Semantics [sɪ'mæntɪks]; [sə'mantiks]

is the branch of linguistics and logic concerned with meaning.

Semantics [sɪ'mæntɪks]; [sə'mantiks]

is the study of the meaning of words, phrases and sentences.

Semantics [sɪ'mæntɪks]; [sə'mantiks]

Linguistic semantics deals with the <u>conventional meaning</u> conveyed by the use of words and sentences of a language.

Levels of Language

Phonology	Morphology & Semantics	Prosody	Syntax	Pragmatics
The sound system of a language (phonemes)	How a language expresses meaning (morphemes, words)	How melody used to create meaning	The structure of a language. Rules for combining words	How language is used



Semantics is the study of meaning in language. It is a wide subject within the general study of language.

Understanding semantics is essential to the study of <u>language acquisition</u> (how language users acquire a sense of meaning, as speakers and writers, listeners and readers). It is also essential to the study of **language change** (how meanings alter over time).

It is important for understanding language in social contexts, as these are likely to affect meaning, and for understanding varieties of English and effects of style. It is thus one of the most fundamental concepts in linguistics. The study of semantics includes the study of how meaning is constructed, interpreted, clarified, obscured, illustrated, simplified, negotiated, contradicted, and paraphrased.

Some important areas of semantic theory or related subjects include these:

- ✓ Symbol and referent;
- Conceptions of meaning;
- ✓ Words and lexemes;
- Denotation, connotation, implication;
- ✓ Pragmatics;
- ✓ Ambiguity;
- Metaphor, simile and symbol;
- ✓ Semantic fields etc.

Some important **areas of semantic theory** or related subjects include these:

- ✓ Synonym, antonym and hyponym;
 Collocation, fixed expression and idiom;
 Semantic change and etymology;
- ✓ Polysemy;
- Homonymy, homophones and homographs
- Lexicology and lexicography
- ✓ Thesauruses, libraries and Web portals
- ✓ Epistemology
- ✓ Colour.

The noun semantics and the adjective semantic are derived from the Greek word semantikos ("significant").

In linguistics, semantics is the subfield that is devoted to the study of meaning, as borne on the syntactic levels of words, phrases, sentences, and sometimes larger units of discourse, generically referred to as texts linguistics – texts.

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 The study of the linguistic meaning of morphemes, words, phrases, and sentences is called Semantics.

Denotation (referents) is the set of entities to which a linguistic unit (a word) refers.

The denotation of the word summer corresponds to the season between spring and autumn (regardless of whether or not it is hot and unpleasant).

One approach to semantics attempts to equate meaning with denotation.

The denotational aspect of lexical meaning:

a) expresses the notional content of a word.b) is the component of the lexical meaning that makes communication possible.

- Connotation is the set of associations that a word's use can evoke (bring to mind):
- For Canadians, the word winter evokes thoughts of: snow, bitter cold, long nights, and the like.
- These associations make up the word's connotation, but they cannot be its (entire) meaning:
- The word winter is used for the season (December to March) even if none of the above is experienced. Therefore, we must look beyond connotation for our understanding of what meaning is.

- The connotational aspect of lexical meaning is the part of meaning which reflects the attitude of the speaker towards what he speaks about.
- Connotation conveys additional information in the process of communication.

Maybe all the types of meanings of words are somewhat hard to count. E.g. these may include:

- Common denotation or individual reference, practiced by sb in a certain situation;
- Emotion of the speaker or a rhetoric set, causing emotion in the listener;
- Some gradable evaluative components;
- Social Register or some distinct discourse markedness;
- Eloquent etymology meaningful inner form of a word;
- > Pragmatic meaning (or message) etc.

Word /verb/	Denotational Component	Connotational Component	Type of connotation
to glare	to look	1. steadily, lastingly	connotation of duration
		2. in anger, rage etc.	emotive connotation; causal connotation.
to glance	to look	briefly, passingly	connotation of duration
to gaze	to look	steadily, lastingly in tenderness and admiration	connotation of duration + emotive connotation





Word /noun	Denotational Component	Collocational Component	Type of connotation
hovel ['hʌ-] ['hɔv(ə)l],	a place where one lives	miserable / wretched hovel	evaluative [ɪ'væljuətɪv] connotation
hut [hʌt]	a small single-story building of simple or crude construction, serving as a poor, rough, or temporary house or shelter	a mud-walled hut	evaluative [ɪ'væljuətɪv] connotation
mansion [mæn∫(ə)n]	A mansion is a very large house, stately home; the residence. Opulent['opjulant] is ostentatiously rich and luxurious or lavish	Large, impressive, opulent mansion with every imaginable [I'mædʒɪnəbl] luxury	evaluative [ɪ'væljuətɪv] connotation
manor ['mænə]	a large private estate house in the country, usually built in the Middle Ages, also includes the land and smaller buildings.	an imposing 17th- century baronial manor house	evaluative [ɪ'væljuətɪv] connotation
shack [ʃæk]	a roughly built hut or cabin	dilapidated / run- down shack; jerry- built shack	evaluative [ɪ'væljuətɪv] connotation

Word	Denotatio n	Conotation	Synonyms	Antomyms	Etymology:	Observations
legal [<u>liː</u> g(ə)l]						
lawful ['lɔːf(ə)l], [-ful]						
loyal [lɔ <u>ɪə</u> l]						
juridical [ʤuə'rɪ dɪk(ə)l]						

Word	Denotatio n	Conotation	Synonyms	Antomyms	Etymology:	Observations
legal [<u>liː</u> g(ə)l]	is used to describe things that relate to the law.	An action / situation that is legal is allowed or required by law.	judicial , juridical , forensic lawful , legitimate , licit , within the law ,	illegal	from Latin lēgālis, from Latin lēx law	from French, or from Latin legalis, from lex, leg- 'law'. Compare with loyal
lawful ['lɔːf(ə)l], [-ful]	is allowed by law.	Conforming to, permitted by, or recognized by law or rules ; within the law	Legal, legitimate, licit, just, permitted, allowed, rightful, sanctioned, authorized,	unlawful , illegal , criminal	Origin: Old English lagu, from Old Norse lag 'something laid down or fixed', of Germanic origin and related to lay	<pre>compare Icelandic log () things laid down, law - lawful blanket = ? - lawful jam = ?</pre>
loyal [lว <u>ıə</u> l]	having or showing continuing allegiance [ə'liːʤ(ə) n(t)s]	faithful to one's country, government, etc	Syn: faithful	treacher- ous	Etymology: from Old French loial, leial , from Latin lēgālis	
juridical [ʤuə'rɪ dɪk(ə)l]	relating to administra / the law, o or functio	law, to the ation of justice or to the office n of a judge:	legal , juristic	juristic [dʒuəˈrɪstɪk] of or relating to		from Latin jūridicus, from iūs law + dicere to say

Word	Denotational Component	Conotational Component	Synonyms
legal [<u>liː</u> g(ə)l]	is used to describe things that relate to the law.	An action or situation that is legal is allowed or required by law.	judicial, juridical, forensic lawful, legitimate, licit, within the law, legalized, valid; permissible, permitted, allowable, allowed, aboveboard, admissible, acceptable; authorized, sanctioned, licensed, constitutional; recognized, enforceable,



Pretty – handsome – beautiful

Pretty – handsome – beautiful;

special types of human beauty:

- beautiful is mostly associated with classical features and a perfect figure;
- handsome with a tall stature, a certain robustness and fine proportions,
- pretty with small delicate features and a fresh complexion.

Subfields of semantics

Subfields of semantics are:

1. lexical (of or relating to the vocabulary, words, or morphemes of a language) semantics, which is concerned with the meanings of words, and the meaning relationships among words;

2. phrasal or sentential semantics, which is concerned with the meaning of syntactic units larger than the word.

Pragmatics versus Semantics

The study of how **context** affects meaning is called **Pragmatics**.

For example, the sentence "It's cold in here" can be interpreted in certain situations as "close the windows".

Pragmatics versus Semantics

• Pragmatics:

 Pragmatics is a systematic way of explaining language use in context.

 It seeks to explain aspects of meaning which cannot be found in the plain sense of words or structures, as explained by semantics.

Ex: "It is cold in here"

(Implicature: request to close the window)

Semantics/pragmatics distinction:

not always easy to draw.

Branches of Semantics

o formal semantics;

olexical semantics;

oconceptual semantics.

o formal semantics

studies the logical aspects of meaning, such as sense, reference, implication, and logical form. *lexical semantics*studies word meanings and word relations. *conceptual semantics*studies the cognitive structure of meaning.

Branches of Semantics

sememe ['sɛmiːm, 'siːm-]

is the unit of meaning carried by a morpheme Origin: early 20th cent.: from seme + -eme

Compare with semanteme

seme ['siːm-]

 an elementary unit of meaning
 noun another term for semanteme Origin: mid 19th cent.: from Greek sēma 'sign' <u>Compare with semanteme</u>

semanteme [sɪ'mæntiːm]

is a minimal distinctive unit of meaning

Compare with sememe

Theories of Meaning

- There are two traditional schools of theories of meaning: (1) the reference theory
- and

(2) the representation theory.

Some have been trying to establish definitions of the meanings of words so that the meaning of linguistic expressions can be given. Saeed (1997) calls it **(3) the definition theory.**

The referential theory

(1) The referential theory holds that a linguistic sign derives its meaning from something in the reality. For example, words like man, fish, are meaningful in that they each refer to an individual or a collection of living beings existing in the reality. However, some linguistic signs, like ghost, dragon, unicorn, merely denote something imaginative.
The representational theory

(2) The representational theory

The representational theory holds that language in general, and words in particular, are only an **icon** (or representation) for an actual thing (or form) being symbolized.

In other words, they conjure ['kʌndʒə] in our minds pictures of the things, happenings and ideas. But there are a number of function words, such as a, an, the, or, which "conjure" no pictures of this kind.

Typologies of Meaning

Types of meaning

According to Leech (1981), there exist **seven types of meaning**, five of which are included in the associative meaning.

> The pragmatics of politeness. By Geoffrey Leech. (Oxford studies in sociolinguistics.) New York: Oxford University Press, 2014. Pp. xvi, 343.

Typologies of Meaning

Conceptual meaning

This refers to the definition given in the dictionary. It is widely assumed to be the central factor in linguistic communication and is integral to the essential functioning of language.

For example, man can be defined by the contrastive features [+Human], [+Male], [+Adult], as distinct from girl, which can be defined as [+Human], [-Male], [-Adult].

Typologies of Meaning

Associative meaning

This refers to the meaning associated with the conceptual meaning, which can be further divided into following five types: Connotative (内涵的) meaning: the communicative value attributed to an expression over and above its purely conceptual meaning. woman.

polysemy ['pplisi:mi, pə'lisimi]

When we talk about the meaning of words, we often talk as if each word has only one meaning. This is rarely the case. This ability of words to carry with them a number of meanings is called polysemy and you can read more about this in Yule (2010, 120) and in more detail in Section 5.3 of Riemer (2010, 160ff.).

polysemy ['pplisi:mi, pə'lisimi]

When we have two lexemes that sound the same/are spelled the same but whose meanings appear to be totally unrelated to each other, we talk about homonymy. You can read about this in Yule (2010, 120) and in more detail in Section 5.3 in Riemer (2010). It is not always easy to decide whether we

have polysemy or homonymy.

Componential analysis of the word 'bachelor

According to the dictionary it has 4 meanings:

a man who has never married (холостяк);
 a young knight (рыцарь);
 someone with a first degree (бакалавр);
 a young male unmated fur seal
 (морской котик) during the mating season.



another knight]

the breeding time]



Conceptual and Associative Meaning

Conceptual Meaning covers the basic, essential components of meaning which are conveyed by the literal use of a word. E.g. needle : *thin , sharp, steel, instrument.* Associative Meaning is the idea, connection what that specific word brings to you. E.g needle: *painfuL*

synonym ['sınənım] antonym ['æntənım]

In fact some words have almost the same meaning, and some have the opposite meaning to each other; that is, the meanings of words can be related to each other.

Such relationships between the meanings of words are called <u>lexical relations</u>. Take, for example, two relations: that of similarity (the technical term is synonymy) and that of contrast or oppositeness (the term is antonymy).

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- Synonymy : 2 or more forms with very closely related meanings.
- e.g broad wide, hide conceal
- Antonyms: 2 forms of with opposite meaning.
 e.g quick slow . big small
- Gradable Antonyms : Antonyms that can be used in comparative constructions.

e.g bigger than – smaller than the negative of one member of the pair <u>does not</u> <u>necessarily imply the other</u>

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 e.g quick slow . big small
- Gradable Antonyms : Antonyms that can be used in comparative constructions.

e.g bigger than – smaller than

the negative of one member of the pair <u>does not</u> <u>necessarily imply the other.</u>

e.g. That dog is not old. (It does not have to mean "that dog is young")

Non–Gradable Antonyms

(Complementary Pairs):

Comparative constructions are not normally used, and the negative of one member does imply the other.

e.g. deader / more dead => not possible

e.g. that person is not dead : that person is alive. Reversies

They do the opposite of the other action. e.g. tie – untie , enter – exit <u>.</u>

Hyponymy

When the meaning of one form is included in the meaning of another, the relationship is described as hyponymy. e.g.rose-flower, carrot-vegetable rose is a hyponymy of flower - carrot is a hyponymy of vegetable Co – Hyponymy / Super ordinate Animal (super ordinate) => horse / dog / bird Horse, dog, bird => co- hyponymys of animal

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Homophony

When two or more different written forms have the same pronounciation they are described as **homophones**.

e.g. *bear – bare , meet – meat, write - right* Homonymy

We use the term homonymy when one form (written or spoken) has two or more unrealted meanings. e.g. bank (bank – of a river) , (bank – financial institution)

Polysemy

when one form (written and spoken) has multiple meanings which are all related by extension. e. g . head => top of your body / top of a glass of beer / top of a company

Metonymy

A type of relation between words based simply on a close connection in everyday experience. e.g.

bottle – coke (a container – contents relation)

- car wheels (a whole part relation)
- king crown (a representative symbol relation)

Collocation (What about phrase building???) the words that naturally go together. e.g. hammer – nail table – chair salt – pepper They frequently occur together.

synonyms are antonyms

Two words with a similar meaning might have <u>different connotations</u>, for example **plump** is generally positive, whereas fat is generally negative.

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synonyms are antonyms

Words may belong to different registers; for example, peeved is informal whereas angry can be used both in informal and in formal discourse; You are likely to find palpate in medical discourse whereas touch is not marked in this way and can appear anywhere, including in casual conversation.

antonyms are (non-) gradable

antonyms like open and closed are non-gradable, whereas antonyms like hot and cold are gradable: hot - lukewarm [_luːk'wɔːm] - cold

antonyms are (non-) gradable

antonyms like open and closed are non-gradable, whereas antonyms like hot and cold are gradable: hot - lukewarm [_luːk'wɔːm] - cold

There are two more sense relations : hyponymy and meronymy. Hyponymy is known as the 'kind of' relation. It obtains between words like dog and animal – a dog is a 'kind of' animal; if something is a dog, it is an animal. Dog is called a hyponym of animal, and animal is a superordinate of dog.

Read more about hyponymy in Yule (2010, 118–119) and in Section 5.1.3 in Riemer (2010, 142ff.). It is easy to represent hyponymy with a tree structure like the one below:

1 animal

- 2 dog / cat / cow / fish / etc.
- 3 poodle / terrier / spaniel /collie etc.

Meronymy, on the other hand, is the 'part of' relationship. Words like arm and body are in a <u>meronymic relationship</u>: the arm is a part of the body. The arm has parts itself: for example, the hand is part of the arm. And the finger is a part of the hand.

One of the properties of semantic relations is transitivity.

Let's take a relation R and assume that A is in such a relation to B, and B is in such a relation to C. If the relationship is transitive, then A will be in this relation to C. Transitivity is not a property of lexical relations only. 'Bigger than' is a transitive relation. If a number X is bigger than Y and Y is bigger than Z, then X is bigger than Z.

There are many different ways to approach the problems of meaning, since meaning is related to many different functions of language. The meanings of words in a language are interrelated and they are defined in part by their relations with other words in the language.

Analyzed in the same semantic domain, words can be classified according to shared and differentiating features. Breaking down the sense of a word into its minimal distinctive features, componential analysis of meaning can be a useful approach in the study of meaning, particularly in determining the meaning of a lexeme.

Although componential analysis has some difficulties and limitations in its application, it is still used effectively in modern linguistics. **Componential analysis** The meaning of a lexeme is a complicated structure where elements of meaning have definite interrelation (Crystal, 1987: 104).

All semantic elements in a word are not equally important. One (or some) of them is the dominant semantic element and it organizes around itself all the other ones, which may be more or less important for the meaning of a lexeme (Lyons J, 1995: 108 and Leech, 1983: 89).
- A lexeme can be analyzed and described in terms of its semantic components, which help to define different lexical relations, grammatical and syntactic processes.
- The semantic structure of a lexeme is treated as a system of meanings.

To some extent we can define a lexeme by telling what set it belongs to and how it differs from other members of the same set.

Procedural Steps in Componential analysis Procedural Steps in the Componential Analysis of Meaning: Componential analysis (CA) can only be done within the same semantic domain. There are three basic steps in the procedure for determining the diagnostic features (Nida, 1975: 48), they are:

Procedural Steps in **Componential analysis** The three basic steps in the procedure for determining the diagnostic features are: a. determining the common features and line up all the apparently relevant differences in form and possibly related functions; b. studying the relations of the features to one another, in order to determine the redundancies and dependencies; and c. formulating a set of diagnostic features and testing such a set for adequacy.

The meaning of a word can be considered as the sum of some smaller elements or components. Think about the meaning of the following words: man, woman, boy and girl. What definitions can you formulate for the meaning of each word? Here are definitions adapted from a popular dictionary of English:

man: an adult male human /person woman: an adult female human / person boy: a male child girl: a female child.

Being human is common to all the definitions. The definition of man makes this explicit, but it is there in the other definitions too, because 'human' is something which is part of the meaning of both 'person' and 'child'. We could say that 'human' is a component in the meaning of all these words.

The definitions of man and woman share another component, again made explicit by the dictionary: that of being adult. By contrast, both boy and girl contain the component 'child' (in other words, NOT adult).

Man and boy share the component male, whereas woman and girl share the component 'female'. We can summarise this visually in the following way:

Componential analysis					
	human	adult	female		
man	+	+	—		
woman	+	+	+		
boy	+	—	—		
girl	+	—	+		

However, which label we choose for our components is arbitrary; we could have just as easily used a component +/- child, or +/- male.

Kinship terms	[MALE]	[ASCEND]	[DESCEND]	[LINEAL]
Father	+	+	-	+
Mother	-	+	-	+
Uncle	+	+	-	-
Aunt	-	+	-	-
Brother	+	-	-	+
Sister	-	-	-	+
Son	+	-	+	+
daughter	-	-	+	+
Nephew	+	-	+	-
Niece	-	-	+	-
Causin	+/-	-	-	-

Table 2. The matrix of kinship terms (Jackson, 1996: 82)

- +1 generation
- 0 generation
- -1 generation

father	Mother	uncle	Aunt	
Ego		Brother	Sister	cousin
son	Daughter	Nephew	niece	

Tabel 3. The diagnostic features of kinship terms

Linguistic Basis for Componential Analysis The actual linguistic procedures employed in CA consists of four types, they are naming, paraphrasing, defining, and classifying. If elicitation of usage is carefully conducted and if the results of such a procedure are carefully checked against spontaneous utterances, there is every reason to believe that the results of using the four basic processes of naming, paraphrasing, defining, and classifying can be essentially accurate (Nida, 1975: 64-66).

a. naming

The process of naming is in certain respects similar to reference, though the perspective is somewhat different. Reference is usually described as the relation established between linear unit and a referent, while naming is the specific act of designating a referent.

b. paraphrasing

Paraphrasing is also an important linguistic function and one can spell out the distinctive features of any semantic unit by employing certain types of paraphrases. Uncle can be paraphrased into my father's brother or my mother's brother.

c. defining

The process of defining would seem to be simply another form of paraphrase, but defining is a highly specialized form of paraphrase and is rarely used in actual language situations. It consists essentially in combining all the various specific paraphrases into a single statement based on the diagnostic components of the particular meaning in question. Uncle may be defined as the brother of one's father or mother or the husband of one's aunt.

d. classifying

It involves a triple procedure: (1) lumping together those units which have certain features in common, (2) separating out those units which are distinct from one another, and (3) determining the basis for such groupings.

d. classifying

Classification is never merely a process of putting referents into conceptual files for the basic kinship terms in English, it is essential to establish the features of sex, generation, degree of linearity, and consanguinity- affinal distinction.

CA contributions to the Study of Meaning. Componential analysis has a useful part to play in contributing to the description of meanings of lexemes (Jackson, 2009: 91-92). Here are some of the contributions:

CA contributions to the Study of Meaning.

a. Understanding synonymy.

A pair of true synonyms will share the same set of semantic components.

For example, adult and grown-up have the same components [+HUMAN] [+ADULT].

CA contributions to the Study of Meaning. b. Establishing degrees of synonymy. We may talk of looser synonymy where a pair of lexemes have some but not all semantic components in common. For example, barn and shed would be looser synonyms. They share components [BUILDING], [STORAGE], but barn has additional component of [FARM] and perhaps that of [FOR CEREALS], while shed has perhaps the additional component [HOUSE].

CA contributions to the Study of Meaning. c. Understanding antonymy.

A pair of antonyms usually share all their components except one, e.g man and woman share the components [+CONCRETE], [+ANIMATE], [+HUMAN], but they are contrasted by the component [MALE].

CA contributions to the Study of Meaning.d. Understanding the sense relation of hyponymy.Hyponymy refers to the relation of inclusion of meaning, e.g. the fact that the meaning of rat is included in the meaning of rodent ['rəud(ə)nt].

CA contributions to the Study of Meaning.
e. Helping translator to produce accurate translation.
CA determines the essential features of meaning of lexical units, which is very useful in doing translation (Nida, 1975: 7).

Sample of seme [siːm] analysis [ə'næləsıs] block diagram ['daɪəgræm]

most general	what sort of	what kind of	gender	age	kids	status	distinguisher
BEING							
	LIVING						
		HUMAN					
			FEMALE				
				ADULT			
					CHILDLESS		
						NOT MARRIED	
							ON PRINCIPLE

General shortcomings and difficulties of the method

- The discovery procedures for semantic features are not clearly objectifiable.
- Only part of the vocabulary can be described through more or less structured sets of features.
- Metalinguistic features are expressed through language again.
- Features used may not have clear definitions.

Limited in focus and mechanical in style.

A number of fundamental difficulties are involved in determining the diagnostic components of the meanings of semantic unit (Nida, 1975: 61-64).

a. The lack of an adequate metalanguage with which to describe some of the diversities. It is difficult enough to speak of distinctions in color, so that a contiguous [kan'tigjuas] series such as violet, blue, purple, green, yellow, orange, and red can be properly described in terms of diagnostic components. Another obvious example involves the semantic domain of odors: stink, smell, stench, and malodor, or the semantic domain of noises: scream, screech, squeak, and squeal.

b. Meanings which constitute a contiguous set. The meaning of even in contexts such as even john kissed Marry, John even kissed Marry, and John kissed even Marry is paralleled to some extent by only, e.g. only John kissed Marry, John only kissed marry, and John kissed only Marry. The related meanings of even, only, and just are contiguous, therefore one must look for other sets of contrast to provide the basis for componential analysis.

c. Some terms which primarily differ only in the degree of intensity.

There may be no absolute feature which marks the difference but by only a relative contrast. Toss and hurl may be regarded as types of throwing, but the major difference is one of intensity, and accordingly one must reckon with a continuum on which there is no fixed boundary between the two. The speed at which a professional baseball player may toss a ball may be much faster than the speed at which some amateur ball players can hurl.

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d. The meanings of certain terms exist only in one's passive vocabulary.

One may, for example, have a general idea of the meanings of saunter, stroll, and meander, as referring to ways of walking, but the fact that these terms are not in one's active vocabulary tends to make it difficult to determine how and to what extent such meanings differ.

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e. The diversity of view points, especially in describing spatial relations.

For a house one can speak of behind and in front of, since a house is regarded as having a back and front. But when one speaks of behind a tree and in front of a tree, the spatial relation must be relative to a view point character or existing situation. Time involves similar difficulties.

f. The meaning of many abstract terms.

It involves a number of complications because of their potential syntagmatic relations to so many events and entities.

A word such as lousy may occur with a vast number of different semantic heads, e.g. lousy meal, lousy person, lousy time, lousy deal, lousy weather, lousy grades, lousy book, lousy performance, etc.

None of which have anything to do with a louse.

g. A word can have different meanings in different fields.

The word competence is used in the fields of linguistics, education and psychology, and they define and use it in different ways and contexts. h. Deixis terms.

The different meanings and use of "there and here" and "this and that" depend primarily on space and time.
Componential analysis

i. Distinctions may be based on relations rather than on physical features.

Certain aspects of complications have already been noted in the discussions of kinship terms, but meanings reflected in such terms as friend, partner, colleague, and associate are even more difficult to analyze.

j. The componential analysis becomes much more complex when the relation describe logical arrangements, as with if, though, because, in order to, etc.

Componential analysis

Componential analysis is also limited in its range of applicability as it does not apply easily to all areas of the vocabulary.

Semantic components, when they can be identified, have a discriminatory function and they add to our understanding of the meaning of a lexeme by providing points of contrast with semantically related lexemes.

The meaning of a lexeme must also involve a number of perspectives, e.g. denotation, sense relations, and collocation.

When people think of birds, they often think of flying. And yet there arebirds that can't fly: penguins and ostriches for example.

We also associate birds with wings. But bats have wings (and fly) and yet they are not birds.

Prototypicality is the other way round you can try to exlain the meaning of words. It is linked, to some extent, to the difficulties people might have in constructing a definition of words which will describe their meaning exactly and precisely

Many speakers of English the most typical bird is the **robin**. In other words, we could talk about <u>prototypical and</u> <u>less prototypical examples of a certain</u> <u>category</u>.

Prototypicality can be a useful notion, in a way, when you discuss colours as well.

George Lakoff and Mark Johnson, Metaphors we live by. Chicago and London: The University of Chicago Press, 1980. Pp. xiii + 242.

ARGUMENT IS WAR Your claims are indefensible. He attacked every weak point in my argument. His criticisms were right on target. I demolished his argument. I've never won an argument with him. You disagree? Okay, shoot! If you use that strategy, he'll wipe you out. He shot down all my arguments.