

TYPES OF AMBIGUITY: TRANSFORMATIONAL GRAMMAR APPROACH WHY AND HOW TO RESOLVE

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ABSTRACT

A Word, phrase, or sentence is ambiguous if it has more than one meaning. The ambiguity, however, can be noticed if one really has a linguistic knowledge of how to analyze the phrase or sentence. Of the three kinds of ambiguity - lexical, constructional (structural) and derivational ambiguity. Structural ambiguity occurs when a phrase or sentence has more than one underlying structure, such as 'old men and women', 'old' can refer to only men or both men and women. The phrase can be disambiguated by putting it in a sentence with some sort of formal signals which help the reader or hearer to recognize the sentence structure (Taha, 1983 : 169). Some of the signals include function words, inflections, affixes, stress, juncture and punctuation as in 'The old men and women talked about the president election'. The three types of ambiguity that the writer wants to explore in this paper are lexical, constructional (structural) and derivational ambiguity. The rest of this paper also discusses and ambiguity such as: (1) identify test, (2) independent sense relations, (3) homonymy and polysemy. In this paper, the writer also explores the causes of ambiguity (Polysemy).

Keywords: Polysemy, Lexical Ambiguity, Structural Ambiguity, Derivational Ambiguity, Homonymy

INTRODUCTION

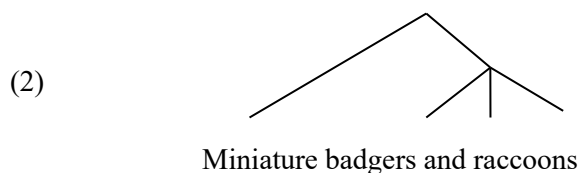
A Brief Note on Ambiguity

In Language files (1998: 174-175) it is written that in every human language (1) we can find individual expressions that have two or more distinct meanings. For example the italicized portions of the following sentences can be interpreted in more than one way:

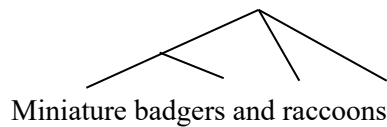
- (1) a. Larry raises *miniature badgers and raccoons*.
- b. We need *more intelligent leaders*
- c. The *cranes* were transported by boat to Minneapolis.

In (1a) *miniature badgers and raccoons* can mean either 'miniature badgers and miniatures raccoons' or 'miniature badgers and raccoons (of any size)'; in point (1b), *more intelligent leaders* can mean either 'a greater quantity of intelligent leaders' or 'leaders who are more intelligent'. This property of having two or more distinct meanings is called **ambiguity**; an expression with two or more distinct meanings is ambiguous.

Often, an expression is ambiguous because it has more than more than one possible constituent structure. Consider, for example, the expression *miniature badgers and raccoons* in sentence (1a): it can have either of the following consistent structures.



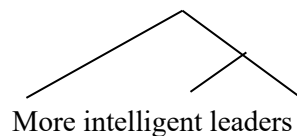
(3)



In *badger's ad raccoons* forms a constituent (2) therefore represents the interpretation in which the adjective miniature applies to both the badgers and the raccoons. In (3) on the other hand, *miniature badgers* form a constituent (3) therefore represents the interpretations which only the badgers are miniature. An expression that is ambiguous because it has more than one possible constituent structure is said to be **structurally ambiguous**.

The italicized portion of sentence (1b) is also structurally ambiguous : it can have either of the following constituent structure.

(4)



(5)



In (4) *intelligent leaders* is constituent for this reason (4) represents the interpretation a greater quantity of intelligent leaders. In (5) however, *more intelligent* form a constituent (5) therefore represents the meaning leaders “who are more intelligent”

Although structural ambiguity is a very common kind of ambiguity, it is not the only kind. Individual *words* are sometimes ambiguous for example *crane* can refer either to a kind bird or to a large construction device. Because words like crane have no internal constituent structure, sentences containing such word clearly can't be structurally ambiguous. Instead, a sentence containing a word with more than one meaning is said to be **lexically ambiguous**. Thus, both meanings for (1c) are represented with the same constituent structure.

Allan (1986 : 147). summarized that in Traditional Semantics it has been usual to distinguish two kinds of ambiguity: **Polysemy and Homonymy**.

Polysemy refers to a lexical item which has a range of different meanings, in other words, it is one form-several meanings.

Homonymy is the relation between two or more expressions which have the same form but different meanings. In other words, it is two lexical items which happen to have the same phonological form.

Again, Allan (1986 : 150) stated that **Homonymy** is a relation holding between two or more etic expressions that have the same form but a different meaning complete homonymy have the same pronunciation and the same spelling.

For instance, “**a bird flew into the bank**”. This sentence is lexically, ambiguous because of the word ‘*bank*’ can either mean “**institution for the custody of money**” and “**raised body of earth or river bank**”.

Chierchia and Mc Connell- Ginet (1990 : 32 – 33) stated that *ambiguity arises* when a single word or string of words is associated in the language system with more than one meaning. Each of the sentences in (6) Illustrates a different way in which a single expression may be assigned multiple interpretations.

- a) **You should have seen the bull we got from the people**
- b) **Competent women and men hold all the good jobs in the firm**
- c) **Mary claims that Jhon saw her duck.**
- d) **Some one loves everyone.**

Sentence (6a) illustrates what is called **lexical ambiguity**; the form **bull** can be assigned at least three quite different interpretations (roughly, the first meaning is **a papal communication**, the second is **a male cow**, or the third is **nonsense**). The sentence is ambiguous because **bull** is ambiguous.

Sentence (6b) shows a simple kind of structural, or syntactic, ambiguity because one interpretation entails that **the men holding the good jobs are competent** or the **women and the men holding the good jobs are competent**.

In (6c) it shows **lexical ambiguity** because the word “**duck**” can either mean :

- (1) **The duck (bird) belonging or lower her head.**

The sentence in (6d) illustrates **scope ambiguity** because it can be interpreted that “**some lover to each person (there is always the person’s mother)** or as saying that **someone is a universal lover (perhaps a divinity)**. The ambiguity here arises from the relation between someone and everyone.

A scope ambiguity according to Chierchia and MC Connell-Ginet is not *lexical* but *structural*.

Last but not least Fromkin and Rodman (1998: 163-164) again stated that homonymy can create **ambiguity**. A word or a sentence is ambiguous if it can be understood or interpreted in more than one way. The sentence “**I’ll meet you by the bank**” may mean or **I’ll meet you by the financial institution** or **I’ll meet you by the river side**”. This ambiguity is due to the two words **bank** with two different meanings. Sometimes additional context can help to **disambiguate** the sentence:

I’ll meet you by the bank, in front of the automated teller machine (ATM)
I’ll meet you by the bank. We can go skinning – dipping.

THE CLASSIFICATION OF AMBIGUITY

(A) Verma and Krishnaswamy (1996: 101) also classified types of ambiguity into two, such as:

- (1) **Lexical ambiguity**

For example, the word **bank** may mean **the bank of a river** or **a financial institution**, as in the sentence, **I saw him by the bank**.

- (2) **Structural ambiguity**

Consider the following phrase: **very old men and women**.

The phrase may mean:

- (a) Very old men and women
- (b) Very old men and very old women

(B) Clark and Clark (1977: 80) Summarized that ambiguity ought to be the bane of comprehension because many – probably host – sentences have more than one interpretation, or reading.

Although people ought to have great trouble selecting the intended reading in practice, they are rarely aware of more than one reading, which they select immediately.

Consider, for example:

“**The farmer put the straw on a pile, beside his threshing machine** in this sentences, it is seen that straw could either mean “Grain Stalk” or “drinking tube”

(C) Jacobs and Rosenbaum (1968 : 5-6) also summarized that they classified the ambiguity into two types:

(1) Lexical ambiguity, as in the sentence “**The police station was right by the bank**”

(2) Gramatical (Structural) ambiguity as in the sentence “ **The lamb is too hot to eat**”

This sentence means either that to **the lamb is so hot. That it cannot eat anything** or that the **lamb is so hot that no one can eat it.**

(D) Fromkin and Rodman (1983: 168 – 169), summarized that a word or a sentence is ambiguous if it can be understood in more than one way the sentence, “**she cannot bear children**” may be understood to mean “**she is unable to give birth to children because she is sterile or she cannot tolerate children.** The ambiguity is because there are two words **bear** with two different meanings.

(E) Finally, Stockwell (1977:31-32) stated that ambiguity of certain types poses the inverse problem. Consider the sentence, “**They ordered the police to stop drinking after midnight**”. It an mean **six distinct things**:

1. *They ordered the police to stop their own (the police's) drinking after midnight, on any given day.*
2. *They ordered the police to stop other people from drinking after midnight or any given day.*
3. *They ordered the police to stop permanently all drinking of their own as of midnight.*
4. *They ordered the police to stop other people from any further drinking permanently from that particular midnight onward.*
5. *It was after midnight when they ordered the police to stop their own drinking*
6. *And it was after midnight when they ordered the police to stop other people is drinking.*

(F) Hurford and Hesley (1983 : 128) grouped ambiguity into two, **lexical** and **structural ambiguity**, and Kess (1992 : 133), categories ambiguity into three levels: **lexical ambiguity**, **surface structure ambiguity** and **deep or underlying structure ambiguity**. as described below :

The study of ambiguous sentences has been a central area of study in both linguistics and psycholinguistics. In linguistics, ambiguous sentences demanded independent syntactic analysis for sentences which allowed more than one interpretation or “reading”. Sentences can be ambiguous on at least three levels: **on the lexical level of word meaning (lexical ambiguity)**; **on the surface level of syntactic relationships with ambiguity in the surface structure (surface structure ambiguity)**; and on the deep structure level of logical relationships between underlying syntactic constituents (**deep or underlying structure ambiguity**). Examples of each may be seen in the following trio of sentences.

1. *Lexical ambiguity : The visitors enjoyed the port.*
2. *Surface structure ambiguity: Old men and women are advised to apply for their benefits*
3. *Deep structure ambiguity: Cheating students will not be tolerated*

(G) Cruse, (1986 : 66), on the other hand, distinguishes four types of ambiguity: (1). **Pure syntactic ambiguity**. (2). **Quasi - syntactic ambiguity**, (3). **Lexico syntactic ambiguity** and (4). **Pure lexical ambiguity**.

(H) Radford (1981 : 58) classifies two kinds of ambiguity: (1). Lexical ambiguity, (2). structural ambiguity.

(I) and Akmajian, et al. (1995 : 140-141), also group kind of ambiguity into two: (1) lexical ambiguity, (2) structural ambiguity.

(J) Finally, Thomas and Kintgen (1974 : 132) they stated that: there are three types of ambiguity. The simplest is called (1) **lexical ambiguity**, and arises when one word can mean several things: *meet me by the First National bank or meet me by the river bank*, since *bank* can refer either to a place to keep money or to the earth immediately adjacent to a river. The second type is called (2) **constructional ambiguity**, and usually occurs when a word can modify more than one other word. Thus, *the old men and women left* can mean either *the old people left (but the young ones stayed)* or *the old men and all the women left (but the young men stayed)*. In the first instance, *old* is interpreted as modifying *men and women*: in the second, it modifies only *men*. The third type of ambiguity we might call (for want of a better term) (3) **derivational ambiguity**, a term whose precise meaning will become clearer shortly. Thus, *the shooting of the soldiers was terrible* can mean either that the soldier were terrible marksmen, or that it is terrible that the soldiers were shot. Here the ambiguity arises not from a word having two or more meanings, or from *of the soldiers* modifying or not modifying *shooting* (which it does in either case), but from something else, something the writer will analyze in some detail below. (2). constructional (structural) ambiguity, (3) derivational ambiguity. These three kinds of ambiguity that the writer wants to explore and exemplify on this paper, as given below:

What are lexical and structural all about?

Lexical ambiguity is ambiguity attributable to the fact that some particular lexical item (word) has more than one meaning. For example: the word “**bull**”. **Bull** can be assigned at least three quite different interpretations (roughly, **a papal communication**, **a male cow** or **nonsense**). The sentence is ambiguous because **bull** is ambiguous. To understand sentences containing that form, to identify their entailments, we need to know which of its three interpretations is being used. But there is a second type of ambiguity characteristic of natural language, and in ‘**very old men and women**’ clearly this phrase is ambiguous but the ambiguity does not lie in the words themselves, i.e. it isn’t the case that *old*, or *men*, or *women* has more than one distinct sense. Rather, the ambiguity rests on whether ‘**very old**’ is taken as qualifying only men or as qualifying the phrase **men and women that** means ‘very old men and very old women’. Thus it would appear that the ambiguity is not lexical in nature, but rather structural.

A word is lexically ambiguous if it has more than one meaning, while structural (constructional) ambiguity is basically a question of ‘**what goes with what**’ in a sentence because lexical ambiguity depends on homonymy (*lexical item which have the same form, but after in meaning*) and syntactic, structural (constructional) ambiguity depends on polysemy (*lexical item which has a range of different meaning*). Thus a sentence with more than two structural interpretation is said to be *multiply ambiguous*.

When ambiguity exists, it is either structural or lexical. It is due either to the fact that two words have the same pronunciation or to the fact that one word has several distinct meaning (polysemy). An example of such polysemy can be seen in the word ‘**head**’ that can either mean (1). Part of the body, (2). Highest part of something, as in stairs, (3). the source, as of river, and (4). the obverse of a coin. In fact, it is sometimes difficult to decide whether we have several meaning for the same word (*polysemy*) or several words with the same pronunciation and spelling (homonymy) (this happens

because even lexicographers and grammarians will not always agree (Pyles, and Algeo 1970 : 220-222). Lyons (1984 : 146) explained that the problem distinguish between homonymy and polysemy is, in principle, insoluble. Finegan and Besnier (1984 : 188), also explained that the boundary between homonymy and polysemy is not clear cut.

Homonymy and Polysemy

Difficulties in drawing a distinction between polysemy and homonymy arise partly from the fact that language users often use words metaphorically. The word 'eye', for example, can be used to describe 'part of the body', 'the hole at the dull end of a needle', 'the bud on a potato', and 'the center of a storm'. People frequently create new metaphors, and once a metaphor becomes accepted, speakers tend to view the metaphorical meaning as separate from its primary sense. Finally, metaphors occur constantly in day-to-day speaking and in writing because they are a fundamental part of our thinking.

Finally; homonymy and polysemy, though easy enough to formulate, is difficult to apply with consistency and reliability way, this is because the meaning of a word can vary so greatly from context to context. It is said that it is very difficult to distinguish between homonymy and polysemy because lexicographers and grammarians will not always agree.

Homonymy can be subdivided into homophony, same pronunciation but different meaning, and homography, same spelling but different meaning.

A sentence can be ambiguous because of many reasons, some of which are (1) **multiple meaning**, (2) **lack of information** and (3) **incompleteness** (Owen and Sweeney in Visser 2011 : 1). To make the ambiguous sentences unambiguous and grammatical, it is necessary to have some sort of formal signals which help the reader or hearer to recognize the sentence structure (Taha 1983:12). Some of the signals (1) include function words, (2) inflections, (3) affixes, juncture (or word division and punctuation in writing), and major class membership. Those elements will be used as the basis of the discussion of ambiguous construction below. Those formal signals are absolutely important to understand and analyze ambiguity. Here are some ambiguous sentences, which are included in the discussion of this paper:

- *The girl hit the boy with a book*
- *Visiting relatives can be boring*
- *I know more beautiful girls than 'Eikal sura-sura bibina'*
- *Put the bottle on the table in the dining room*
- *The teacher thanked the students who had given her some flowers*

In each case, the explanations include the types of lexical, structural (constructional), and derivational forms, the reasons of ambiguity and some possible ways to resolve them.

Types of lexical ambiguity

There are a lot of lexical ambiguity, the ones that are explored in this paper only include:

1. *They went to the bank* (O' Grady et al. 1997 : 44)

The word 'bank' in the sentence has two possible meanings, *the edge of a river*, or a *financial institution*. From the sentence itself, it is difficult to get the meaning of 'bank'. It needs a context to clear up the message conveyed. In other words, the sentence is ambiguous due to lacking of information. It can be disambiguated by providing additional information as in. *'They went to the bank to save some money'*.

2. *I saw her duck* (Finegan, Edward 2008: 174)

The word duck here, can be **interpreted into** two ways, duck may refer to *'the act of bending over quickly (while walking through a low door way) or it may be a noun referring to a type of waterfowl..'*

3. *Eric is a drawing a cart* (Adi Sutrisno Wagiman 2008 : 60)

The word **drawing**, can also be interpreted **into** two ways,

(1). *Making a picture of a cart*, or (2). *Pulling a cart*.

4. *I found the table fascinating* (Crystal, David 1983 : 24)

5. *I'll meet you by the bank* (Fromkin and Roodman 1998: 164)

6. *I saw ally on my way to school* (Richard, Platt, and Weber 1985 : 11)

7. *The old matron fed her dog biscuits* (Jacob and Rosenbaun 1968 : 9)

Structural (constructional ambiguity)

1. Abnormal psychology professor (Frank 1986: 62) This phrase can be interpreted into two ways :

(a). *Professor of abnormal psychology*

(b). *Psychology professor who is abnormal*

2. **Red oak table**

This phrase can be interpreted into two ways :

(a). *Table made of red oak*

(b). *Oak table painted red*

3. **Big truck Driver**

This phrase can be interpreted in to two ways :

(a). *One who drives big trucks*

(b). *Truck driver who is big*

4. **Second language teacher**

This phrase can be interpreted into two ways : _

(a). *Teacher of a second language*

(b). *An additional teacher of language*

5. **American history teacher** (Frank, Parker 1986 : 62)

6. **The lamb is too hot to eat** (Richard, Platt, and Weber 1985: 11)

7. **New houses and shops** (Crystal, David, 1980 : 23)

This phrase can be interpreted into two ways :

(a). *New (houses and shops) both are new*

(b). *(New houses) and shops the houses are new.*

8. **The English king** (Hornstein and Lightfoot 1981 : 46)

9. *I saw a neck on my way home* (Lyons, John 1981 : 147)

10. *Nicole saw the people with binoculars* (0, Grady et al. 1997: 260)

The sentence can be grasped in two ways. One interpretation is that *Nicole used binoculars to see the people*. In this sense, binoculars modify Nicole (Nicole with binoculars). The other meaning, *the people had binoculars when Nicole saw them*. It means that 'binoculars' modifies the people (people with binoculars)

Derivational Ambiguity

1. The shooting of the snipers was **terrible**.

This sentence can be interpreted into two ways :

(a). *The snipers shooting were terrible. or*

(b). *It is terrible that the snipers were shot.*

2. **The shooting of the hunters that can mean either**
 - (a). *The hunters shot something (taking hunters as the subject)*
 - (b). *Someone shot the hunters or (the hunters were shot) (taking hunters as the object)*
3. **Starving children can be dangerous (Koutsoudas, Andreas 1966 : 3) ,**
4. **I dislike visiting relatives (Huiddeston, Rodney 1976: 132) ,**
5. **Visiting Great aunts can be a nuisance (Aitchison, Jean 1978 : 83)**

From a lot of lexical, structural (constructional) and derivational ambiguity, the ones that are explored in this paper only include :

Type 1: VP + NP + PP (prepositional phrase)*	* The girl hit the boy with a book.
Type 2: Gerund + VP	* Visiting relatives can be boring
Type 3: VP + more +NP + than + NP	* I know more beautiful girls than ‘Eikal Sura-sura bibina’
Type 4: VP + NP + PP + PP	* Put the bottle on the table in the diningroom
Type 5: NP +adjective clause	* The teacher thanked the students who had given her some flowers

Type1 : Verb + NP + PP (prepositional phrase)

The girl hit the boy with a book

The sentence may mean ‘*the girl hit the boy using a book*’ or ‘the boy is holding a book when the girl hit him. This type of ambiguity occurs since the prepositional phrase ‘with a book’ can modify two nouns ‘the girl ; the boy’, either of which can be treated as it is antecedent. In the sentence there is no clue to which noun the PP modifies. In other words , ‘with a book’ can modify the boy or the girl. This type of structural ambiguity results from the lack information construction. If additional information is added to it, the sentence becomes unambiguous :

The girl hit the boy with a book. The book is broken.

The girl hit the boy with a book. The boy hurts.

Other examples of the same sort (a prepositional phrase that can modify two noun phrases) are:

- **He hurt his sister with a knife.**
 1. *Using a knife, he hurt his sister*
 2. *His sister was holding a knife when he hurt her.*
- **Brian harms Jenny with a hammer.**
 1. *Using a hammer, Brian harms Jenny*
 2. *Jenny is holding a hammer when Brian harms her.*

Type 2 : Gerund + verb

Visiting relatives can be boring.

The second type of ambiguity has the construction a gerund followed by a verb. The example sentence is ambiguous because ‘**visiting relatives**’ can be understood in two ways: as a **compound noun** and as you **phrase** consisting of a modifier plus a noun. **In** writing, it is hard to eliminate the ambiguity, but speaking, it can be cleared up by using intonation pattern. When it is pronounced with / 2 — 3 1 / pattern, the utterance indicates a compound noun, which mean ‘*the action of visiting relatives*’. However, when it is pronounced with / 3 2 — 1 / pattern, the utterance implies a noun phrase, which means ‘**relatives who visit**’.

Below are other examples which also indicate ambiguity of a **compound noun and a noun phrase**.

- **Flying object**
 1. An object to fly
 2. An object that flies
- **Moving car**
 1. A car for moving
 2. A car that moves

Type 3 : verb + more + Noun + that + Noun
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Eikal sura-sura mamana Loves his cat more than Eikal sura-sura bibina

This third type of ambiguity concerns comparative degree. It is ambiguous because the shortened version may function as the subject of the second (shortened) clause or as the object of the verb “love” which is in comparative relation with ‘the dog’. The rule is if the comparative clause **is** identical to the main clause except for a contrasted phrase, optionally remove everything from the comparative clause except for this contrasted phrase (Baker 1989 : 347). Because of the removal of similar words, the unite has sentences two meanings.

- *Eikal Sura-sura mamana* loves the fans more than *Eikal sura-sura bibina* loves the fans
- *Eikal Sura-sura mamana* loves the fans more He loves *Eikal sura-sura bibina*

To make it unambiguous, the shortened version should he added some missing information. The Shortened version should be *Eikal Suru-sura mamana*” loves the fans more than “*Eikal sura-sura bibina*” does’. The second one is *Eikal Suru-sura mamana*” loves the fans more than he loves “*Eikal sura bibina*”

The followings are other examples of ambiguity of comparative clauses ;

- **John listens to rock music more often than his father.**
 1. *John listens to rock music more often than his father listens to rock music.*
 2. *John listens to rock music more often than he listens to his father.*
- **James loves Helen more than Joe.**
 1. *James loves Helen more than Joe loves Helen*
 2. *James loves Helen more than James loves Joe.*

Type 4 : VP + NP + PP + PP

Put the bottle on the table in the kitchen.

The structure of the fourth ambiguity is in the following order : Verb + Noun + PP (Modifier) + PP (modifier). The sentence is ambiguous since the first modifier ‘on the table’ can modify the closest Noun phrase or prepositional phrase. It is not clear whether ‘on the table’ modifies ‘the bottle’ or in the kitchen’. If it modifies ‘the bottle’. It means than the bottle is already on the table and should be put on the table (from somewhere else) which is in the kitchen.

The ambiguity can be resolved by placing a terminal juncture between the first and the second modifier. Thus the sentence will be ‘Put the bottle on the table/ in the kitchen. The juncture shows that the bottle is already on the table and to be put in the kitchen. The second interpretation, is ‘Put the bottle on the table in the kitchen’. It means that the bottle should be Put on the table, and the location of the table is in the kitchen (not the table in the bedroom).

The followings are other examples of anbiguity with two modifiers.

- **Place the box in the drawer in the bed room.**
 1. *To place the box inside the drawer, which is located in the bedroom*
 2. *The box is already in the drawer and should be placed in the bedroom.*

- **Put the radio on the box in that bedroom**
 1. *To put the radio on the box, which is located in the room.*
 2. *The radio is already on the box, and it should be Put in that room.*

Type 5 : NP + adjective clause

The teacher thanked the students who had given her some flowers.

This fifth sentence can be ambiguous because it can be written in the two versions with absolutely different meaning :

1. *The teacher thanked the student who had given her some flowers*
2. *The teacher thanked the student who had given her some flowers*

In spoken, the first sentence is uttered without juncture, while the second with juncture between the antecedent (NP) and the Adjective clause.

The interpretation of the first sentence, the Adjective clause “ who had given her some flowers ‘ restrict NP “ the student” to give important information ‘ which students” the teacher thanked. It implies that the teacher thanked only some students who had given her some flowers (not those who didn’t give her flowers). The Adjective clause in the second, sentence does not restrict the antecedent the student thus it gives further information which is not needed to indentify the person, (Sinclair 1990 : 363). It means that the teacher thanked all of the students (and all of them gave her flowers).

CONCLUSION

The writer sometimes did not know if a sentence has a clear message or ambiguity. Whether or not we recognize the ambiguity depend on our linguistic knowladge,For English learners, however , it is still not easy to know if a sentence is ambiguous or not. Having adequate proficiency of English, we are aware of the ambiguity, and try to avoid them , if possible. In writing, for example, we need to use

some formal signals to avoid ambiguous sentences.

The five types of ambiguity presented in this paper from the viewpoint of transformational grammar are seven causes of transformational ambiguity in English such as described as follows from the data it can be concluded. Polysemy (Ambiguity) can occur because of seven causes (factors):

1. *Pronunciation*
2. *Grammatical Factor*
3. *Lexical factor*
4. *The influence of foreign language factor*
5. *Language users factor*
6. *The factor of the language itself*
7. *social pressure or needs*

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