CHAPTER II
FRAMEWORK OF THEORIES

A. Language Development and Change

Ohowatun (2007: 16) defines 'the language changes and development as the part of production and perception of utterances, which is slowly, follows the human being development.' The development of natural languages follows clearly discernible processes, which contrary to the claim by Robert T. Pennock in his book 'Tower of Babel', in no way resemble the concept of biological evolution. The changes that have occurred in the Indo-European language family, for example, demonstrate that languages follow a 'downhill' simplification in inflections, etc. by natural processes. The huge 'uphill' growth of languages in their vocabulary and expressiveness only comes about through human intelligent input. Thus, the changes observed in language development are quite different to the processes proposed for biological evolution, so any analogy is completely unfounded.

Language change has been especially the most favoured field in the 19th century (before modern era of linguistic). During the period, the studied is focused on the language history. In this era, the language historians try to explain the change in the similarities found in the lexicon of some languages. The English 'mother' for example is assumed to be a form that evolve from the proto-European word 'mater'. The old form was also believed to have changed into words that show similar forms found in the contemporary Greek and the older language such as Sanskrit and Latin. The below list shown the changes of language by the other language:

Sanskrit	Latin	Greek	English
maatra	mater	mater	mother

The historical studies of language change provided an insight that the phenomenon is gradual and natural. It may also teach that the user of any languages cannot help juts accepting the change. The quotation below presents two views on the nature of language change.

Fists, Victoria Fromklin, et al. (1990) in Jendra, (2010:130) says that 'all living languages change with time.' It is fortunate they do so rather slowly compared to the human life span. It would be inconvenience to have to relearn our native language every twenty years. Second is Lightfoot (1990) in Jendra (2010: 130) who

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says that 'languages, like biological populations, are continually in flux.' Linguistic constructions may increase in frequency or forms may be borrowed, producing novel structures; however, these are necessarily random and unpredictable, giving the language the character of a chaotic system.

1. The Internal and External Factor for Language Changes

Language changes are caused by internal and external reason. Internal reasons refer to the cause from the nature language itself while the external reasons refer to the situation found in the society using the language that trigger the change. The most popular research about external reason argued by William Labov (1966) who studied the language varieties between the lower and higher class speakers in New York mentioning the 'r' sound whether the internal reason for the language changes was the result of some researches from the linguists after Labov.

Based on the research from some linguists, the internal structures of a language tends to change. The changing covers the sound or phonological changing, and the changing in grammar. Example of phonological change is like in the change of the sound of /ŋ/ found in the word such as reading, going, seeing (standard English) into /n/ (no-standard English). The similar of reason motivates a change in the spelling system like in 'colour' into 'color' and 'centre' into 'center'. In the grammar, the irregularity shows the change of a verb like 'wake-woke-woken' or 'go-went-gone'.

The external reason of a language change is referred to the macro-linguistic around the language. These include immigration of the language speakers, technological invention, and introductions, economic values of the language, and political situations. Immigration of people carries the culture. The example is the immigration of people from British to America and Australia, Canada, and some other countries to cause the varieties of the language among them. The technology invention and introduction also affected the language as the word 'mouse' initially refers only to an animal now it refers to a peripheral tool for computer. The other example is the word 'surfing' which is nowadays refer to 'searching or visiting an internet sites', the assumption that English has more economic value also force many people

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learn and use English. The political situation now obliged a leader to master English for an international communication. Those factors are coming from external to cause the language change and development.

2. Types of Language Changes

Language changes can be divided into three types. Sounds Changes, Lexical Changes, and Grammatical Changes.

A. Sound Changes

Sound changes refer to the changes of the word with similar sound in the other languages. Beside that, in the history of English 1400- 1600 have been recorded as the Great Vowel Shift period. It was a period when several sounds of English were changing significantly. We may know it as the Old English and the Modern English. Here below are some examples.

Old English		Modern English
[mu:s]	mouse	[maus]
[hu:s]	house	[haus]
[sow]	saw	[sɔw]
[ʃows]	shoes	[ʃu:s]
[sta:n]	stone	[stoun]

Figure 1. Example of Sound Change

B. Grammatical Changes

The sample of grammatical change is in older English (old and middle) English, words in declarative sentences might be ordered into Subject Object Verb (SOV) but in modern English the common order should be Subject Verb Object (SVO). Here below are the examples.

Se man bone keening sloh. (Old English)
The man slew the king. (Modern English)
Subjects   : *se man*, the man
Verbs   : *sloh*, slew
Object : *bone keening*, the king

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C. Lexical Changes

Among the components of language, the lexicon most commonly undergoes change. The movement of people, the invention of technology, and the prestige of the language has unavoidably caused lexical change. The lexicon changes when new words are formed or borrowed. It is also changes when old words modify the sounds, the spelling, or the meanings. When old words are not used anymore, the lexicon of a language also changes.

New words are often formed to the name a new thing like 'compact disc', 'microprocessor', 'Bluetooth', 'Facebook'. A pure new word in Bahasa for instance is '*bete*' means as bad mood taken from the abbreviation '*bosan total*'. The example of modifying existing word, we can see an English word 'white house' means not only house with white colour but also the House of Representatives. In recent case in can also borrow other language or use proper name as a new word. We can observe an example of '*sushi*' and '*karaoke*' for examples, which are initially come from Japanese but now those words, exist in many other languages including English. Another example is the use of word 'Facebook' now popular as a new word, or people in Thailand usually says 'BTS' as a new word refers to 'Bangkok Transportation System'.

The alteration of the sounds of words is and evidence of lexical change. Silent letters in many modern English words were once in Old English. For example, 'c' in 'chint', (Old English) was pronounced, but when the word was transformed into 'knight' (Modern English) the 'k' is silent. Spelling changes are more noticeable. In Old English, the word 'chance' was spelled 'chauce', the word 'oven' spelled 'ofen'.

The last lexical change is the change in meanings. The meaning can be expanding, narrowing, and shifting (totally change). The word 'holy day' means 'a religious holy day' now it means 'any day when we do not go to work or school'. Then the word 'bird' means 'young bird' to become 'bird in general' Changes in meaning are as common as changes in form. Like the latter, they can be internally or externally motivated. The equivalent to the paradigm in morphology is, in semantics, the word field in which words and their meanings stand in a network of relationships. The alteration of meaning occurs because words are constantly used and what is intended by speakers is

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not exactly the same each time. If a different intention for a word is shared by the speech community and becomes established in usage then a semantic change has occurred. The meanings of most words in many languages have changed greatly during their history.

Language development and changing is possible to create a new language. It is happen like in Pidgin and Creole. A pidgin is a restricted language, which arises for the purposes of communication between two social groups of which one is in a more dominant position than the other does. The less dominant group is the one, which develops the pidgin. Historically, pidgins arose in colonial situations where the representatives of the particular colonial power, officials, tradesmen, sailors, etc., came in contact with natives. The latter developed a jargon when communicating with the former. This resulted in a language on the basis of the colonial language in question and the language or languages of the natives. Such a language was restricted in its range as it served a definite purpose, namely basic communication with the colonists. In the course of several generations, such a reduced form of language can become more complex, especially if it develops into the mother tongue of a group of speakers. This latter stage is that of creolisation. Creoles are much expanded versions of pidgins and have arisen in situations in which there was a break in the natural linguistic continuity of a community, for instance on slave plantations in their early years.

The interest of linguists in these languages has increased greatly in the last few decades. The main reason for this is that pidgins and creoles are young languages. In retracing their development it may be possible to see how new languages can arise. Furthermore, the large number of shared features among widely dispersed pidgins and creoles leads to the conclusion that creoles at least shows characteristics, which are typical of language in the most general sense, the features of older languages, such as complex morphology or intricate phonology, arising due to the action of various forces over a long period of time after the birth of these languages. In type, creoles are all analytic and generally lack complexity in their sound systems.

B. The Development of English

Gordon (2005) in Meyer (2009:20) says 'English is one approximately 6, 900 living language in the word.' https://www.ethnologue.com/statistics/size (retrieved on

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7th April 2015) mentions that English is the third biggest language in the world used by 335 millions people in 101 countries. No wonder if English becomes the International language. One of the factors motivating the development of English is the rapid usage of English users with various mother tongues around the world.

Similar like the other language, the change in English is natural, normal and inevitable. As member of Germanic family of language, the branch of Indo-European language, English develops from Old English into modern English, some change happen in many aspect of language like written, sounds, structure and meaning. Another change is the invention of some new words and the death of others. This dynamic characteristic motivates by internal an external factor. Internal is from the situation between native language user as trigger of the changing and the external is from many people from different mother tongue use English in many countries.

C. Definition and Concept of Neologism

According to The American Heritage Dictionary (AHD) (1992) in Stark (2011: 17) neologism defined as '1. A new word, expression, or usage. 2. The creation of new words or senses.' AHD not mention of a meaning that is unique in a specialized context or of intentional efforts to create the neologism. It is simply a new word that comes about however it comes about. Maryam Monalisa Gharavi in the article, 'NEOLOGISM: HOW WORDS DO THINGS WITH WORDS', Retrieve from http://www.Thewriterview.org defines 'a neologism (from Greek *Neo-*, meaning new and *logos*, meaning speech, utterance) is a blend of existing fragment to forge anew.' In this definition, blending is mentioned as one of the process of neologism creation.

The translation theorist, Peter Newmark (1988: 140) defines neologism as 'newly coined lexical units or existing lexical units that acquire a new sense.' On the other hand, George Yule (2006: 52) defines neologism as 'a new word in our language.' The definitions from the experts above strengthen the definition of neologism that is mainly about the creation of new words and senses through some process. We can make specific character as concept for neologism using two key words: a new word, and a new sense. We can compare a new word into existing dictionary also compare the meaning in dictionary into the real sense in the word

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usage. These criteria will help us to determine whether a word can be categorized as neologism or not.

D. Types of Neologism by Peter Newmark

Peter Newmark (1988) in his book, 'A Textbook of Translation', mentions that there are twelve types of neologism. Each type will refer to the process of how a neologism is formed. The twelve neologisms are old words with new senses, new coinages, Derived words, Abbreviations, Collocations, Eponyms, Phrasal Words, Transferred Words, Words (new and old referents), Acronyms, Pseudo-neologism, and Internationalism. Those twelve types of neologisms are classified in relation with translation theories. Some of them may probably similar like Abbreviations VS Acronyms, Old words with new senses VS words (new and old referents). However, those variables refer to how a new word is formed. Here below is the classification of neologism according to Newmark:

1. Old words with new senses

An existing word in the use of language may refer to another thing out of its existing reference. Newmark (1988) gives example for the term 'gay', which appears to deliberately used by homosexuals to emphasize their normality. Possibly when homosexuality loses all its negative connotations, there will be no need for this sense of 'gay' but it is likely to stay-it has gone into French and German as gay. We cannot go back in language —a colloquial term is not usually replaced by a formal term. It is also similar with the term 'wet' in the sense of (relatively) left-wing Torry opponent of Mrs Thatcher's policies. Therefore, it means it means that an existing word has no permanence sense.

Existing word with new sense is mostly happen in technical term or in particular field. The mentioning of numbering or name of animal in police or military communication is one of the examples that they actually refer to another thing else out of the number and the animal. The term 'war' recently booming in gamers is also not refer to the real war but refer to a 'war' in COC (Clash of Clans) game in Smartphone. Another example is in trading or

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packaging company. The term 'dunnage' is not refer to a wooden bar to wedge something but it refers to every separator used in packaging of goods.

Newmark (1988: 142) says that 'existing collocation with new senses are a translator's trap: usually they are normal descriptive terms, which suddenly become technical term; their meaning sometimes hides innocently behind a more general or figurative meaning.' Practically this is also becomes 'trap' for whoever, the language user. We can comprehend their meaning after entering the context and understanding the cultural factor adopted in a language community used the terms.

2. New coinage

Coinage can be defined as creation of new word or term. Newmark (1988) remains a well known hypothesis that there is no such thing as a brand new word; if a word does not derive from various morphemes then it is more or less phonaestethic or synaestetic. All sounds or phonemes are phonaestetic, have some kind of meaning. Nevertheless the etymology of many words, in particular dialect words, it is not known and can hardly be related to meaningful sounds.

Nowadays the main coinages are brands or trade names like 'Revlon', which can be translated by a selection of various components ('Revlon', 'lipstick', 'fashionable American'). Today we can comprehend if somebody says 'where is your new BMW?' it will directly refer to a car, specifically a sedan. Some word can be created by situation like in Bahasa we know parable word for a prostitute which always changing by the time from '*dongdot*', '*perek*', '*jablay*' until recently '*cabe-cabean*'. Those kinds of words can be called as a coinage.

3. Derived Words

Newmark (1988: 143) defines 'derived words as words derived by analogy from ancient Greek and Latin morphemes usually with suffixes such as '*–ismo*', '*ismus*', '*-ija*', etc. naturalised in the appropriate language.' This word formation mainly employed designated (non-cultural) scientific and technological rather than cultural institutional terms, the advance of these

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internationalism is widespread. Normally they have naturalized suffixes. The examples of derived words are: reprography, *'gaziniere'*, *'montique'*, *'ecosysteme'*, *'polytheism'e*, 'ecology (eco –logos)', 'ergonomics (*ergo – nomos*)', etc.

4. Abbreviations

Newmark (1988) says that abbreviations have always been a common type of pseudo-neologism, probably more common in French than English like, *'fac'*, *'philo'*, *'syma'*, and *'Huma'*. In English, we can see some example of abbreviations like 'CD (compact disc)' and 'TV (television)'. Abbreviation is a shortening method of a word then it creates a new word'

5. Collocations

Newmark (1988:145) defines collocations as 'nouns compound or adjective plus noun.' This is common in the social science and computer language. The written can be separated by space or directly compound or hyphenated. The examples of collocations are 'lead time', 'domino effect', 'clawback', 'cold-calling', 'Walkman', 'jetlag', 'acid rain', 'lateral thinking', 'sunshine industries', 'wishful thinking', etc.

6. Eponyms

Newmark (1988:146) defines Eponyms 'as any derived word from a proper name.' When derive from people's name, the word tends to rise and fall, depend on the popularity or vogue of their referent and ease of composition. When they refer directly to the person, they are translated without difficulty but when if they refer to the referent's ideas or qualities, the translator may have to add some comments like ('in the Niche's philosophy', 'in Habibies' theory', etc). Another example of Eponyms is like 'the airport of John F Kennedy', 'Honda', 'Yamaha', 'Hallyday', 'Beethoven', etc.

7. Phrasal Words

Newmark (1988) says that new Phrasal words are restricted in English's facility in converting verbs to nouns (e.g., 'work-out', 'trade-off',

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'check-out, 'look-alike', 'thermal cut-off', 'knock on (domino) effect', 'iaid back', 'sit-in') and are translated by their semantic equivalence. Form his opinion we can say that phrasal word is a kind of compound but here the word seems to have different relationship between syntax and in compound and it is mostly to form a phrase. We can see example from Carstairs (2002) like in the relationship between noun 'hair' and verb 'restore'. In syntax it must be written 'this substance restores hair' but in compound structure it must be written 'the substance hair restores'.

8. Transferred Words

Newmark (1988: 141) defines transferred words as 'the words keep only sense of their foreign nationality; they are the words whose meanings are least dependent on their contexts.' (Later, if they are frequently used, they change or develop additional senses, and can sometimes no longer be translated back 'straight' into their language origin,) They are likely to be 'media' or 'product' rather than technological neologisms, and given the power, and, given the power of the media, they may be common to several languages, whether they are cultural or have cultural overlaps ('*samizdat*', '*nomenklatura*', '*apparathick*', 'cf. *refusnik*', '*apparat*'], but have to be given a functional – descriptive equivalent for less sophisticated target language readership. Newly imported foodstuffs, clothes ('cagoule', 'Adidas', 'Galini', 'Sari', 'Levi', 'Wrangler'), processes ('Ctandoori'), cultural manifestations ('raga', 'kung fu'), are translated like any other cultural words, therefore usually transferred together with a generic term and the requisite specific detail depending on readership and setting.

9. Words (new and old referents)

Newmark (1988) actually never gives specific criteria for this neologism. We can comprehend this one as another meaning of a word. It is like the name people that are becoming the name of products. When the word is mentioned, there is no more relation to the people but directly to the people. It is also happen in name of products' brands in an abbreviation. The word is directly refers to the products without passing to what doe it stand for.

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10. Acronyms

Acronym is a shortening of some words. Newmark (1988) says that acronyms are frequently created within special topics and designated products, appliances and process e.g. 'QC' for 'quality control'. Acronyms are also for institutions and names of companies like in 'WB' stands for 'Warner Bros'. Sometimes acronyms are created or move into common language for referents that have been in existence for a long time. E.g. "GCHQ' have to change at 'TCR' (i.e., Tottenham Court Road) and these are normally decoded in translation. Acronyms also applied in international institutions like 'ASEAN', 'UNESCO', 'UNICEF', 'OPEC' 'IMF', and 'UN'.

11. Pseudo- Neologism

Newmark (1988:148) defines pseudo- neologism as 'a generic word stands for a specific word,' e.g., *'rapports (d'engrenage)'* – *'gear* ratios'; *'hngiidinaux'* (resorts longitudinaux) – 'longitudinal springs'; *'humerale –'* 'humeral artery'; *'la- Charrue'* – 'The Plough and the Stars'; *'la Trilaterale –'* a private political commission with representative from USA, Western Europe and Japan. Usually this is the process of creation a real new word from other language word.

12. Internationalism

Newmark (1988) concern about internationalism in refer to any kind of English words taken totally or modified form another particular language than to be com English word. The word formation can be from a proper name like 'Mercedes' currently becomes international word of a car brand or another company like 'Mc.D' from 'Mc. Donald'. The widespread of a new word creates the internationalism. In Peter Newmark's theory of Translation actually there is no specific discussion about this neologism process or category but he mentions it in many parts refer to the word adopted or initially taken from another language.

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E. Word Formation Process by George Yule

George Yule (2006) in his book, 'The Study of Language', gives classification of new word formation process, which consists of thirteen types. The ten types are Etymology, Coinage, Borrowing, Compounding, Blending, Clipping, Backformation, Conversion, Acronyms, Derivations, Prefixes and Suffixes, Infixes, and Multiple Process. Referring to the two theorists, the writer selects the thirteen types of new word formation processes from Yule as the basic theory of neologism because those are covered what sated by Newmark. So that in the below explanation there would be fifteen types of new word formation process as the references for the type of neologism.

1. Etymology

Yule (2006:53) mentions that 'Etymology is the study of the origin and history of a word.' A term which, like many of our technical words comes to us through Latin, but has its origins in Greek like (*etymon* 'original form' + *logia* 'study of'), and is not to be confused with entomology, also from Greek (*entomon* 'insect'). When we look closely at the etymologies of less technical words, we soon discover that there are many different ways in which new words can enter the language. We should keep in mind that these processes have been at work in the language for some time and a lot of words in daily use today were, at one time, considered barbaric misuses of the language. It is difficult now to understand the views expressed in the early nineteenth century over the 'tasteless innovation' of a word like handbook, or the horror expressed by a London newspaper in 1909 over the use of the newly coined word 'aviation'. Yet many new words can cause similar outcries as they come into use today. Rather than act as if the language is being debased, we might prefer to view the constant evolution of new words and new uses of old words as a reassuring sign of vitality and creativeness in the way a language is shaped by the needs of its users.

2. Coinage

One of the least common processes of word formation in English is coinage, that is, the invention of totally new terms. The most typical sources

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are invented trade names for commercial products that become general terms (usually without capital letters) for any version of that product. Older examples are 'aspirin', 'nylon', 'vaseline' and 'zipper'; more recent examples are 'kleenex', 'teflon', 'Tylenol' and 'xerox'. It may be that there is an obscure technical origin (e.g. te(tra)-fl(uor)-on) for some of these invented terms, but after their first coinage, they tend to become everyday words in the language.

New words based on the name of a person or a place are called **eponyms**. When we talked about a 'hoover' (or even a 'spangler'), we were using an eponym. Other common eponyms are 'sandwich' (from the eighteenth-century Earl of Sandwich who first insisted on having his bread and meat together while gambling) and 'jeans' (from the Italian city of Genoa where the type of cloth was first made). Some eponyms are technical terms, based on the names of those who first discovered or invented things, such as 'fahrenheit' (from the German, Gabriel Fahrenheit), 'volt' (from the Italian, Alessandro Volta) and 'watt' (from the Scot, James Watt).

3. Borrowing

As Bill Bryson observed in the quotation presented earlier, one of the most common sources of new words in English is the process simply labelled borrowing, that is, the taking over of words from other languages. Throughout its history, the English language has adopted a vast number of words from other languages, including *'croissant'* (French), *'dope'* (Dutch), *'lilac'* (Persian), *'piano'* (Italian), *'pretzel'* (German), *'sofa'* (Arabic), *'tattoo'* (Tahitian), *'tycoon'* (Japanese), *'yogurt'* (Turkish) and *'zebra'* (Bantu).

Other languages, of course, borrow terms from English, as in the Japanese use of *'suupaa'* or *'suupaamaaketto'* ('supermarket') and *'taipuraitaa'* ('typewriter'), Hungarians talking about sport, *'klub'* and *'futbal'*, or the French discussing problems of *le stress*, over a glass of *le whisky*, during *le weekend*.

A special type of borrowing is described as **loan translation** or **calque**. In this process, there is a direct translation of the elements of a word into the borrowing language. Interesting examples are the French *'termgratte-*

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ciel', which literally translates as 'scrape-sky', the Dutch *'wolkenkrabber'* ('cloud scratcher') or the German *'Wolkenkratzer'* ('cloud scraper'), all of which were calques for the English 'skyscraper'. The English word 'superman' is though to be a loan translation of the German *'Ubermensch'*, and the term 'loan word' itself is believed to have come from the German *'Lehnwort'*. Nowadays, some Spanish speakers eat *'perros calientes'* (literally 'dogs hot') or 'hot dogs'. The American concept of 'boyfriend' was a borrowing, with sound modification, into Japanese as *'boyifurendo'*, but as a calque into Chinese as 'male friend' or *'nan pengyu'*.

4. Compounding

In some of those examples we have just considered, there is a joining of two separate words to produce a single form. Thus, *'Lehn'* and *'Wort'* are combined to produce *'Lehnwort'* in German. This combining process, technically known as compounding, is very common in languages such as German and English, but much less common in languages such as French and Spanish. Common English compounds are 'bookcase', 'doorknob', 'fingerprint', 'sunburn', 'textbook', 'wallpaper', 'wastebasket' and 'waterbed'. All these examples are nouns, but we can also create compound adjectives ('good-looking', 'low-paid') and compounds of adjective (fast) plus noun (food) as in a 'fast-food' restaurant or a 'full-time' job.

Aarts (2006: 484) defines 'compounds as words, which are made up of two words.' Yule (2006) says that this very productive source of new terms has been well documented in English and German, but can also be found in totally unrelated languages, such as *Hmong* (spoken in South-East Asia), which combines *'hwj'* ('pot') and *'kais'* ('spout') to produce *'hwjkais'* ('kettle'). Recent creations are *'paj'* ('flower') plus *'kws'* ('corn') for *'pajkws'* ('popcorn') and *'hnab'* ('bag')+ *'rau'* ('put')+ *'ntawv'* ('paper' or 'book') for *'hnabrauntawv'* ('schoolbag').

5. Blending

Yule (2006:55) says that 'the combination of two separate forms to produce a single new term is also present in the process called blending.'

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However, blending is typically accomplished by taking only the beginning of one word and joining it to the end of the other word. In some parts of the USA, there's a product that is used like gasoline, but is made from alcohol, so the 'blended' word for referring to this product is 'gasohol'. To talk about the combined effects of smoke and fog, we can use the word 'smog'. In places where they have a lot of this stuff, they can jokingly make a distinction between 'smog', 'smaze' (smoke + haze) and 'smurk' (smoke + murk). Some other commonly used examples of blending are 'bit' (binary/digit), 'brunch' (breakfast/lunch), 'motel' (motor/hotel), 'telecast' (television/broadcast) and the 'Chunnel' (Channel/tunnel), connecting England and France.

The activity of fund-raising on television that feels like a marathon is typically called a 'telethon', while 'infotainment' (information/entertainment) and 'simulcast' (simultaneous/broadcast) are other new blends from life with television. To describe the mixing of languages, some people talk about 'Franglais' (French/Anglais) and 'Spanglish' (Spanish/English). In a few blends, we combine the beginnings of both words, as in terms from information technology, such as 'telex' (teleprinter/exchange) or 'modem' (modulator/demodulator).

6. Clipping

Yule (2006:55) says 'the element of reduction that is noticeable in blending is even more apparent in the process described as clipping.' In the other words, Clipping is shortening of a polysyllabic word. It forms new words by deleting syllables. This occurs when a word of more than one syllable (facsimile) is reduced to a shorter form ('fax'), usually beginning in casual speech. The term gasoline is still used, but most people talk about 'gas', using the clipped form. Other common examples are 'ad' (advertisement), 'bra' (brassiere), 'cab' (cabriolet), 'condo' (condominium), 'fan' (fanatic), 'flu' (influenza), 'perm' (permanent wave), 'phone', 'plane' and 'pub' (public house). English speakers also like to clip each other's names, as in 'Al', 'Ed', 'Liz', 'Mike', 'Ron', 'Sam', 'Sue' and 'Tom'.

There must be something about educational environments that encourages clipping because so many words get reduced, as in 'chem',

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'exam', 'gym', 'lab', 'math,' 'phys-ed', 'poly-sci', 'prof' and 'typo'. The form is reduced but the meaning is retained is it is so close with the definition from Bas Aarts (2006) who defines clipping refers to the shortening of some word while the original meaning is retained.

A particular type of reduction, favoured in Australian and British English, produces forms technically known as hypocorisms. In this process, a longer word is reduced to a single syllable, then '-y' or '-ie' is added to the end. This is the process that results in 'movie' (moving pictures) and 'telly' (television). It has also produced 'Aussie' (Australian), 'barbie' (barbecue), 'bookie' (bookmaker), 'brekky' (breakfast) and 'hankie' (handkerchief).

7. Backformation

Yule (2006: 56) says that 'a very specialized type of reduction process is known as backformation.' Typically, a word of one type (usually a noun) is reduced to form a word of another type (usually a verb). A good example of backformation is the process whereby the noun television first came into use and then the verb televise was created from it. Other examples of words created by this process are: 'donate' (from 'donation'), 'emote' (from 'emotion'), 'enthuse' (from 'enthusiasm'), 'liaise' (from 'liaison') and 'babysit' (from 'babysitter'). Indeed, when we use the verb 'backform' (Did you know that 'opt' was backformed from 'option'?), we are using a backformation.

One very regular source of backformed verbs in English is based on the pattern worker – work. The assumption seems to have been that if there is a noun ending in '-er' (or something close in sound), then we can create a verb for what that noun '-e'r does. Hence, an editor will edit, a sculptor will 'sculpt' and burglars, peddlers and swindlers will 'burgle', 'peddle' and 'swindle'.

8. Conversion

Yule (2006: 56) says that 'a change in the function of a word, as for example when a noun comes to be used as a verb (without any reduction), is generally known as conversion.' It has a functional shift. Even though there's

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no overt morpheme added, it still resembled morphological derivation because of the change in category and meaning. This is sometimes called zero derivation (as if there is an invisible derivational morpheme). Other labels for this very common process are 'category change' and 'functional shift'. A number of nouns such as 'bottle', 'butter', 'chair' and 'vacation' have come to be used, through conversion, as verbs: 'We bottled the home-brew last night'; 'Have you buttered the toast?'; 'Someone has to chair the meeting'; 'They're vacationing in Florida'. These conversions are readily accepted, but some examples, such as the noun impact being used as a verb, seem to impact some people's sensibilities rather negatively.

The conversion process is particularly productive in modern English, with new uses occurring frequently. The conversion can involve verbs becoming nouns, with 'guess', 'must' and 'spy' as the sources of 'a guess', 'a must' and 'a spy'. Phrasal verbs ('to print out', 'to take over') also become nouns ('a printout', 'a takeover'). One complex verb combination ('want to be') has become a new noun, as in *He isn't in the group, he's just a 'wannabe'*. Verbs ('see through', 'stand up') also become adjectives, as in 'see-through material' or 'a stand-up comedian'. Or adjectives, as in a 'dirty floor', an 'empty room', 'some crazy ideas' and 'those nasty people', can become the verbs 'to dirty' and 'to empty', or the nouns 'a crazy' and 'the nasty'. Some compound nouns have assumed adjectival or verbal functions, exemplified by the 'ball park appearing' in a 'ball-park figure' or asking someone 'to ball-park' an estimate of the cost. Other nouns of this type are 'carpool', 'mastermind', 'microwave', and 'quarterback', which are all regularly used as verbs.

Other forms, such as 'up and down', can also become verbs, as in *They're going to up the price of oil* or *We downed a few beers at the Chimes*. It is worth noting that some words can shift substantially in meaning when they change category through conversion. The verb 'to doctor' often has a negative sense, not normally associated with the source noun 'a doctor'. A similar kind of reanalysis of meaning is taking place with respect to the noun 'total' and the verb 'run around', which do not have negative meanings. However, after conversion, if you 'total' (= verb) your car, and your insurance

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company gives you the 'runaround' (= noun), then you will have a double sense of the negative.

9. Acronyms

Yule (2006: 57) says that 'acronyms are new words formed from the initial letters of a set of other words.' These can be forms such as 'CD' ('compact disk') or 'VCR' ('video cassette recorder') where the pronunciation consists of saying each separate letter. More typically, acronyms are pronounced as new single words, as in 'NATO', 'NASA' or 'UNESCO'. These examples have kept their capital letters, but many acronyms simply become everyday terms such as 'laser' ('light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation'), 'radar' ('radio detecting and ranging'), 'scuba' ('self-contained underwater breathing apparatus') and 'zip' ('zone improvement plan') code. You might even hear talk of a 'snafu', which is reputed to have its origins in 'situation normal, all fouled up', though there is some dispute about the appropriate f-word in there.

Names for organizations are often designed to have their acronym represent an appropriate term, as in 'mothers against drunk driving' (MADD) and 'women against rape' (WAR). Some new acronyms come into general use so quickly that many speakers do not think of their component meanings. Innovations such as the 'ATM' ('automatic teller machine') and the required 'PIN' ('personal identification number') are regularly used with one of their elements repeated, as in I sometimes forget my 'PIN' number when I go to the 'ATM' machine.

10. Derivations

Yule (2006) says that derivations are the most common word formation process to be found in the production of new English words. It is accomplished by means of a large number of small 'bits' of the English language which are not usually given separate listings in dictionaries. These small 'bits' are generally described as affixes. Some familiar examples are the elements 'un-', 'mis-', 'pre-', '-ful', '-less', '-ish', '-ism' and '-ness' which

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appear in words like 'unhappy', 'misrepresent', 'prejudge', 'joyful', 'careless', 'boyish', 'terrorism' and 'sadness'.

11. Prefixes and suffixes

Yule (2006) says that prefix is the affix added in the beginning (e.g. un-). Suffix is the affix added in the end of the word (e.g. '–ish'). All English words formed by this derivational process have either prefixes or suffixes, or both. Thus, 'mislead' has a prefix, 'disrespectful' has both a prefix and a suffix, and 'foolishness' has two suffixes.

12. Infixes

According to Yule, (2006: 58) infix is 'an affix that is incorporated inside another word.' It is possible to see the general principle at work in certain expressions, occasionally used in fortuitous or aggravating circumstances by emotionally aroused English speakers: 'Hallebloodylujah!' 'Absogoddamlutely!' and 'Unfuckinbelievable!'. In the film 'Wish You Were Here', the main character expresses her aggravation (at another character who keeps trying to contact her) by screaming Tell him *I've gone to 'Singabloodypore!* 'The expletive may even have an infixed element, as in 'godtripledammit!'.

We could view these 'inserted' forms as a special version of infixing in English. However, a much better set of examples can be provided from *Kamhmu*, a language spoken in South-East Asia.

	Verb	Noun	
('to drill')	*see*	*srnee*	('a drill')
('to chisel')	*toh*	*trnoh*	('a chisel')
('to eat with a spoon')	*hip*	*hrniip*	('a spoon')
('to tie')	*hoom*	*hrnoom*	('a thing with which to tie')

From these examples, we can see that there is a regular pattern whereby the infix '-*rn*- ' is added to verbs to form corresponding nouns. If this pattern is generally found in the language and we know that the form *krnap* is the *Kamhmu* noun for 'tongs', then we can work out the corresponding verb 'to grasp with tongs'. According to Merrifield *et al.* (1962), the source of these examples, it is *kap.*

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13. Multiple Processes

Although we have concentrated on each of these word-formation processes in isolation, it is possible to trace the operation of more than one process at work in the creation of a particular word. For example, the term 'deli' seems to have become a common American English expression via a process of first borrowing *'delicatessen'* (from German) and then clipping that borrowed form. If someone says that *problems with the project have 'snowballed'*, the final word can be analyzed as an example of compounding in which 'snow' and 'ball' were combined to form the noun 'snowball', which was then turned into a verb through conversion. Forms that begin as acronyms can also go through other processes, as in the use of 'lase' as a verb, the result of backformation from 'laser'. In the expression 'waspish attitudes', the acronym 'WASP' ('white Anglo-Saxon protestant') has lost its capital letters and gained a suffix (-ish) in the derivation process.

An acronym that never seems to have had capital letters comes from 'young urban professional', plus the '-ie' suffix, as in hypocorism, to produce the word 'yuppie' (first recorded in 1984). The formation of this new word, however, was helped by a quite different process, known simply as **analogy**, whereby new words are formed to be similar in some way to existing words. 'Yuppie' was made possible as a new word by analogy with the earlier word 'hippie' and another short lived analogy 'yippie'. The word 'yippie' also had an acronym basis ('youth international party') and was used for some students in the USA who were protesting against the war in Vietnam. One joke has it that 'yippies' just grew up to be 'yuppies' and the process continues. Another analogy, with the word 'yap' ('to make shrill noises'), helped label some of the noisy young professionals as 'yappies'.

Many of these new words can, of course, have a very brief life-span. Perhaps the generally accepted test of the 'arrival' of recently formed words in a language is their published appearance in a dictionary. However, even this may not occur without protests from some conservative voices, as Noah Webster found when his first dictionary, published in 1806, was criticized for citing words like 'advocate' and 'test' as verbs, and for including such 'vulgar' words as 'advisory' and 'presidential'. It would seem that Noah had a

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keener sense than his critics of which new word forms in the language were going to last.

F. Word Structure and Meaning

All words are composed of one or more morphemes. According to Meyer, (2009:152) 'a morpheme is considered the smallest unit of meaning.' Another theorist, Yule, (2006: 63) defines morpheme as 'a minimal unit of meaning or grammatical function.' The example is in the morpheme, 'dog, and 'bird, which specifies a particular kind of animals. Units of grammatical, function include forms used to indicate past tense or plural, for example. In the sentence 'The police reopened the investigation', the word 'reopened' consists of three morphemes. One minimal unit of meaning is open, another minimal unit of meaning is 're-' (meaning 'again') and a minimal unit of grammatical function is '-ed' (indicating past tense). The word 'tourists' also contains three morphemes. There is one minimal unit of meaning tour, another minimal unit of meaning '-ist' (marking 'person who does something'), and a minimal unit of grammatical function '-s' (indicating plural).

There are free morphemes, that is, morphemes that can stand by themselves as single words, for example, 'open' and 'tour'. In morphological theory, this kind of morpheme is also called as stem. There are also bound morphemes, which are those forms that cannot normally stand alone and are typically attached to another form, exemplified as 're-', '-ist', '-ed', '-s'. The free morphemes divide into two categories, lexical morphemes and functional morphemes. The first category is that set of ordinary nouns, adjectives and verbs that we think of as the words that carry the 'content' of the messages we convey. These free morphemes are called lexical morphemes and some examples are: 'girl', 'man', 'house', 'tiger', 'sad', 'long', 'yellow', 'sincere', 'open', 'look', 'follow', 'break'. We can add new lexical morphemes to the language rather easily, so they are treated as an 'open' class of words.

Other types of free morphemes are called functional morphemes Examples are 'and', 'but', 'when', 'because', 'on', 'near', 'above', 'in', 'the', 'that', 'it', 'them'. This set consists largely of the functional words in the language such as conjunctions prepositions, articles and pronouns. Because we almost never add new functional morphemes to the language, they are described as a 'closed' class of words.

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Word structure always deals with how a word is formed by the morphological process mainly affixation. Word structure is formed by the combination of a morpheme with other morphemes. The terminology leas into two kinds of affixations named derivation and inflexion. Derivation is the additional morphemes into the stem to form words with not only the meaning change but also different grammatical category from the stem. For example morpheme '-ness' changes the adjective 'good' to the noun 'goodness'. The noun 'care' can become the adjectives 'careful' or 'careless' by the addition of the derivational morphemes '-ful' or '-less'. On the other hand, inflexion is the process of additional morpheme to the stem not used to produce new words in the language, but rather to indicate aspects of the grammatical function of a word, usually plural and singular, past tense status, comparative or possessive.

Yule, (2006) mentions that English has only eight inflectional morphemes (or 'inflections'), illustrated in the following sentences.

Jim's two sisters are really different.
One likes to have fun and is always laughing.
The other liked to read as a child and has always taken things seriously.
One is the loudest person in the house and the other is quieter than a mouse.

From these examples, we can see that two of the inflections, '-'s' (possessive) and '–s' (plural), are attached to nouns. There are four inflections attached to verbs, '-s' (3rd person singular), '-ing' (present participle), '-ed' (past tense) and '-en' (past participle). There are two inflections attached to adjectives: '-est' (superlative). and '-er' (comparative). In English, all the inflectional morphemes are suffixes.

Noun + -'s, -s
Verb + -s, -ing, -ed, -en
Adjective + -est, -er

There is some variation in the form of these inflectional morphemes. For example, the possessive sometimes appears as '-s' (those boys' bags) and the past participle as '-ed' (they have finished).

If the study of word structure called as morphology, the study of word meaning is called as semantics. Lexical semantics dealt with meaning inherent in the words. While practically meaning of words can derived from the social context, in which the words are uttered. The study of this word meaning related with the word in use or pragmatics. Both of the two aspects would be critical and placed as the core of

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language where a word has lexical meaning and pragmatics meaning. For most people, word meanings are most closely associated with dictionaries, a general reference guide for meaning and other matters, such as spelling, that people consult from their earliest years in school through adulthood.

Meyer (2009) says that in addition to having meaning, words also have a pointing function commonly referred to as deixis. As an illustration of the pointing function of language, consider the two utterances below:

Ray Magliozzi: Don't drive like my brother
Tom Magliozzi: Don't drive like my brother

These statements occurred at the end of a call-in show on car repairs broadcast on National Public Radio in the United States. They were uttered by the two hosts of the show, who are brothers. Although the two utterances contain exactly the same words, they are not redundant because while the phrase 'my brother' has the same meaning in both utterances, it has two different referents: two different individuals in the external world to which the phrase refers, or points. The ability of words to refer is known as referential deixis. Two other types of deixis – spatial and temporal deixis – specify how words can situate language in space and time.

Yule (2006) introduces the other concept of word meaning, which is conceptual and associative meaning. When we investigate the meaning of words in a language, we are normally interested in characterizing the conceptual meaning and less concerned with the associative meaning of the words. Conceptual meaning covers those basic, essential components of meaning that are conveyed by the literal use of a word. Some of the basic components of a word like 'needle' in English might include 'thin, sharp, steel instrument'. These components would be part of the conceptual meaning of needle. However, different people might have different associations or connotations attached to a word like needle. They might associate it with 'pain', or 'illness', or 'blood', or 'drugs', or 'thread', or 'knitting', or 'hard to find', and these associations may differ from one person to the next. These types of associations are not treated as part of the word's conceptual meaning. In a similar way, some people may associate the expression low-calorie, when used to describe a product, with 'healthy', but this is not part of the basic conceptual meaning of the expression (i.e. 'producing a small amount of heat or energy'). Poets, novelists, advertisers and lovers

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may be very interested in using words in such a way that certain associative meanings are evoked and literary critics often write about this aspect of language use.

G. Dimension Meaning of Words

The theory about the dimension meaning of words will refer to Kreidler, (1998) in his book 'Introduction to Semantics', where he separates the discussion into several sub discussion. Here the writer would refer to reference and denotation, connotation, and lexical and grammatical meaning of words. Kreidler (1998: 42) mentions that 'anything meaningful in a language is a linguistics expression.' Units of meaning consists of meaning: morphemes (which may be less than a word), lexemes (roughly, words and idioms), and sentence. Every lexeme or word is a combination of form and meaning. Generally, we can recognize three aspects of meaning in lexeme; the relation to phenomena outside language, the relation to people's attitude and feelings and the relation to the other lexemes.

1. Reference and denotation

We are likely to think that language consist of a large number of words and each of these words has direct correlation with something outside language, which is its meaning. In addition, since, if we communicate with one another through language, it must be that we all have the same 'idea' or 'concept' associated with each word. We can relate the term 'word' and 'concept' or 'idea' here as the essential things in language. We can remind Bühler, (1934/1990) in the Organon model who says that a sign is a symbol because it refers to the object or states of affair. Here we can understand that a word is a symbol represents something outside of language or what we called as idea or concept.

According to Edward Sapir (1922: 7), 'language is defined as a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of system voluntarily produced symbols.' In line with that, Dr. Boas says in Ogden and Richards, (1989: 7) that 'all speech, explicitly, is intended to serve for the communication of idea.' Referring to those argumentations, it is very important to understand language in this two point of view, the 'symbol' which is the word and the 'idea' which is the meaning.

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Ogden and Richards (1989) developed a mentalistic theory about meaning, an attempt to explain meaning in term of what is in people's mind. What they mention as word here is called as 'symbol' and the idea of the word called as 'thought or reference' while the object called as 'referent'. They mention that there is relation between symbol and thought, and between thought and referent or object but there is no relation between symbol and the referent (arbitrariness) other than the indirect one, which consists in its being used by someone to stand for a referent. The figure below shows Odgan and Richard theory about the relation between symbol, thought and referent.
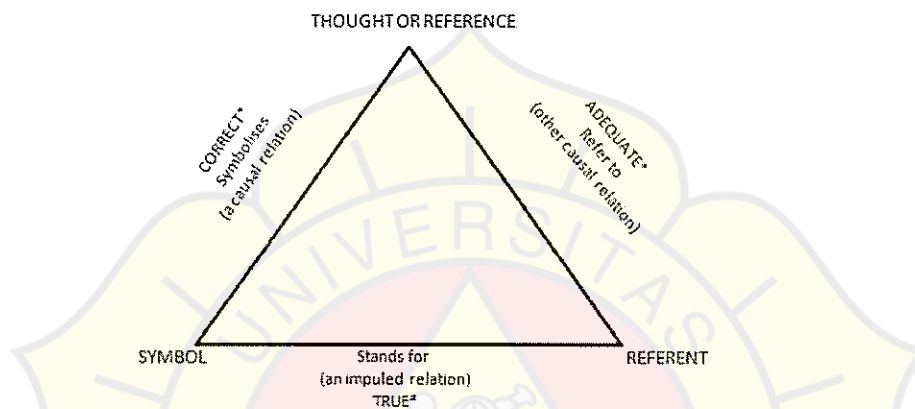
Figure 2. Ogden and Riched Mentalistic Diagram

Between a thought and a symbol, there is causal relation hold. When we speak, the symbolism we employ is caused partly by the reference we are making and partly by social and physiological factors, the purpose for which we are making the reference, the proposed effect of our symbol on the other persons, and our won attitude. When we hear what is said, the symbols both cause us to perform an act of reference and assume an attitude, which will, according to the circumstances, be more or less similar to the act and the attitude of the speaker.

Between the thought and the referent there is also a relation, more or less direct (as when we think about or attend a coloured surface we see), or indirect (as when we 'think of' or 'refer to' Napoleon). In which case there may be a very long chain sign-situations intervening between the act and its referent: word- historian-contemporary record – eye- witness – referent (Napoleon).

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When you hear or read a word, we often from a mental picture of what the word represent, and so we are apt to equate 'concept' or 'thought' with a mental picture. When hearing the words- 'DOOR', 'Revolving door', 'folding door', 'sliding door', your imagination will draw kinds of mental pictures. You can use these words successfully in a large number of situations because you have the knowledge that makes this possible. Ogden and Richard (1989:23) say that 'the meaning of words had no longer the same relation to things, but was changed by men as they thought proper.'

Considering the meaning aspect, we need to distinguish between denotation and reference. Kreidler, (1998:43) makes definition that 'reference is the relation between a language expression such as this door, both door, the dog, another dog and whatever the expression pertains to in a particular situations of language use, including what a speaker may imagine.' Meanwhile denotation is the potential of a word like door or dog to enter into such language expression. Reference is the way speakers and the hearers use an expression successfully; denotation is the knowledge they have that makes their use useful.

Kreidler in his book 'Introducing English Semantics' (1998: 44) says that 'the trouble with a mentalistic theory is, first, that not all words can be associated with mental images and some words have range of meaning greater than any single association.' The bigger problem with a mentalistic theory is that we have no access to other people's mind. However here the analyzing process of a word reference meaning is doable by placing it into larger unit, sentence. Kreidler (1998: 44) strengthen this concept by saying that 'meanings are expressed in units-sentence- the larger than words.'

2. Connotation

The word dog has a certain denotation, the possibility of entering into numerous referring expressions such as the underlined in the following:

1.   *This dog is a Dalmatian*
2.   *My children have just acquired a dog*
3.   *Several dogs were fighting over a bone*

The meaning of dog includes the attitudes of a society and of individuals' aspect. It would be wrong to think that a purely biological definition of the lexeme dog is a sufficient account of its meaning. Part of this meaning is its connotation, the affective or emotional association it elicits, which clearly need not be the same for all people who know and use the word.

If a denotation identifies the central aspect of word meaning, which everybody generally aggress about. Connotation refers to the personal aspect of meaning, the emotional associations that the word arouses. Connotations vary according to the experience of individuals but, because people do have common experiences, some words have shared connotations.

3. Lexical and grammatical meanings

The sentence also has several kinds of grammatical meanings. Every language has a grammatical system and different language have somewhat different grammatical systems. Example in the sentence 'a dog barked', which has the same referring expression and predicate. The grammatical system of English makes possible the expression of meanings like these:

Statement vs question:
A dog barked   Did a dog bark?
Affirmative vs negative:
A dog barked   A dog did not bark.   Nodog barked.
Past vs present:
A dog barked   A dog barks
Singular vs plural:
A dog barked   some dogs barked
Indefinite vs definite:
A dog barked   The dog barked

Grammatical meanings, then are expressed in various ways; the arrangement of words (referring expression before the predicate, for instance), by grammatical affixes like the '-s' attached to the noun 'dog' and the '-ed' attached to the verb 'bark', and by grammatical words, or function words, like the ones illustrated in these sentences: 'do' (in the from did), not, a, some, and the. Now let's turn to the 'dog' and 'bark'. Their meanings are not grammatical but lexical, with associations outside language. They are lexemes.

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H. Company Profile of Toyota

We can comprehend Toyota as a company today by knowing the history. Here below is the Toyota History of Toyota retrieved from the official website on 16th April 2015, http://www.toyota-global.com/company/history_of_toyota/1950-1959.html. It is started when Sakichi Toyoda was born in 1867. In 1890, he invented Toyoda handloom. In 1924, Sakichi Toyoda improved his inventions by completing the loom to be the non-stop shuttle change type Toyoda automatic loom (Type G). Sakichi Toyoda's son, Kiichiro Toyoda (born in 1894), travelled to Europe and the United States to investigate automobiles. In the same year, The British Company Platt Brothers gained the automatic loom patent rights. In 1930, Kiichiro Toyoda started research into gasoline-powered engines and in 1933, the Automobile Department was established in Toyoda Automatic Loom Works, Ltd.

In 1935, the first factory, Hinode Motors (currently Aichi Toyota) started operation. The next one year in 1936 Toyota Logo was established also at the same time Toyoda model AA Sedan, AB phaeton and GA truck were announced and the Toyota car G1 truck firstly exported from Japan. In 1937 Toyota Motor Co., Ltd. was established. In 1938, Koromo Plant (currently Honsha Plant) started operations and produced GB truck with 'Just-in-time' system on a full-scale basis. In 1940, Toyoda Seiko, Ltd. (currently Aichi Steel Works, Ltd.) and Toyoda Physical and Chemical Research Institute are established. In 1941, Toyota Machine Works Co., Ltd. was established to produce AE passenger car. In 1943, Okai Hikoki Co., Ltd. (currently Aisin Seiki Co., Ltd.) was established and the production of AC passenger car and KC truck started. In 1945, Toyota Shatai Kogyo Co., Ltd. (currently Toyota Auto Body Co., Ltd.) was established. In 1946, Kanto Electric Auto Manufacturing, Ltd. (currently Kanto Auto Works, Ltd.) was established.

In 1947, the production of BM truck, SB small truck and SA compact passenger car started. In that year, Toyota achieves 100,000 units Toyota vehicle, which were domestically in Japan. In 1948, Nisshin Tsusho Co., Ltd. (currently Toyota Tsusho Corporation) was established. In 1948, Nagoya Rubber Co., Ltd. (currently Toyoda Gosei Co., Ltd.) and Nippondenso Co., Ltd. (currently DENSO CORPORATION) was established parallel with the production of SD compact passenger car.

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During 1950-1959, Toyota built some new factories in Japan, USA and Brazil. Toyota also started producing BJ Toyota Jeep (currently Land Cruiser), some types of small trucks. During 1960 -1969, Toyota continued to enhance its business by building new factories inside and outside Japan. Toyota started to implement Total Quality Control with Idea Suggestion System. The achievement during this period was the launching of sedan model, Corolla and 2000GT. During 1970-1979, Toyota continued to improve its operation and established better quality of the products. In this period, some new model like Toyota Celica, Tercel and Corsa was introduced.

During 1980-1989, some development happened when Toyota Motor Co., Ltd. and Toyota Motor Sales Co., Ltd. merge into Toyota Motor Corporation. A big achievement when Toyota-General Motors joint venture in the United States, known as New United Motor Manufacturing, Inc. (NUMMI), and Toyota built new factory at Kentucky an in Europe. This period was also the time for Toyota to introduce Lexus in US. In this period, Toyota also built Toyota Technological Institute, Toyota Automobile Museum and Toyota Memorial Hospital in Japan.

During 1990-1999, Toyota introduced some new models of car like Prius, Estime, Altezza, and Vitz. Beside that, Toyota continued to enhance its business by starts new operation in some new factories in Japan, UK, and India. In this period, TMC was listed on the New York and London Stock Exchanges. In 2000-2009, Toyota enhanced the business in financial service and housing, establishing new cooperation with some other affiliation by starting production of automobile in China, Chez, France, Poland, Texas, Alabama., Guangzhou, Russia, Australia, North America, and Canada. Toyota car's model also became rich by some new models in this period like Camry, Rush, wish, Sienta. Passo, Porte, Isis, Mark X, Collora Axio, Auris and Blade. Toyota also introduced new hybrid technology. In the period of 2010-2013, Toyota introduced sport car Toyota 86, keep continuing development new cars' model and hybrid technology and other environment –friendly technology. Toyota also got agreement for further collaboration with BMW.

Nowadays Toyota has been being a big multinational company with TMC (Toyota Motor Corporation) in Japan as Mother Company. TMC has around 338, 875 employees as March 2014. Toyota now has 16 group companies in Japan. Each of group also has some affiliation in the countries where Toyota has car manufacturing. Toyota focuses on production and sales of Automobile in Japan, North America,

America Latin, Europe, Africa, Oceania and Asia including in Indonesia. Toyota also enhances the business into other sector like financial service, housing, marine, and biotechnology.

In Indonesia, Toyota group consist of Toyota Motor, Daihatsu Motor, Hino Motor, and Sugity. Toyota shareholder in Indonesia currently consists of 95% for TMC and Astra International Tbk. 5%. Toyota has five main dealers consists of: PT Astra International, PT New Ratna Motor, PT Agung Automall, PT Hasjrat Abadi, NV Hadji Kalla Trd.Co. Toyota Indonesia divides main business as PT Toyota Motor Manufacturing Indonesia (TMMIN) focus in production and export and PT Toyota Astra Motor (TAM) focuses on domestic sales.

Toyota Indonesia has one main office and two factories in Sunter North Jakarta. The other two factories are located in Karawang, West Java. In this year, the third factory in Karawang is on progress of establishment. Following the progress of new investment this year, Toyota Indonesia has commitment to keep dominant market share in Indonesian domestic market, enhancing CKD and CBU export and basis of component in Asia Pacific region. With around 9.000 people of Toyota employees in Indonesia, the company commits to serve always better car with the art of manufacturing using Toyota core value, *kaizen* and people development.

I. Biography of Mr. Akio Toyoda
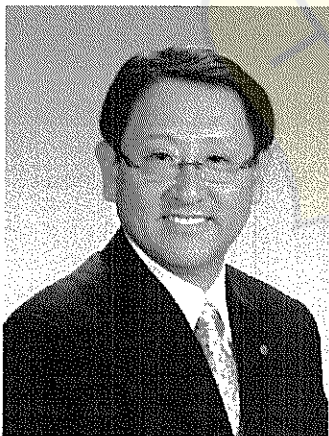
The biography of Mr. Akio Toyoda is according to http://toyotanews.pressroom.toyota.com retrieved on 16th April 2015. Mr. Akio Toyoda is the current President and Member of the Board Toyota Motor Corporation. He was born on 3rd of May 1956. He graduated from Keio University with a degree in law in April 1979 and from Babson College in the United States with a master degree in business administration in 1982. He joint Toyota Motor Corporation (TMC) in April 1984.

Mr. Toyoda's career had included postings in every phase of automotive operations, including production, marketing and product development, both in Japan and internationally. Outside Japan, he served as an executive vice president and board

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member at Toyota's production joint venture with General Motors in California, New United Motor Manufacturing, Inc. (NUMMI), starting in April 1998. In January 2000, he returned to Japan and named to TMC's Board of Directors in June of that year. In that capacity he took on the creation and supervision of gazoo.com, a website that contains dozens of virtual shops for consumer goods and services, and provided information about new and used vehicles. Also during this time, he supervised domestic marketing operations, operations for the Americas and production management consulting.

In June 2001, Mr. Toyoda became the chief officer of the Asia & China Operations Centre, and in June 2002, he assumed the position of managing director. In June 2003, Mr. Toyoda was made a senior managing director, and, in January 2005, he became chief officer of both the China Operations Group and the Asia, Oceania & Middle East Operations Group. In June 2005, he became an executive vice president and a representative director, in which capacity he is responsible for IT and ITS, quality, product management, purchasing, Japan and overseas sales, and overseas operations. Since June 2009, Mr. Toyoda has becoming the president of TMC.

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