

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Linguistics

Linguistics helps us understand our world. Every language is like a one-of-a-kind species. It captures unique conceptualizations of the world and has its own ways of constructing words, phrases and sentences for communicating ideas. As we compare the words and structures of various languages, we come to a greater understanding of the world we live in. This comparative analysis reveals how different cultures perceive and interact with their surroundings, enriching our knowledge of human cognition and social interaction. By studying linguistic diversity, we gain insights into the myriad ways in which people encode their experiences, values, and knowledge, fostering a deeper appreciation for the complexity and richness of human communication.

The systematic study of the traits of specific languages as well as those of language in general is the main goal of linguistics, the scientific study of language. It includes the study of language families' histories, grammar, meaning, and sound. Linguistics seeks to understand the nature and function of language, examining how languages evolve, how they are structured, and how they convey meaning. This comprehensive approach allows linguists to uncover patterns and principles that apply across languages, as well as the unique features that distinguish one language from another.

Simply put, linguistics is the study of language, how it works, how it is acquired, and how people use it to communicate.

The standard definition of linguistics is the science of language, or alternatively, the scientific study of language.

1. According to Bloomfield (1933; 20–34), linguistics is a science, just like physics and chemistry. This perspective is shared by many linguistics experts who define linguistics as the scientific study of language. This definition emphasizes the systematic and empirical approach to understanding the structure, function, and

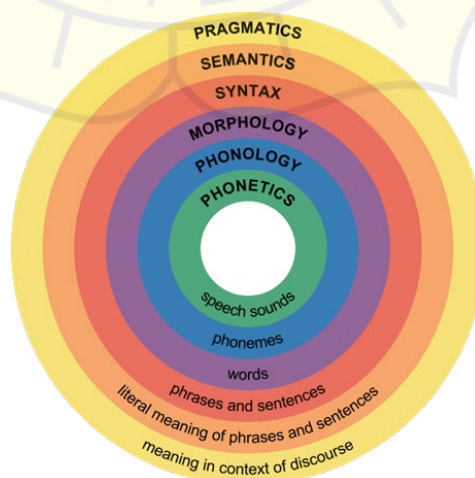
development of languages, akin to the methodologies used in the natural sciences. By applying scientific principles, linguists aim to uncover the underlying rules and patterns that govern language use and evolution.

2. King T. asserts that human language is considered a universal and recognizable component of human behavior and capabilities, a view that aligns with Naser's (1984) perspective in linguistics. This viewpoint highlights the inherent nature of language as a fundamental aspect of what it means to be human, emphasizing its role in communication, social interaction, and the expression of thought across diverse cultures and societies.

3. According to Matthews, linguistics is the scientific study of language or the science of language. A linguist is a person linguist studies language in all its forms, including vocabulary, grammar, phonology, and historical development. Linguists analyze the structure, function, and evolution of languages, seeking to understand how they are used, how they change over time, and how they are processed in the human brain.

4. The distinction between descriptive and general linguistics is made by John Lyons.

General linguistics provides the foundational concepts and categories used to analyze specific languages. It encompasses several subareas, including:



Picture 2.1. Types of Linguistics

Illuminating the Path: The Research and Development Agenda for Visual Analytics (Thomas, James J. & Cook, Kristin A. , ed.) (2005)

The empirical evidence supporting or refuting the theories and propositions put forth in general linguistics is provided by descriptive linguistics. It first gained prominence in the 19th century, concentrating on examining the historical evolution of particular languages and developing broad theories regarding language change. Basic inquiries like these are addressed by descriptive linguistics:

1. Phonetics: the study of sound production in language.
2. Phonology: the patterning of sounds within a language.
3. Morphology: the structure of words.
4. Syntax: the structure of sentences.
5. Semantics: the study of meaning in language.
6. Pragmatics: the use of language in context.

Linguistics, according to Todd (1987: 5), is the scientific study of language. He then goes into further detail regarding the definition of the term "scientific." According to him, the word "scientific" denotes a systematic approach to language study, much like in physics or chemistry. Linguists aim to be impartial in their study of language. They make an effort to observe how language is used, develop theories, test those theories, and then gather data to bolster their conclusions.

According to Todd and Kreidler (1998: 3), linguists are interested in learning more about the common knowledge that people possess when exchanging ideas and feelings as well as the deeper workings of language. Therefore, linguistics studies the combination of the constituents in a more complex structure, like a phrase, as well as the essential components of a particular language, like words. The modulation of a speaker's voice based on their intention is another aspect of linguistics. Finally, it also concerns how listeners connect newly acquired information to what they already know.

According to Fromkin and Rodman (in Wagner, 2003), language itself can be spoken or signed, and each person possesses at least one of these forms as the subject of linguistic study.

In addition, Harley (2010:3–4) suggests a number of language definitions. To begin with, language is a system of communication used to transmit data. Second, language is defined as the rules governing word combinations and the system of words. Finally, language is subjective. It indicates that the meanings of words or sounds are not clearly related to one another. Onomatopoeic words are not included in this instance. In summary, the study of language as a means of communication for information, emotions, and intentions is known as linguistics.

2.2 Semantics

Semantics: What is it? The study of meaning in language is known as semantics. Within the general study of language, it is a broad topic. The study of language acquisition—that is, how language users come to understand meaning as speakers, writers, listeners, and readers—requires a solid grasp of semantics. It is also crucial to the study of how meanings change over time in language.

The study of meaning, meaning changes, and the rules governing the relationship between words or sentences and their meanings are all covered under the field of semantics. It is the study of how symbols and signs relate to one another and to the things they stand for.

Understanding words and the morphemes that make them up is essential to understanding language. We also need to understand how word meanings fit together to form phrases and sentences. Lastly, when figuring out meaning, context is important. Semantics is the study of how words, phrases, sentences, and morphemes have linguistic meaning.

When linguists study semantics, they focus on the study of meaning. This includes the meaning of words, phrases, sentences, and entire written works.

Semantics also interacts with pragmatics, which studies how meaning is related to context, and syntax, which studies how sentences are put together. We check if a sentence adheres to accepted grammar rules by looking at its syntax.

Origin of Semantics Etymology: Word knowledge comprises definitions of words and symbols. World knowledge refers to an individual's autobiographical and experiential understanding and memory of specific events. The word "semaino" in Greek means "to signify or mean."

The Greek word *semantikos*, which means "significant," is the source of both the noun semantics and the adjective semantic. Semantics is the branch of linguistics that focuses on the study of meaning at the syntactic levels of words, phrases, sentences, and occasionally larger discourse units, or texts. texts on linguistics

Lehrer; (1974: 1) Semantics is the study of meaning. For Lehrer, semantics is a very broad field of study, because it also alludes to aspects of the structure and function of language so that it can be linked to psychology, philosophy and anthropology.

According to British empiricist John Locke, words are used to encode and transmit thoughts or ideas, and language meaning is mental. Locke lived in the 17th century. For communication to be successful, the hearer must accurately translate the speaker's words into the concepts they are associated with. According to Locke, an expression's meaning can be understood as the idea that is connected to it in the minds of those who are familiar with and comprehend it.

"Semantics is the systematic study of meaning, and linguistic semantics is the study of how languages organize and express meanings," claims Kreidler (1998:3). Accordingly, linguistic semantics is the study of how language organizes and expresses meaning, and semantics is the systematic study of meaning.

Griffiths (2006:1) "Semantics is the study of the "toolkit" for meaning: knowledge encoded in the vocabulary of the language and in its patterns for building more elaborate meanings, up to the level of sentence meanings." Accordingly, semantics is the study of food, involving the understanding of

linguistic codes found in vocabulary and patterns that enable the construction of increasingly complex meaning, all the way down to sentence meaning.

According to Leech (1981), there exist seven types of meaning, five of which are included in the associative meaning. In his book *A Study of Meaning*, Geoffrey Leech categorizes meaning into seven types, placing conceptual meaning as primary. These seven types are:

1	Conceptual Meaning	Logical, cognitive or connotative content.
2	Connotative Meaning	Communication inferred through language reference.
3	Social Meaning	Communication reflecting social circumstances.
4	Affective Meaning	Communication of speaker feelings and attitudes.
5	Reflected Meaning	Communication via associations with another sense of the same word.
6	Collocative Meaning	Communication via associations with words that co-occur.
7	Thematic Meaning	Communication organized by message structure in terms of order and emphasis.

Table 2.2. Types of Semantics

1) Conceptual or Denotative Meaning

Conceptual meaning, also known as logical or cognitive meaning, represents the primary dictionary definition and forms the foundational propositional meaning of a word or phrase. It serves as the semantic base upon which communication in language depends. For instance, "Man" can be conceptually broken down into "human + male + adult." Conceptual meaning distinguishes between different meanings within sentences through abstract symbols, providing a semantic representation essential for understanding.

2) Connotative Meaning

Connotative meaning extends beyond the literal or conceptual content of an expression to include additional communicative values and associations. It encompasses the attributes and implications that a word carries beyond its dictionary definition, influenced by societal viewpoints and individual perspectives. For example, while the conceptual content of "woman" might include "human + female + adult," connotative meanings can include societal attributes such as maternal instincts, social roles, or stereotypes, both positive and negative. These connotations evolve over time and can vary across cultures and individuals, reflecting broader psychosocial perceptions.

For example, an old woman wearing a sari or trouser set must have had a certain connotation in an Indian context in the past. A modern woman wearing a salwar kameez, a t-shirt, or jeans. Connotation can occasionally differ from person to person as well. For example, a misogynist and a feminist may interpret the term "woman" differently.

The distinction between conceptual and connotative seems to be blurry. Connotative meaning is believed to be incidental, somewhat unstable, indeterminate, open-ended, and variable depending on age, culture, and individual, but conceptual meaning is not like that. It is comprehensible using a limited set of symbols.

3) Social Meaning

A language's social meaning is the message it transmits about the social setting in which it is employed. Decoding a text requires our comprehension of stylistics and other linguistic subtleties. Dialectical words and pronunciations are those that disclose something about the social and/or regional background of the speaker. The social meaning of a statement is contingent upon its usage context.

Stylistic Meaning is concerned with the social context in which a language is used. For instance, some dialectic words reveal the speaker's social and geographic origins. Similarly, certain stylistic devices reveal something about the social status of the speaker and listener. The statement "I ain't done nothing" reveals information

about the connotative meaning of some words, which can suggest details about the speaker, such as their probable upbringing as a poor, uneducated Black American. This type of analysis shows how language use can convey intricate details about an individual's background and social environment.

For instance, consider the sentence “I ain’t done nothing” provides several clues about the speaker's characteristics, including their background, dialect, and possible socio-economic status. suggesting they are likely a black American, underprivileged, and lacking formal education. Another example is seen in the sentence, “Come on yaar, be a sport. Don’t be Lallu,” which conveys a social meaning typical among young Indian friends.

Since various styles reveal the speaker's location and social class, stylistic variation reflects social diversity. Style also reveals information about the discourse's status, domain, and time period. Certain words have different stylistic connotations even though their conceptual meanings are similar. For instance, although the terms "horse," "nag," and "steed" all refer to the same kind of animal and are synonymous, they have different social connotations: "horse" is general, "steed" is literary, and "nag" is informal slang. Similar to this, the word "home" has several meanings: "abode" in poetry, "domicile" in official contexts, "residence" in formal contexts, and "home" in everyday speech.

4) Affective or Emotive Meaning

Some linguists believe that words' emotive associations or effects on the reader or listener are what constitute affective meaning. It expresses the speaker's attitudes or personal feelings toward the discussion topic or the listener. As an illustration of affective meaning through the speaker's attitude, the sentence "I hate you, you idiot" expresses strong negative feelings towards the listener. For instance, the term "home" has a particular emotional meaning for a soldier, sailor, or expat, whereas the word "mother" denotes a married woman or has emotional significance for a child who is motherless, particularly in Indian culture.

Language is used to convey attitudes or feelings that the speaker has for the listener or the discussion's topic when it has an affective meaning. Leech defines

affective meaning as the sentiments and attitudes that a speaker expresses through language, including their perspective on the subject under discussion as well as their attitude toward the listener. The conceptual and connotative meaning of the words used are often crucial to their affective meaning.

Statements such as "I hate you, you idiot" or "You are a vicious tyrant and a villainous reprobate and I hate you" are examples of affective meaning because they are clear to the listener and convey the speaker's very negative feelings. Still, attitude expressions are usually more subtly expressed. For instance, in the example "I am terribly sorry, but if you would be so kind as to lower your voice a little," the pity is softened for the sake of civility. Here, intonation and voice quality are also very important. A single sentence can convey a variety of meanings, depending on whether it is delivered as a playful remark between close friends or as a biting sarcasm, as in the case of the phrase "Will you belt up?"

5) Reflected Meaning

Reflected meaning, along with collocative meaning, operates on a lexical level of language. It occurs when a word has multiple conceptual meanings or senses. In such instances, responding to one sense of the word also evokes a response related to another sense.

Consider the proclamation, "I want to die right now." In this instance, the word "die" is used to express the speaker's current, intense feelings. In order to say death, a poet prefers to use ring of the bells of quittance, journey to the immortal, and sleep in eternal peace. Albeit conveying the same meaning, those three poetic synonym of death have different senses.

6) Collocative Meaning

Collocative meaning refers to the connections that emerge between words that are frequently used together. Certain types of words "collocate" or occur together naturally with other words, which affects the meaning and usage of those words.

For instance, in the phrase "big business," the word "big" is preferred over "large" or "great." Similarly, words like "pretty" and "handsome" both denote

attractiveness, but their specific collocations differentiate their usage. "Pretty" commonly collocates with words such as "girls," "women," "village," "gardens," and "flowers," while "handsome" typically collocates with "boys" and "men."

If certain nouns are added, such as "girl boy," "boy man," "woman car," "flower vessel," "pretty garden," "handsome overcoat color airliner," "village typewriter," etc., they have distinct meanings.

7) Thematic Meaning

Thematic meaning encompasses what is conveyed through the organization of a message by a speaker or writer, focusing on the arrangement of order, emphasis, and perspective. It highlights how the choice between active and passive voice can influence communication, even when the conceptual meaning remains unchanged.

For example, consider the following statements in both active and passive voice have distinct communicative values but the same conceptual meaning.

- 1) The first prize was donated by Mrs. Smith.
- 2) Mrs. Smith donated the first prize.

"Who gave away the prize" is more significant in the first sentence, but "What Mrs. Smith gave is more important" in the second. It also shifts the meaning's focal point. According to the explanation given above, each polysemous word has both conceptual and connotative meanings. This means that each polysemous word has a literal meaning that derives from a dictionary, as well as a nonliteral meaning that goes beyond what is found in a dictionary.

Thematic meaning involves the organization of a message to emphasize certain information over others, often through lexical and syntactic choices that highlight contrasts between given and new information. For instance, consider the thematic contrast between these two statements:

1. John owns the biggest shop in London.
2. The biggest shop in London belongs to John.

The ordering of our messages conveys what is deemed important and what is not, illustrating the role of thematic meaning in communication. It is crucial for comprehending the effects of style and English variety as well as language in social contexts, which are likely to influence meaning. As such, it is among the most basic ideas in linguistics. Semantics is the study of meaning construction, interpretation, clarification, obfuscation, illustration, simplification, negotiation, contradiction, and paraphrasing. The following are some significant domains within semantic theory or related fields: Referent and symbol notions of meaning Lexemes and words Meaning, implication, and connotation pragmatics Lack of clarity Symbol, simile, and metaphor fields of semantics.

2.3 Lexical

Word meaning, or the distinct meanings of each word in a sentence as lexical items, is the other aspect of sentence meaning. It's common knowledge that words have meanings. Dictionaries provide a list of words along with a definition in one form or another. "What does it mean?" is a reasonable question to ask of any word in a language. Like many other questions concerning language, this one is simpler to pose than to respond to. Languages preserve the flexibility required by their open-ended commitments by means of lexical resources. There are many thousands of words in every language's vocabulary, but not all of them are used frequently and some are only known by a small number of speakers.

The belief that words from different languages, or at least their nouns, verbs, and adjectives, label the same inventory of objects, processes, and qualities in the world but regrettably label them with different labels from language to language, is perhaps the most widespread misconception when it comes to vocabularies. If this were the case, translation would be simpler than it is; however, the very fact that it is possible, despite the fact that it is frequently challenging, suggests that speakers of different languages are communicating about comparable worlds of experience.

In descriptive terms, the primary subjects covered by lexical semantics research are either the internal semantic relations that exist within the vocabulary or the internal semantic structure of words. Major phenomena in the first set include prototypicality, metonymy, metaphor, and polysemy (as opposed to vagueness).

Lexical fields, lexical relations, conceptual metaphor and metonymy, and frames are among the second set's most important subjects.

No.	Types of Lexical Relation
1.	Synonymy
2.	Antonymy
3.	Hyponymy
4.	Polysemy
5.	Meronymy
6.	Homonymy
7.	Member-collection
8.	Portion-mass

Table 2.3. Types of Lexical

John I. Saeed, *Semantics* (United Kingdom Blackwell Publishing, 2003).

In theoretical terms, structuralist semantics, cognitive semantics, and prestructuralist historical semantics are the main theoretical trajectories that have essentially succeeded one another in the history of lexical semantics. While these theoretical frameworks vary in their approach to word meaning research—taking a system-oriented or usage-oriented approach, for example—they have all made significant contributions to the descriptive and conceptual apparatus of lexical semantics throughout the discipline's historical development.

a. Synonymy

'Sameness of meaning' is the definition of SYNONYMY. It is clear that a dictionary maker would have many sets of words that are synonymous or have similar meanings. This allows them to define mavis as thrush or gala as festivity; however, this method is not very useful if the reader does not know either of the terms, such as when hoatzin is defined as a stink-bird or neve as firm.

Of course, dictionaries usually include descriptive information in addition to synonyms to help the reader understand the meaning.

For example, beautiful and attractive are synonyms of each other because they both refer to someone or something that looks good.

b. Antonymy

Words that are opposite are ANTONYMS; the term "oppositeness of meaning" is used to describe this. Although synonymy and Antonymy are often seen as opposites, they actually have quite different statuses. Since there is little actual need for true synonyms in languages—as we have seen—it is unlikely that there are any at all. However, antonymy can be defined fairly precisely and is a regular and very natural feature of language. Surprisingly, though, dictionaries rarely mention it and books on semantics have frequently ignored it as a subject. But there are various forms of "opposite-ness," and we need to be very clear about the differences between them.

For example, hot and cold are antonyms, as are good and bad.

c. Hyponymy

Classes or collections of incompatible objects were covered in the previous section. However, some terms also make reference to the class itself. This connects to the idea of INCLUSION in that lion and elephant belong in the category of mammal (or possibly animal; see below), just as tulip and rose belong in the category of flowers.

Example : "There is a horse" implies "There is an animal."

d. Polysemy

Polysemy is a type of lexical semantics where a single word has multiple related meanings. It refers to instances where a word, maintaining the same form and often the same syllable structure, carries distinct yet interconnected meanings. For example, the word 'foot' can refer to the foot of a mountain, the foot of a hill, the foot of a bed, the foot of a human. Homonyms are different words that happen to have the same form, whereas polysemous meanings are closely related and derived from a common semantic origin. This is how polysemy and homonymy differ from one another.

In semantics and lexical analysis, polysemy is important because it describes words that have several meanings and are thought to be conceptually linked. One

well-known semantic challenge is differentiating between a single polysemous word and two or more homonyms.

For example, foot in : - He hurt his foot ; - She stood at the foot of the stairs.

e. Meronymy

Meronymy is a type of lexical semantics that describes the relationship between parts and wholes of lexical items. It refers to the part-whole relationship within language, where a term denotes a part of a larger entity rather than a complete entity itself. Human languages feature numerous words that denote parts of things, contrasting with relatively fewer words that specifically denote pieces. Meronymy specifically identifies and categorizes these part-whole relationships among lexical items.

Examples:

- i. Referring to the President of the United States or their administration as "the White House" or "the Oval Office".
- ii. Referring to the American technology industry as "Silicon Valley".
- iii. Referring to the American film industry as "Hollywood".
- iv. Referring to the Indian film industry or celebrity culture as "Bollywood".

f. Homonymy

Homonymy is a type of lexical semantics where two words share the same form (spelling and/or pronunciation) but have different meanings. It denotes a relationship between distinct lexemes that coincidentally resemble each other in form. In phonological terms, homonymy refers to unrelated senses of the same word sound. Some authors differentiate between homographs (same written form) and homophones (same spoken form), though the term homonymy generally encompasses both categories.

Examples of Homonymy:

Words belonging to the same syntactic category and spelled identically:

"lap" (a portion of the body used for sitting) and "lap" (a circuit of a course).

similar in syntactic category but spelled differently:

"Wring" and "ring" are verbs.

Despite having distinct syntactic categories:

the verb "keep" and the noun "keep" have the same spelling.

both having distinct spellings and belonging to different syntactic categories:

"Not" and "knot".

Another kind of lexical semantics is member-collection, which characterizes the connection between a word designating a unit and a word designating a group of those units.

Various Member-Collection Examples:

- a. Fleet (ship)
- b. Trees (in forests)
- c. Fish (in shoals)
- d. Books (in libraries)
- e. flocks (of birds)
- f. flocks (of sheep)
- g. worshippers (in congregations)

Portion-Mass: When a count noun is added to a mass noun to form a count nominal, the relationship between a mass noun and the customary unit of measurement or division is referred to as portion-mass.

Illustrations of Portion-Mass:

- a. Liquid of drop
- b. Grains of salt, sand, or wheat

- c. Paper of sheet
- d. Bulb of coal
- e. Hair of strand

2.4 Polysemy

Polysemy refers to the phenomenon where a single word has multiple interpretations based on the context in which it is employed. Palmer (1986, p. 100) states that polysemy happens when a word has multiple distinct meanings. According to Edelheim's (2007) definition, polysemy in texts is deliberate and intended to elicit different interpretations depending on the reader's viewpoint.

This study focuses on textual analysis to illustrate why polysemy is crucial in understanding word meanings. Unlike homonyms, which have unrelated meanings (e.g., "bank" referring to a river bank or financial institution), polysemous words exhibit multiple related senses, often confirmed by dictionary entries listing various uses.

Additionally, polysemy is defined by Edelheim (2007) as a branch of semantics that investigates how meanings in texts change based on reader interpretation and context. There is general agreement, according to Klein and Murphy (2001), that semantic approaches have a significant impact on the close connections between polysemous senses.

To sum up, polysemy clarifies the connections between various meanings of a word. Regular and irregular types of polysemous forms can be distinguished based on the structured relationships between its senses.

The literature has identified numerous conceptual patterns that underlie systematic polysemy. They are commonly referred to as patterns of alternation in meaning, which is not totally accurate, as will be discussed in more detail below.

Above all, a thorough examination of them was made possible by the discoveries made by writers in the 1980s and 1990s. I will summarize the patterns identified by Apresjan (1974), Nunberg (1979, 1995), Bierwisch (1983, 1989), Pustejovsky (1991, 1995a,b), and others in the sections that follow. Furthermore, I

will briefly describe the various meanings of nouns based on their corresponding patterns. The count-mass distinction in English and other languages with systematic variations in meaning and, consequently, in denotation of nouns is probably the most prominent variation. countmass syntax (see, for example, Krofka 1995, Chierchia 1998, Falkum 2010, 2011, Pelletier & Schubert [1989] 2001). A noun's COUNT/MASS alternation can take on various forms. First off, there are several common nouns that have two different meanings: one where they refer to distinct objects like fruits, animals, or trees and are therefore used as count nouns, and the other where they refer to amounts of substance derived from such objects and are therefore used as mass nouns.

Based on the theory from Apresjan (1973), polysemy can be classified into two main types: regular and irregular polysemy.

- a. **Regular Polysemy:** Apresjan defines regular polysemy as the outcome of at least one additional word (represented as B) in the same language whose interpretations (bi, bj, etc.) differ semantically from one another in a manner akin to that of ai and aj. The word (let's call it A) in this instance has several meanings (ai, aj, etc.). Crucially, ai and bi, aj and bj are not interchangeable terms. This suggests a systematic relationship in which the semantic distinctions between various word meanings are consistently maintained.

Example: In English, The term "girl" can refer to a girlfriend or a young girl. This systematic relationship between meanings exemplifies regular polysemy because similar distinctions (between child and partner) are not synonymous with distinctions in other words.

- b. **Irregular Polysemy:** Irregular polysemy, on the other hand, occurs when the semantic distinction between ai and aj of a word A is not exemplified in any other word of the language. In other words, there is no systematic or recurring pattern in the way the meanings are differentiated across words.

Example: The word "cherry" can refer to a fruit and also to a color (a shade of red). These meanings are not systematically related in the same way as in

regular polysemy. Here, the relationship is metaphorical rather than systematic, as the fruit's color is metaphorically associated with the color itself.

Polysemy comes in seven different forms. regarded as a component of a language speaker's grammatical knowledge, according to Krifka (1998). Pustejovsky (1995) extended the following types. They can be found in the subsequent list:

2.4.1 Container/Contained Alternation

This category involves using a physical object to describe what is contained within it. Here are the discussed polysemous examples:

a. Animal/Meat Alternation:

For example: "A scorpion's tail contains a poison that can sting its prey".

Explanation: The word "tail" here refers literally to the part of a scorpion, but metaphorically to the appearance of stars having a "tail."

b. Object/Stuff an Object Is Made Of:

For example: "The lock on the mosque door was lost by Michael."

Explanation: "Door" is used literally as a locking device for a door, but metaphorically as an analogy for unlocking paradise in the afterlife.

c. Stuff/Kind:

For example: "Bicycles cannot be used without wheels".

Explanation: "Wheel" is used literally for a component of a bicycle, but metaphorically as a symbol for the ups and downs of life.

d. Stuff/Portions:

Example: "Some students sat on the floor because of limited school tables."

Explanation: "Table" is used literally as a piece of furniture for learning, and metaphorically in legal terms as a "green table" for negotiations.

2.4.2 Plant/Food Alternation

This involves using plant-related terms metaphorically to describe food or related concepts. Examples like "lips" for "sweet words" and "flowers" for "loved ones" demonstrate this type of alternation.

2.4.3 Alternations between containers and contained.

This category involves using words where one refers to the container and another to what is contained within it.

For instance: "Mary cracked the bottle. The infant consumed the entire bottle."

Interpretation: The physical container (made of glass or plastic) is referred to as a "bottle" in the opening phrase. The term "bottle" in the second sentence refers to the material that the baby has consumed, most likely milk or another liquid.

2.4.4 Figure/Ground Reversal

When something is used as the object to describe the meaning of something else, it is known as figure/ground reversal.

For instance: "The window is damaged. The feline strolled by the window."

Explanation: In the first sentence, "window" refers to the glass pane that is physically broken. In the second sentence, "window" refers to the opening or space created by the broken glass pane through which the cat walked.

2.4.5 Product/producer alternation.

This category involves using a word to describe both the product and the producer of that product.

Example: "The editor of the newspaper was fired". Coffee was spilled by John on the newspaper.

Explanation: In the first sentence, "newspaper" refers to the business or establishment that disseminates the news. In the second sentence, "newspaper" refers to the actual newspaper that was spilled and contained news articles.

2.4.6 Process/result alternation.

Example: "The company and Honda are going to merge in the fall. The merger will lead to the production of more cars."

Explanation: The term "merger" in the first sentence describes the coming together of two businesses. The word "merger" in the second sentence refers to the outcome or result of that process, which is the rise in automobile production.

2.4.7 Alternations involving location.

This category uses place or location to explain something else. It includes:

a. Building/Institution:

For instance: "Last year, the university modified its admissions policy."

Justification: "University" refers to the actual building in some contexts and the institution in others.

b. Place/People:

For instance, "John visited New York."

The distinction between "New York" as a destination and "New York" as a group acting collectively is explained.

c. Capital/Government:

For instance, "Havana is accused by Washington of not doing enough for victims."

Interpretation: "Havana" refers to the city itself, not the people or activities that are connected to it.

These alternations highlight how words can have different meanings or implications depending on the context in which they are used, demonstrating polysemy in language.

2.5 Interactive Analysis Model Miles & Huberman

Miles and Huberman's interactive analysis model for qualitative research typically involves several stages that are iteratively conducted throughout the research process. Here are the four main stages:

2.5.1 Data Collection

This stage involves gathering qualitative data through methods such as interviews, observations, or document analysis. Data collection can be ongoing and iterative, allowing researchers to refine their focus as they proceed.

2.5.2 Data Reduction

During this stage, researchers begin to organize and condense the data. This often involves coding or categorizing information to identify key themes, patterns, or issues that emerge from the data. The goal is to simplify the data while retaining its richness and relevance.

2.5.3 Data Display

In this stage, researchers organize the coded data visually, often using matrices, diagrams, or charts. This step helps to facilitate comparison, identify relationships between different data points, and provide a clear overview of the findings.

2.5.4 Conclusion Drawing and Verification

Finally, researchers interpret the data to draw conclusions or develop theories based on their analysis. This stage involves synthesizing the findings, making sense of the patterns identified, and ensuring that conclusions are grounded in the data. Verification may involve member checking (confirming findings with participants) or peer debriefing (discussing findings with colleagues).

2.6 Film

A film, also known as a motion picture or movie, is a sequence of still images on film that are rapidly projected onto a screen by light. Persistence of vision is an

optical phenomenon that creates the appearance of real, fluid, and uninterrupted movement.

Film was indeed a transformative cultural and technological innovation of the modern era. It serves dual roles as a societal mirror, reflecting cultural norms, and as a provocateur, capable of distorting and reshaping those norms. Films have the unique ability to capture and interpret societal values, beliefs, and behaviors, presenting them back to audiences in ways that can either reaffirm or challenge their understanding of the world.

Film is a popular form of mass media that is excellent at evoking strong emotions and expressing drama. Making movies is an extremely complex craft that incorporates elements from nearly every other art form and a wealth of technical expertise (including sound recording, photography, and optics). Starting at the end of the 19th century, this new artistic movement went on to become one of the most influential and well-liked media of the 20th and following centuries. You should also watch "the history of film."

A language-like form of expression has been observed in many films. For example, the French poet and filmmaker Jean Cocteau referred to cinema as "picture writing."

2.6.1. Kinds of Film

The followings are kinds of film:

a. Documentary Films

Originating from the European Enlightenment, documentary films use visual documentation to support scientific projects and explore various subjects through non-fiction storytelling.

b. Historic Development of Film

Over the first century of moviemaking, films evolved from mere spectacles to central components of cultural expression, capturing imaginations with lifelike imagery and narratives.

c. Theatrical Films

Cinema's growth and influence throughout the 20th century placed it firmly within the cultural fabric of societies worldwide, shaping entertainment, art, and societal discourse.

d. Propaganda Films

Propaganda films aim to propagate specific ideas or opinions, often used as tools of persuasion by governments or political entities. They have been significant in various countries' histories, including the US, Germany, England, the USSR, and Japan.

e. Cartoons and Animated Films

Cartoons, particularly political or humorous, have been prominent in US culture, appearing in periodicals and evolving into animated films that entertain and convey messages through visual storytelling.

2.6.2. Violence in Films and Television

The portrayal of violence in mass media, including television and films, has been a persistent theme. It has sparked concerns among psychologists, social scientists, educators, and parents about its potential impact on audiences.

Most film enthusiasts think that great directors' intimate and imaginative works make the best movies. However, the movie theater has many social functions, and its "art" has helped to promote a large number of non-artistic film genres. These useful distinctions set apart movies into what are often called "modes," like fiction, experimentation, and documentaries. The documental format encompasses films that primarily depend on film's capacity to depict world events. The experimental includes a variety of approaches that have explored and tested the limits and possibilities of technology.

of the medium, including animated (nonphotographic) images and computer-generated images. The fictional is the genre that is most commonly referred to as "the movies". It has adopted long-standing cultural storytelling customs and developed a number of cinematic languages to tell its stories. Each of these three

modes can be further divided into genres, which are accepted classifications for stories or other forms.

A reboot of the Batman film franchise based on the DC Comics character, "The Batman" is an American superhero movie from 2022. Under Matt Reeves' direction, the Warner Bros. Pictures, DC Films, 6th & Idaho, and Dylan Clark Productions-produced movie stars Robert Pattinson as Bruce Wayne/Batman. Alongside Zoë Kravitz, Paul Dano, Jeffrey Wright, John Turturro, Peter Sarsgaard, Andy Serkis, and Colin Farrell, there are other notable actors in the cast.

Following the Riddler (Paul Dano), a serial killer who preys on Gotham's corrupt elite, Batman, who has been fighting crime in the city for two years, discovers corruption along the way.

After Ben Affleck was chosen to play Batman in the DC Extended Universe (DCEU) in 2013, the movie's development got underway. At first, Affleck committed to co-write, direct, produce, and star in "The Batman," but he eventually withdrew because of doubts about the project. After taking over, Matt Reeves revised the narrative, cutting out references to the DCEU and emphasizing Batman's investigative abilities more. Inspiration for Reeves came from the works of Alfred Hitchcock, the New Hollywood period, and comic books such as "Year One," "The Long Halloween," and "Ego."

In May 2019, Robert Pattinson was announced as the new Batman, and more casting announcements followed later that year. In January 2020, filming got underway in the UK, but the COVID-19 pandemic in March halted production. Later in the year, production picked back up, and by March 2021, it was completed in Chicago.

"The Batman" premiered at the Lincoln Center in Manhattan on March 1, 2022, and was theatrically released on March 4. It became a commercial success, grossing \$771 million against a budget estimated between \$185–200 million, making it one of the highest-grossing films of 2022. The film received positive reviews from critics for its dark tone, performances, and portrayal of Batman's detective skills.

"The Batman" was nominated for three Oscars at the 95th Academy Awards and won several other awards. With three spin-off television shows in development for HBO Max and two planned sequels, it's meant to usher in a shared universe for Batman. October 3, 2025 is when "The Batman – Part II," the first sequel, is supposed to come out.

2.7 Previous Research

In this study, I referred to three previous studies that related to this research topic.

The first is Nadiem Makarim's Polysemy Analysis of the Speech about Learning from Covid-19 is the title of the first study. The aims of this research were to: (1) characterize the various forms of polysemy; (2) clarify the means by which the various forms of polysemy are achieved; and (3) examine the polysemy components employed in speech. The descriptive qualitative method is applied in this investigation. The documentation method was used to collect the data from Nadiem Makrim's speech. Next, data reduction, data visualization, conclusion drawing, and verification are used in this study's analysis.

The second is POLYSEMOUS WORDS IN "THIS MEANS WAR" MOVIE by Atika Puspasari and Bambang Adi Subroto is the title of the second study. The three primary objectives of this research project were to determine the most common types of polysemy used in the film "This Means War," the definitions of polysemous words used by the main characters, and the identification of the polysemous words used by the main characters. The researchers used both a qualitative method and a descriptive approach in this study.

The third study is entitled *Polysemous In Fast and Furious 8 Movie Script*. by Indah and Sonia Putri. This study examines the polysemous found in the script for the Fast and Furious 8 film. The study's goals were to identify the predominant type of polysemous in the Fast and Furious 8 movie script and to explain the definitions of the script's polysemous words. The data used in this study came from the script for the Fast and Furious movie script.

The 56 pages that made up the script were all used as the data. This study used a qualitative approach to research.

There are similarities and differences between my thesis and the 3 previous studies above. All of them explain the topic of polysemy. The second and third study are similar to my thesis because both analyze the movie. The first is different from my study because it uses the speech as the object of the research.

The following is a table that describes the similarities and differences between my research and three previous studies.

Title	Similarity	Differences
POLYSEMOUS IN FAST AND FURIOUS 8 MOVIE SCRIPT	Both explain about Polysemy	The First Topic Explains About Movie Scripts
POLYSEMOUS WORDS IN “THIS MEANS WAR” MOVIE	Both explain about Polysemy	The second topic is the same as the first
POLYSEMY ANALYSIS OF THE SPEECH ABOUT LEARNING FROM COVID-19 BY NADIEM MAKARIM	Both explain about Polysemy	And the third topic explains speech

Table 2.7. Previous Studies