CHAPTER II

AN OVERVIEW OF SEMANTICS

2.1 Semantics Theory

Semantics is generally defined as the study of meaning. It is concerned with the sentences and other objects linguistics expressed, not with the arrangement of their syntactic parts or with their pronunciation. The word semantics comes from the Greek word, *Semantikos* mean “significant”; *Semainein* mean “to show”, “signify” or “indicated by a sign”; from *Sema* means “sign”. The study of semantics includes the study of how meaning is constructed, interpreted, clarified, obscured, illustrated and paraphrased.

Modern linguists assumed that meanings can be represented in some fashion just as sounds can be represented in a phonetic alphabet and that a grammar of a language should enumerate that rules that enable the speakers of the language to match certain Semantics Representation to certain Phonetic Representations. Generative grammar postulated the existence of Semantics Representations: linguist began to suggest what they might look like.

Linguist have come to recognize and concede the force of this objections. The need for a theory of reference is apparent, though there is no consensus on what such a theory should look like. In practice, some principles have been suggested couched procedures for finding referents. Analyzing a term into a component breaks the referent-finding procedure down into sub procedures—though rather artificially. If the sense of *boy* is given as HUMAN and MALE and NOT MATURE, then there are three determinations to be made, though the actual procedures would probably overlap here (i.e. MALE determined in relation to HUMAN, NOT MATURE partially in relation to MALE). Also, one might be content with clues not directly coded by the defitional components (does he act like a boy? Dress like a boy?). in fact, the line between
referential (or interpretive) procedure and defitional component is hard to draw: some define MALE as HAVING SEX ORGANS FOR BEGGETING PROGENY-or is this a referential procedure? (a definition is said to be operationalized when the outcome of some referential procedure is the sole criterion—“acids is what turn litmus paper red.”) How are the senses we have described operationalized—or are they?) it is through this contact with reality that material can become associated with words, or semanticized as a new sense:”Leslie is a boy no more—he shaved for the first time today.”

Leech (1974:ix) says, “Semantics is central to the study of communication; and as communication becomes more and more a crucial factor in social organization, the need to understand it becomes more and more pressing. Semantics is also at the centre of the study of human mind-thought process, cognition and conceptualization.” Meaning is inseparable part of language, therefore semantics has been part of linguistics. Semantics is the study of meaning, so meaning becomes the central to the study of communication. The process of human attempts to comprehend the nature of meaning also involves the mental ability by the use the reasoning and perception.

Moreover Leech explain that the goal of semantics is to explain what underlies the use of the words means and related term in English and other languages. The word means is by no means as hopelessly vague and confusing as some philosophers, linguists and literary critics have sought to show. The distinction between these senses is admittedly difficult to draw, as, indeed, are most of demarcation lines in linguistics.

The subject of semantics by a method of elimination informally paraphrased as follow:

- the aim of linguistics is to give an account of a person’s mastery of his native tongue,
• semantics has to account for those aspects of this mastery not accounted for its grammar,
• the following skills fall into the category that is mentioned in the second point and are therefore the concern of semantics.

First is the ability to perceive ambiguities in sentences, second is the ability to detect semantics anomalies, and the last is the ability to match sentences of like meaning.

Semantics has been an interested object of study of the scholars beside the linguists. It has a close relation to such other discipline as philosophy, psychology, sociology and anthropology.

Philosophy is closely related to semantics because the nature of the world and truth which become the contemplation of philosophy is represented through the meaning of language. Meanwhile, the contemplation or thinking cannot be done without language as its medium.

Psychology element as thought, reasoning and cognition can not be disregarded in the process of planning, organizing and understanding meaning through the linguistics codes. Psychology attempts to comprehend the psychological symptom which is shown by people either verbally or non-verbally. Semantics deals with the meaning of language in the scope of human or world experience, but psychology deals with the psychology symptom in the scope of human thought. For example, one who has a psychological disorder says, “i am driving the car” while in fact he is watching a car racing. A semantic analyzes the meaning of I, driving and car racing in linguistics scope (I is the first person singular, drive is an activity of operating the mechanism and control like a vehicle, car racing is a kind of race) while a psychologist attempts to find out the psychological damage of the person which make him says driving instead of watching.
Sociology has something to do with semantics because certain expression and utterances indicate the identities or characteristics of a particular social group of person in a community. And at last anthropology needs semantics because analysis of meaning in a language can provide the cultural classification of the language users. For example, one who says *stupid* instead of *dumb*, *intelligent*, instead of *brainy* or *affluent* instead of *rich* may be considered as a well-educated person because language he used is standard and polite language.

There are some basic principles in semantics theory; Leech states that it has been common in linguistics to consider the nature empirical in black and white terms. The choice has been presented between relying entirely on corpus evidence at one extreme and relying heavily, if not exclusively, on the introspective evidence at the other.

The statement about semantics is the study of meaning is probably the only statement about the subject that would subscribe to, and disagreement begins whit what is properly with meaning. Notheless, a number of linguists have in recent years come to a shared understanding of what they would like to explain. Essentially, they propose to explicate the knowledge speaker must have to be able to make the following judgments about words and sentences of the language:

- That many words are ambiguous over more than one sense and hence that some sentences containing them can be taken more than one way:
  - He dusted the plants (‘put it on’ or ‘took it off’)
  - She watered them (‘diluted’ or ‘nourished’)

- That various words in certain combination are incongruous or anomalous:
  - They amused the tulips.
  - Green ideas sleep furiously.
• That certain combination are **contradictory**:
  
  Colorless red fabric.
  
  Accidentally chase.

• That certain combination are **redundant**:
  
  Intentionally murder
  
  Male uncle
  
  Scrutinize carefully
  
  Circumnavigate around

• That certain words share one or more elements of meaning-they are related in meaning:
  
  Chase, folow, pursue
  
  Embezzle, pilfer, filch, shoplift

• That a special case of relatedness exists where some words are more specific than more general words:
  
  Parent-father
  
  Cut-snip
  
  Take-steal-embezzle

• That sentences have logical relation to other sentences-some **entail** other sentences:
  
  She killed him. He died.

  Some sentences are **equivalent in truth-value**:
  
  The book is underneath the pillow. The pillow is on top of the book.

• That an element of meaning, while not strictly part of the meaning of a word, is usually **associated** with it, or sometimes associated with it:
Tigers are (usually) fierce.

One assumes that making these judgments draws on knowledge of the meaning of the words involved (plus knowledge about how these meanings are combined in sentences), and insofar as speakers agree in their judgments of particular cases (and they do not always) this knowledge is the same in the mind of each speaker.

2.2 Scope of Semantics

Semantics is the study of the linguistics meaning. It is not concerned with what sentences and other linguistics object expressed. It is not concerned with the arrangements of syntactic parts, or with their pronunciations. Semantics could cover more extensive areas, from structure and function of language as well as the interrelationship with other discipline.

The study of linguistics, as one essential requirement of science, is empirical. Thus semantics which is one of linguistics subfields should be studied empirically. It is an absolute requirement of a scientific study that the statement should be verifiable by its theory or through observation. In order to meet the empirical requirement of science, semantic should deal with generalization not specific instances. Semantics theory concerns the semantics structure of any particular natural language or languages to the exclusion of others.

There are two way major approaches to the way in which meaning in language is studied. The first is linguistics approach, it concern with the way in which meaning in a language is structured. The second is philosophical approach; it investigates the relation between linguistics expression, such as the words of language, and person, things, and events in the world to which these words refer.
2.2.1 Sameness and Difference of Meaning

When people speak of the meaning of the word, they are usually speaking about one of its senses (corresponding roughly to the numbered subdivisions of a dictionary entry), usually what they believe is the primary or central sense. They do not mean to generalize on what all the tenses have in common. It is not always obvious, however, how many different sense should be discriminated for a word, or whether a word in two sentences is being used in the same or different sense (or whether indeed, it is the same word). Linguists have developing “gapping” and “pronominalization” test based on the fact that the words can be gapped and pronominalized in conjoined sentences only when they are used in the same sense. When they are used in different sense, the fact is that of a pun. For example:

*John watered the plants, Mary watered the lawn.*

Can be gapped to

*John watered the plants, and Mary, the lawn.*

But the effect of

*John watered the plants, and Mary, the drinks.*

In mildly humorous, giving rise to the conclusion that water in *water the drinks* is used in a different sense (‘dilute by adding water to’) from that of the first *water* (‘nourish by applying water to’). On the other hand, using *paint* to mean ‘protect by applying paint to’ and to mean ‘decorate by applying paint to’ would seem to be using the word in the same sense:

*Mary painted the hall, and John, the downspouts.*

Rather than say *paint* has two senses (‘decorate’ and ‘protect’) we should say it has only one (‘apply paint to’) with a certain range of purposes. The infection of protecting or decorating must be present, however: if a baby wipe paint-covered hands on the wall, we would not say that
it painted the wall, except ironically. Actually, one might try to apply a different sense of *paint* here (to produce in line and colors on a surface by putting paint on something) but the Direct Object of *paint* for this sense must be an object of art (mural, water-color, etc) or understood as visual representation of the thing (*painted the tree in water-colors*, or a picture of tree), presumably the baby’s smears would not amount to the representation of a wall, or anything else.

Dillon states that sentences may convey more than their logical content. Two aspects of extra logical meaning are easily confused with logical meaning and must be distinguished from it: shadings associated with the grammatical relations Subject and Direct Object, and inferences arising from the pragmatics or “use” of sentences.

Shadings associated with what is Subject appear in the following sets:

1)  
   a. John met Harry.  
   b. Harry met John.  
   c. John and Harry met.

2)  
   a. The truck collided with the bus.  
   b. The bus collided with the truck.  
   c. The bus and the truck collided.

3)  
   a. The car is behind the bus.  
   b. The bus is in front of the car.

4)  
   a. The devil used to be frightening to the ignorant.  
   b. People used to be afraid before the devil before the age of science.

There seem to be three relevant properties we associated with the subject: first, they are usually what the sentence is about (that is, the topic or the **theme** under discussion). Thus (1a)
seems to present the encounter as “what happened to John”-from his point of view, so to speak-but (1b) present it from Harry’s point of view and (1c) present it as a mutual experience. So also in (3): one sentence is about the location of the car, the other about the location of the bus. Second, the subject is often assumed to be the instigator or “doer” even when the verb does not clearly refer to an action performed by someone or something. Thus in (2), (a) would be preferred if the bus were stationary, (b) if the truck were stationary, (c) if neither were. The same consideration applies in (1) if we imagine situations were one or the other is stationary. Third, refentiality is preeminently a property of Subjects. Hence (4a) tends to suggest the existence (in at least the speaker’s mind) of a referent for the devil more strongly than (4b) does.

2.2.2 Varieties of Meaning

Language is used for various activities and purposes in social life. The function of language is not solely to provide information to hearers and readers. To studying a language without the reference of meaning is like studying a road sign from the point of view of the physical properties (how much the weight, what is the color, how big the sign is, and so on), not studying the implicit meaning of the sign.

There are some opinions about meaning according to semanticist:

a. Lyons (1977:2) says, “the meaning can be distinguished by the technique of substituting other words in the same context and enquiry whether the resulting sentences are equivalent.”

b. Bloomfield (1933:139) cites, “Meaning of a linguistics form as a situation in which the speakers utter it and response which it calls forth in the hearer.”

c. Leech (1981:23) notes three points of meaning:
meaning involves the speakers intention to convey a certain meaning which may or may not be evident from the message itself,

- consequently, interpretation by the hearer is like to depend on the context,

- meaning in this sense, is something which is performed rather than something that exist in a static way. It involves action (the speaker produces and effects on the hearer) and interaction (the meaning being negotiated between speaker and hearer on the three basic of their mutual knowledge).

Meaning can be grouped into different major types; Linguistic meaning and Speaker meaning (Siregar: 1922).

Linguistic meaning, generally known as the meaning of expressions in some form of language. One can understand linguistics meaning provided if he or she possesses adequate knowledge about grammatical rules and vocabularies of a language. The linguistics meaning is determined by the meaning of its constituents and their grammatical relations.

For example:

- She withdrew the money from the bank yesterday.
- Our canoe broke in the bank of the river.
- I bank $100 every month.

In those examples, the bank has more than one linguistics meaning base on the dictionary.

Speaker’s meaning is what a speaker means when pragmatically producing his or her utterance. Although words cannot be used to mean something what they do not mean, there is a tendency of a speaker to use a word to mean something different from what his or her words mean literally.
There are several ways of speaking non-literally. One way of speaking non-literally is through the use of idiom. Idiom is a group of words with set meaning that cannot be calculated by adding up the separate meaning of the parts. The meaning of an idiomatic expression cannot be predicted either lexically or grammatically. For example, the meaning of the sentence “We are in the same boat” has a literal meaning that can be summed up from the meaning of its constituents; we can catch it as ‘there are two or more people in a boat (water vehicle)’. But the sentence also has an idiomatic meaning ‘having the same problems as somebody else.’

Idioms commonly differentiate into two kinds; pure idiom and semi idiom. The components which create a pure idiom have fused a unity so that the meaning of a pure idiom comes from the unity itself. There is no way to guess the meaning of a pure idiom but to memorize it in our mind once the correct meaning is found out to look it up as a special dictionary because its totally different with literal meaning. Such forms as to sell down the river (to betray a person by revealing his secret), let the cat out of the bag (to disclose confidential information, usually accidentally), kick the bucket (passed away), get your own back (to get revenge) and pig in a poke (something which is bought without examining it properly) are examples of pure idioms.

While the lexical meaning of the components of pure idiom has vanished, semi idiom still maintains the lexical meaning of one of its components. For example, black market (a system of buying and selling goods illegally), white lie (a lie not intended to harm, but to avoid the embarrassment), small talk (conversation about matters of little importance); the word market, lie, and talk still retain their lexical meaning. So we are still able to guess the meaning of the idiom from the lexical meaning of one of its constituent.
Another way of speaking non-literally is by using the figure of speech or known as figurative expression. They are described by a large set of rhetorical terms, such as; exaggerating a reality to amuse the hearer (hyperbole), speaking as if non-living thing acted as a living thing or having human abilities (personification), one can even compare something to something else which seems unrelated to create a more vivid description (metaphor, simile), speaking the opposite of what his or her words mean literally (irony) and so on.

2.2.2 Sense and Reference

Semantics concerns with how language is related to experience or non-linguistics world.

Palmer (1976:30) defines reference and sense as follows, “reference deals with the relationship between the linguistics elements, words, sentence, etc. Sense relates to the complex system of relationships that hold between linguistics elements themselves (mostly the words); it is concerned only with intra-linguistics relations.”

Reference is the relation between words and entities which is being talked about in the world of experience. For example, the word ‘shoe’ has a certain meaning, an outer covering for the foot, typically made of leather, plastic or fabric. In addition, the word ‘shoe’ also possesses a characteristic which is known as “reference”, that is the ability of the word ‘shoe’ to refer to a certain kind of protective item for foot.

Sense relationships also form an important part of the study of a language. A word or lexeme does not merely ‘have’ meaning; it contributes to the meaning of the larger unit, a phrase, clause or sentence. For example, the sense of the word ‘library’ in these two following examples is different:
• Professor Octopus has a fairly great library. (library means a collection of books)

• The library is at the end of this road. (library means a building where books are kept and organized)

The difference between sense and reference can be shown by these examples; ‘The man who is my father’ and ‘the man who married my mother’. From the examples above, both examples refer to a certain individual or the same reference that is ‘father’. The phrase ‘The man who is my father describes ‘the own father or father-in-blood’ and ‘the man who married my mother’ describes ‘the step father’.

The idea of references is relatively solid and easy to understand. The idea of sense is more elusively. It is lie electricity, which we all know how to use in various ways, without ever being sure exactly what it is.

2.3 Goals of Semantics Theory

There are two questions which must be answered concerning with the goals of semantics theory; what should a semantics theory do and how should it do it?

A semantics theory should attribute to each expression in the language which the semantics properties and relations.

The answer to the second question is that a semantics theory should have at least two kinds of constraints:
a. semantics theory of natural language should be finite; people are capable of storing only a finite amount of information but they nevertheless learn the semantics of natural languages,

b. semantics theory of natural language should reflect the fact, except for idioms, expressions are compositional. This means that their meaning is determined by the meaning of its constituents and their grammatical relations.

2.4 Figurative Expressions

2.4.1 Definition of Figurative Expressions

In semantics, there are two kinds of meaning; they are literal meaning and non-literal meaning. Webster’s New World Dictionary of American English (1998:789) defined that, in general, the literal meaning is based on the actual words not figurative or symbolic. The literal meaning is according to dictionary or letter scriptures, being without exaggeration or embellishment.

Non-literal meaning is the opposite to literal meaning. A speaker sometimes speaks non-literally. The speaker means something different from jis literal meaning of the words. He has other intention from the meaning of words he said. Non-literal meaning occurs when the sentence have hidden meaning beside the lexical meaning.

There are some ways of speaking non-literally. One of them is figure of speech or figurative expressions. Figurative expressions are form of expressions that more or less intentional deviate from common literal meaning of words to achieve a special effectors to make thought more attractive and striking in formal or informal language. Bekson and Ganz (1957:80) state, “Figurative language is language which makes use of certain devices called ‘figure of
speech’, most of which are techniques for comparing dissimilar objects, to achieve effects beyond the range of literal language.

Figurative expressions are not devices to state what is demonstrably untrue. Indeed they often state truths that more literal language cannot communicate. Facts and ideas can be expressed in simple words and sentences like “She had deep blue eyes”. Yet most people attempt to enrich their statements and make them more colorful to present their ideas like “She had eyes as blue as sky and as deep as the ocean.” Waluyo (1991:83) states, “Bahasa figuratif menyebabkan puisi menjadi prismatis artinya memancarkan banyak makna atau kaya akan makna.” Here, figurative expressions are seen more effective in conveying the idea of the writer. The writer uses figurative expressions to describe or convey the idea with unusual or unique way, which is by revealing the meaning indirectly or using symbols.

Figurative expression is a rhetorical form of how to use words in speaking or writing to convince or persuade the audience. A society of Gentlemen in Scotland (1970:257) state “In everyday speech and writing and in literature the chief function of figures of speech are probably to emphasize or to clarify. Other functions include the manifestation exuberance by verbal play, the giving tone or atmosphere to discourse, and the stimulation of thought by startling the reader or listener.” The effective speakers and writers employ figurative expressions to illuminate their ideas. Figurative expressions are also used to assure, persuade, motivate, encourage and fascinate the audience. It is a powerful rhetoric tool to clarify meaning, to provide vivid examples, to emphasize ideas, to stimulate associations and emotions, to ornament sentences and to amuse audience.

A few examples of figurative expressions used in casual conversation, generally unwittingly, will demonstrate the naturalness of their application in everyday context. For
example, someone says, “this room is a pigsty”. He uses metaphor to describe the condition of the room by saying the room is like a pigsty. The room may look dirty and then he compares the room to a pigsty. Other example, “These buns are as hard as rock.” He uses simile to describe the characteristic of the buns which is like a rock that is hard.

Almost all the figurative expressions to be found in everyday talk and non-literary writing may also found in literature; and practically all those found in literature are at some time exemplified in casual talk. ‘ordinary’ language refers to such things as newspaper reports, where the emphasis is on conveying the information. In literature, however, language is used in an ‘emotive’ way, in a skillful way to arouse an emotional response of the reader. In serious poetry and prose, the use of figurative expressions are likely to be more fully conscious, more artistic, and much more subtle; it will thus have a stronger intellectual and emotional impact, will be more memorable, and will sometimes contribute a range and depth of association and suggestion far beyond the scope of the casual colloquial use of imagery.

2.4.2 Kinds of Figurative Expressions

There are more than 10 kinds of figurative expressions. The types of figurative expressions which are going to be explained are simile, metaphor, hyperbole, personification, and irony.

2.4.2.1 Simile

In simile, a comparison is made between two different objects which have at least one similar characteristic. Barnhart (1995:118) says, “A simile is a figurative of speech in which two quite different things are compared because they appear to be similar in at least one
characteristic.” The word simile comes from the same Latin word *simile*, which means “like”. Simile is a rule introduced by “like” or “as”. For example, “Cat’s eyes are like marbles,” it does not mean that cat’s eyes and marbles are really alike, but the glassy shine of cat’s eyes reminds of the glassy shine of the marbles, and the comparison helps to make a picture in words.

Simile may also be found in the following poem;

**A Red, Red Rose**

*Oh, my love is like a red, red rose*

*That’s newly sprung in June*

*My love is like the melody*

*That’s sweetly play’s in tune*

By Robert Burn

A simile is not just an ordinary comparison. If someone says, “My bicycle is like your bicycle,” he is not making or using simile. Such comparisons are literal, not figurative. A simile must compare two basically unlike things that are found to be alike.

### 2.4.2.2 Metaphor

Metaphor is an implicit comparison in which two unlike objects are compared by identification or substitution of one for the other to suggest common quality shared by the two. Barnhart (1995:118) says, “A metaphor is a figure of speech in which a word or phrase is taken out of its usual setting and placed with another word to suggest a likeness.” It is made more vivid by transferring to it the name or attributes of some other object. Metaphor is alike simile; a comparison but omitting the word “like” or “as”. Keraf (1988:139) explains, “metafora adalah semacam analogi yang membandingkan hal secara..., metafora sebagai perbandingan langsung
metaphor is derived from Greek word *metaphora* meaning ‘transfer, carry over’. It is a derivation from *meta* meaning ‘over, across’ and *pherein* meaning ‘to carry’.

Metaphor is the most pervasive kind of figurative expressions not only in literary works, but also in everyday life. For example, the metaphorical meaning of the expression “America is a melting pot” is that America is a country where people of different races, cultures and styles live or mixed together. The metaphorical meaning of the phrase *melting pot* is an analogy to its literal meaning ‘a container in which metals and other materials are melted and mixed’.

### 2.4.2.3 Hyperbole

most people, in everyday life, emphasize a point with a statement containing exaggeration. For example, “I’ve told you a thousand times not to go outside at night,” it is quite impossible for someone to tell a same thing to other someone for thousand times, we called it exaggeration. Kennedy(1983) cites, “Hyperbole is statement containing exaggeration to emphasize a point.” Or in the other word a hyperbole is a figurative expression which exaggerates, or overstatements the number, size or characteristics of a thing for purpose of emphasizing.

The word hyperbole is derived from Greek language, that is *hyper* means ‘over’ and *ballien* means ‘to throw’. Webster’s Dictionary (1971:112) defined that hyperbole is an extravagant exaggeration that represents something as much greater or less, better or worse or more intense that it really is depicts the impossible as actual.
Another example of hyperbole; “You are the most beautiful girl in this universe.” This sentence is considered as hyperbole. Literally, the sentence means that the person has ever seen all girls in the universe. The sentence exaggerates the feeling of the person toward a girl. Figuratively, the sentence means that the person really loves the girl, so he considers that there is no girl as beautiful as her.

2.4.2.4 Personification

Personification, closely related to metaphor, is a figurative expression that gives human form, powers or feelings to animal, objects, or ideas. It makes a non-human being appeared like a person. Shaw (1972:283) defines, “Personification is a figure of speech in which abstraction, animals, ideas, and inanimate objects are having human form, character, traits or sensibilities.” For example, “The dish runs away with the spoon”. Literally, the sentence means that the dish and spoon are run away or doing an human activity. Figuratively, the sentence is an idiom means that the supper or eating activity runs well and all the menus are eaten.

Another example of personification, “Every night, the moon comes by just to say good night to me.” Here, the moon as the inanimate object is depicted as human. Literally, it implies that the moon has legs to come by and talk by saying good night. It is absolutely impossible. Figuratively, it expresses that the moon always shines every night as the sign for everyone to sleep.
2.4.2.5 Irony

Irony is a figurative expression which expresses something different from and often opposite to their literal meaning. Gray (1984:108) states, “Irony is a manner of speaking or writing that is dispread trough all kinds of literature. Irony consists of saying one thing while it means another.” Irony is a way of speaking or writing in which what is meant is contrary to what the words appear to say, as Keraf (1991:143) cites, “Ironi atau sindiran adalah suatu acuan yang ingin mengatakan sesuatu dengan maksud berlainan dari apa yang terkandung dalam rangkaian kata-katanya.”

One effect of irony with its contrast between fine phrases and sordid reality is that the writer can suggest the gap between how many things might be and how they really are. Irony is used in satire. In satire, irony might appear to serve a didactic purpose, but irony can reflect the writer’s awareness that there is a discrepancy between how one person might view things and how they might be viewed from other angles or in a different context.

In novel and plays, irony is often used to reveal the inadequacy of the characters’ view or grasp of events. We also used irony in daily conversation. For example, a teacher is angry to his students for not doing them homework. He will say “You are diligent”. This sentence does not mean the teacher praise or proud of the students by stating the opposite of what he means. The word ‘diligent’ actually refers to its opposite, that is ‘lazy’. So, the teacher is actually mocking the students by praising them. The other example, someone says, “This room is very clean” when he enters a very dirty room. The word ‘clean’ actually refers to its opposite ‘dirty’. So the speaker does not intend to admire the room, but to mock the condition of the room.

2.4.2.6 Metonymy
Metonymy is a figure of speech in which the name of one object or idea is substituted for that of another closely associated with it. Metonymy uses a feature closely associated with the main idea rather than being physically part of it. For example, ‘the crown property’ may refer to a ruling monarch; ‘the white house decision’ may mean the president of United States did.

Metonymy is derived from Greek word; meta means ‘to change’ and only means ‘name’. metonymy is a change of name, the use of the one word for another, the use of an idea by means of terms involving association.

To make it clear, let’s see the following example:

a. Most of the people in Indonesia tried to put away the yellow shirt.

b. Jon Bon Jovi has a good head, that’s why all the girls proud of him.

The phrase yellow shirt in the first sentence has a speaker meaning. Yellow shirt refers to Golkar party. Golkar party is identical with yellow. Here, yellow shirt is being used in a figurative way refers to Golkar party. The right interpretation for this sentence is to put away the golkar party. The right interpretation of the next sentence is Jon Bon Jovi is a smart man, that’s why all the girls are proud of him.

2.4.2.7 Synecdoche

A kind of metonymy, synecdoche is the use of a part of a thing to stand for a whole of it or vice versa. Synecdoche creates a special kind of metaphor by allowing some part to stand for the whole. Thus ‘a number of ships’ may refer to as ‘sail’ or employees as ‘hand’, ‘the smiling year for spring’, etc.
Synecdoche is derived from Greek word *synekdechesthai*, where *syn* means ‘with’; the word *ex* means ‘to get out’; and the word *decheisthai* means ‘to take’ or ‘to receive’.