers. It has also been claimed that newspaper readers rather scan than read newspapers. Do these findings mean that net paper readers read proportionally more than newspaper readers? This paper presents results showing that in fact net paper readers scan more and read less than newspaper readers. We furthermore investigate whether this result can be explained by the differences in layout, navigation structure and purpose of reading between the two media.

Introduction

Today, we use the Internet for several purposes: to get information, entertainment and to do errands. During February 2002, 5,080,000 Swedes were connected to the Internet, which is 58.2% of the whole Swedish population above 2 years of age (80% of the age group 18–49 years).[1] Sixty-two percent of the Swedish Internet users state that they read news and net papers online. This activity is second to e-mailing (84%).[2] In 1994, Aftonbladet.se opened the first net paper site in Sweden. In February 2002, this site had 1,836,000 unique visitors.

News providers try to adjust to the trend and are present on the Internet. Due to the competition to catch the readers' attention, news providers are anxious to understand the behaviour of net paper users. Some years ago, they could only get feedback from logs and online surveys. Nowadays, they conduct eye-tracking studies.

Traditional printed media exist in parallel to the new media. Reading traditional newspapers implies looking for headlines, briefs, photos and drop quotes. Does the new medium influence our way of searching for news? Does net paper reading differ from newspaper reading?

On the one hand, the new media differ considerably from the old: Online readers read from a computer screen and move around by clicking on links and menu buttons. They navigate through a virtual space and may run into problems orienting themselves in the complex net structure (see De Léon & Holsanova, 1997).

On the other hand, readers themselves report on important differences in the use of the traditional and new media. In Barthelson (2002), experienced online news readers describe the medium differences as follows: Reading a newspaper is something they do with pleasure and if possible in a situation that allows few distraction (along with breakfast, in a coffee break after lunch, on the train or in the subway). It is a relaxing activity to traverse through the folds and it usually takes quite a long time. In contrast, reading a net paper is something you do in much shorter breaks, perhaps between two e-mails, usually in your office in the early morning, or during lunch. The purpose is to become updated on a few particular questions. The users make brief visits to the news sites several times a day with the expectation of obtaining a quick overview over the latest events.

A net paper consists of a front page (also called the first page), topic pages (sometimes called section pages) and article pages. A page is a two-dimensional surface containing text and images that can be accessed by scrolling up and down in a web browser window. The information for each page is stored at a different URL.

All these two-dimensional surfaces are then linked together in a complex multidimensional structure. By hyper-linking, hitting the back button, choosing a different

Figure 30.1: The front page of the DN net paper (www.dn.se).

Paralleling the growing interest in qualitative research in sociology has been an increased acceptance of these methods in other disciplines and applied fields. Such diverse disciplines as geography (DeLyser, Herbert, Aitken, Crang, & McDowell, 2010; Hay, 2010), political science (McNabb, 2004), and psychology (Camic, Rhodes, & Yardley, 2003; Fischer, 2005; *Qualitative Research in Psychology*) have seen the publication of edited books, texts, and journals on qualitative research methods over the past decade and a half. The American Psychological Association started publishing the journal *Qualitative Psychology* in 2014. Qualitative methods have been used for program evaluation and policy research (Bogdan & Taylor, 1990; Guba & Lincoln, 1989; M. Q. Patton 1987, 2008, 2010, 2014; Rist 1994). Journals and texts on qualitative research can be found in such diverse applied areas of inquiry as health care and nursing (Latimer, 2003; Munhall, 2012; Streubert & Carpenter, 2010; *Qualitative Health Research*), mental health, counseling, and psychotherapy (Harper & Thompson, 2011; McLeod, 2011), education (Bogdan & Biklen, 2006; *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*; Lichtman, 2010; *Qualitative Research in Education*), music education (Conway, 2014), public health (Ulin, Robinson, & Tolley, 2005), business (Meyers, 2013), theology (Swinton & Mowat, 2006), disability studies (Ferguson et al., 1992), human development (Daly, 2007; Jessor, Colby, & Shweder, 1996), social work (Sherman & and Reid, 1994; *Qualitative Social Work*), and special education (Stainback & Stainback, 1988).

One does not have to be a sociologist or to think sociologically to practice qualitative research. Although we identify with a sociological tradition, qualitative approaches can be used in a broad range of disciplines and fields.

Just as significant as the increasing interest in qualitative research methods has been the proliferation of theoretical perspectives rooted in the phenomenological tradition underlying this form of inquiry. We consider the relationship between theory and methodology more fully later in this chapter.

QUALITATIVE METHODOLOGY

The phrase *qualitative methodology* refers in the broadest sense to research that produces descriptive data—people's own written or spoken words and observable behavior. As Ray Rist (1977) pointed out, qualitative methodology, like quantitative methodology, is more than a set of data-gathering techniques. It is a way of approaching the empirical world. In this section we present our notion of qualitative research.

1. *Qualitative researchers are concerned with the meaning people attach to things in their lives.* Central to the phenomenological perspective and hence qualitative research is understanding people from their own frames of reference and

SIXTH EDITION

RESEARCH DESIGN

Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches

JOHN W. CRESWELL • J. DAVID CRESWELL

Types of Threats to External Validity	Description of Threat	In Response, Actions the Researcher Can Take
Interaction of history and treatment	Because results of an experiment are time-bound, a researcher cannot generalize the results to past or future situations.	The researcher needs to replicate the study at later times to determine if the same results occur as in the earlier time.

Source: Adapted from Creswell and Guetterman (2018).

Practical research tips for proposal writers to address validity issues are as follows:

- Identify the potential threats to validity that may arise in your study. A separate section in a proposal may be composed to discuss potential threats and the approaches used to minimize them.

- Define the exact type of threat and what potential issue it presents to your study.

- Discuss how you plan to address the threat in the design of your experiment.

The Procedure

A researcher needs to describe in detail the sequential step-by-step procedure for conducting the experiment. A reader should be able to clearly understand the cover story explaining the study to participants, the design being used, the manipulated variable(s) and outcome variable(s), and the chronological sequence of study activities. It is also important to describe steps taken to minimize noise and bias in the experimental procedures. For example, if the experimenter is aware of whether a participant receives the treatment condition that will be most helpful, the experimenter might act in more positive and reinforcing ways in administering the outcome measure. To reduce this form of experimenter bias, it is helpful to make the experimenter administering the outcome measure blind to the participant's study condition. Blinding in experimental research is when the experimenter (and/or the participant) is kept unaware of the participant's assigned study condition. Thus, experimenter blinding is a step a researcher could take to minimize bias and to describe in the experimental procedures (e.g., "To reduce the risk of experimenter bias, the experimenter was blind to the participant's study condition until all outcome measures were assessed.").

Discuss a step-by-step approach for the procedure in the experiment. For example, Borg and Gall (2006) outlined steps typically used in the procedure for a pretest–posttest control group design with matching participants in the experimental and control groups.

1. Administer measures of the dependent variable or a variable closely correlated with the dependent variable to the research participants.
2. Assign participants to matched pairs on the basis of their scores on the measures described in Step 1.
3. Randomly assign one member of each pair to the experimental group and the other member to the control group. Expose the experimental group to the experimental treatment, and administer no treatment or an alternative treatment to the control group.
4. Administer measures of the dependent variables to the experimental and control groups.
5. Compare the performance of the experimental and control groups on the posttest(s) using tests of statistical significance.

Data Analysis

Assigning participants to study conditions in experimental studies means that study analyses are straightforward—the principle analyses test hypotheses that focus on comparing groups across these

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RESEARCH DESIGN

Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches

JOHN W. CRESWELL · J. DAVID CRESWELL

A qualitative observation is when the researcher takes field notes on the behavior and activities of individuals at the research site. In these field notes, the researcher records activities at the site in an unstructured or semi-structured way (using some prior questions that the inquirer wants to know). Qualitative observers may also engage in roles varying from a nonparticipant to a complete participant. Typically, these observations are open-ended in that the researchers ask general questions of the participants, allowing the participants to provide their views freely.

In qualitative interviews, the researcher conducts face-to-face interviews or telephone interviews with participants or engages in focus group interviews with six to eight interviewees in each group. These interviews involve unstructured and generally a few open-ended questions and are intended to elicit views and opinions from the participants.

During the process of research, the investigator may collect qualitative documents. These may be public documents (e.g., newspapers, minutes of meetings, official reports) or private documents (e.g., personal journals and diaries, letters, e-mails).

A final category of qualitative data comprises qualitative audiovisual, social media, and digital materials. This data may take the form of photographs, art objects, videotapes, website main pages, e-mails, text messages, social media text, or forms of sound. Include creative data collection procedures that fall under visual ethnography (Pink, 2001) and living stories, metaphorical visual narratives, and digital archives (Clandinin, 2007).

In a discussion about data collection forms, be specific about the types, and include arguments concerning the strengths and weaknesses of each type, as discussed in Table 9.2. Typically, in good qualitative research the researchers draw on multiple sources of qualitative data to make interpretations about a research problem.

Table 9.2 Qualitative Data Collection Types, Options, Strengths, and Limitations

Data Collection Types	Options Within Types	Strengths of the Types	Limitations of the Types

An Introduction

Content analysis is one of the most popular and rapidly expanding techniques for quantitative research. Advances in computer applications and in digital media have made the organized study of messages quicker and easier . . . but not automatically better. This book explores the current options for quantitative analyses of messages.

Content analysis may be briefly defined as the systematic, objective, quantitative analysis of message characteristics. It includes both human-coded analyses and computer-aided text analysis (CATA). Its applications can include the careful examination of face-to-face human interactions; the analysis of character portrayals in media venues ranging from novels to online videos; the computer-driven analysis of word usage in news media and political speeches, advertising, and blogs; the examination of interactive content such as video gaming and social media exchanges; and so much more.

Content analysis has been applied to many areas of inquiry. It has been used to investigate naturally occurring language (Markel, 1998), newspaper coverage of the greenhouse effect (Miller, Boone, & Fowler, 1992), letters to the editor (Perrin & Vaisey, 2008), and how characters of different genders are shown on TV (Greenberg, 1980). It has been used in such highly specific studies as those analyzing Turkish elementary school math books (Özgeldi & Esen, 2010), greenway plans in northwest Indiana (Floress et al., 2009), questions asked by patients and companions in physician–patient interactions (Eggly et al., 2006), web page hits and Google Group threadedness for living and dead public intellectuals (Danowski & Park, 2009), the emotional tone of social networking comments (i.e., sentiment analysis; Thelwall, Wilkinson, & Uppal, 2010), the linguistic substance of the writings of a 19th-century explorer leading up to his suicide (Baddeley, Daniel, & Pennebaker, 2011), and the substance of Canadian winery web sites (Zhu, Basil, & Hunter, 2009).

Content analyses have resulted in eclectic and often surprising findings. A study analyzing Hollywood actresses' facial features predicted good economic times from the prevalence of neonate (babylike) features among top movie stars (Pettijohn & Tesser, 1999). Johnson (1987) analyzed Porky Pig's vocalics from a clinical speech therapy standpoint, finding stuttering in 11.6% to 51.4% of words uttered (per cartoon), with certain behaviors statistically associated with the stuttering (e.g., eye blinks, grimaces). Hirdes, Woods, and Badzinski (2009) examined the prevalence of persuasive appeals associated with a wide range of types of "Jesus merchandise." Atkinson and Herro (2010) discovered that *The New York Times* mentioned tennis star Andre Agassi's age much more often when he was atypically young or atypically old for competitive tennis. And Wansink and Wansink (2010) measured the food-to-head ratio in 52 *Last Supper* paintings produced over a millennium, finding that the relative sizes of the main dish, bread, and plates have all increased linearly and significantly over the past thousand years. Chapter 9 presents an overview of some of the major areas of study —the main "contexts" of content analysis research—but the above examples show that the range of applications is limited only by the researcher's imagination.

Content-analytic measures may be combined with other types of measurement, as in Pian, Khoo, and Chang's (2014) study of users' attention to an online health discussion forum. They used an eye-tracking system to first

Ridwan Kamil, MUI to probe controversial West Java 'pesantren'

Several 'santri', or Islamic boarding school students, head out for prayers in this undated file photo.(-/-)

← **Fikri Harish (The Jakarta Post)**

Share PREMIUM Jakarta • Wed, June 21, 2023

As controversy over allegedly sacrilegious teachings continues to engulf Pondok Pesantren Al-Zaytun in Indramayu, the West Java administration and the Indonesian Ulema Council (MUI) have launched separate investigations into what has been going on at the Islamic boarding school.

'Pesantren' heresy claims spark rights concerns

Hundreds of Muslim students sit reading copies of the Quran at the Ar-Raudhatul Hasanah Islamic boarding school in Medan, North Sumatra, on April 3, 2022.(AFP/Andi)

← **A. Muh. Ibnu Aqil (The Jakarta Post)**

Share PREMIUM Jakarta • Sat, June 24, 2023

Versi Bahasa Indonesia

An Islamic school in West Java faces potential closure over allegations of heresy and links to religious separatists, raising concerns about a crackdown on religious freedom that could further muddy a highly political year.

Jokowi denies state ties to embattled Al-Zaytun school

Several 'santri', or Islamic boarding school students, head out for prayers in this undated file photo.(-/-)

← **Fikri Harish (The Jakarta Post)**

Share PREMIUM Jakarta • Mon, June 26, 2023

Amid allegations that high-ranking government officials are helping to cover up the blasphemy scandal surrounding Pondok Pesantren Al-Zaytun in Indramayu, West Java, President Joko "Jokowi" Widodo on Monday denied that the State Palace had anything to do with the controversial Islamic boarding school.

Al-Zaytun leader not cooperative: MUI

Dayah Darul Quran Aceh pesantren (Islamic boarding school) students attend a Quran recital at Gampong Tumbo Baro in Kuta Malaka, Aceh, on March 29, 2023. (Antara/Khalis Surry)

A. Muh. Ibnu Aqil (The Jakarta Post)

Share   **PREMIUM**   Jakarta   •   Sun, July 2, 2023

As an investigation into allegations of blasphemous activities at the Al-Zaytun *pesantren* (Islamic boarding school) led by Panji Gumilang continues, the Indonesian Ulema Council (MUI) says that it has been trying to clarify the matter through dialogue but to no avail.

PPATK freezes 256 bank accounts linked to Al-Zaytun head

Panji Gumilang, the leader of Pondok Pesantren Al-Zaytun in Indramayu, West Java, greets journalists as he arrives on July 3, 2023, for questioning at the National Police's Criminal Investigation Department (Bareskrim) in Jakarta. Panji was summoned by the police to clarify blasphemy allegations made against the pesantren (Islamic boarding school) he founded. (Antara/Laily Rahmawaty)

News Desk (The Jakarta Post)

Share   **PREMIUM**   Jakarta   •   Fri, July 7, 2023

The Financial Transaction Reports and Analysis Center (PPATK) has frozen 256 bank accounts suspected of being linked to Panji Gumilang, the controversial leader of the Al-Zaytun *pesantren* (Islamic boarding school).