

Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research

Tikrit University

English Department



Lexical and Sense Relations

Presented by:

Jassim Mohammed Ahmed

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Prof.Dr.Muhammed Barjes Salman

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Introduction

Semantics is the study of the meaning of words, phrases and sentences. . In semantic analysis, there is always an attempt to focus on what the words conventionally mean, rather than on what an individual speaker might think they mean, or want them to mean, on a particular occasion. That is carried by linguistics which is concerned with linguistic meaning that is shared by all competent users of the language (Yule, 2017:320).

A **sense** is the set of conditions on a word's denotation. So, for example, if I use *green* in *the green grapefruit* or *the green army fatigues*, the two uses do not have different senses even though (a) in the first (but not the second) case it signals unripeness (and hence connotes sourness) and (b) the referent (i.e., the shade of green) is different in the two cases. In both cases, the same conditions of reference applied, namely, whether the color of the item fits within a certain range of hues (Murphy, 2003:30) (Saeed, 2016:52) states the traditional descriptive aims of lexical semantics have been:

- to represent the meaning of each word in the language; and
- to show how the meanings of words in a language are interrelated.

These aims are closely related because the meaning of a word is defined in part by its relations with other words in the language.

1. Lexical Relation

Words can also have "relationships" with each other. In everyday talk, we often explain the meanings of words in terms of their relationships. If we are asked the meaning of the word *conceal*, for example, we might simply say, "It is the same as *hide*," or give the meaning of *shallow* as "the opposite of *deep*," or the meaning of *pine* as "a kind of tree." In doing so, we are characterizing the meaning of each word, not in terms of its component features, but in terms of its relationship to other words. This approach is used in the semantic description of language and treated as the analysis of **lexical relations** (Yule, 2017:330).

1.1 Synonyms

Crystal (2008:470) says that **synonymy** is a term used in semantics to refer to a major type of sense relation between lexical items: lexical items which have the same meanings are synonyms.

Hartmann & Stork (1972:230) define synonymy as „one of two or more words with identical meaning. True or pure synonyms, i.e. words which

can be substituted for each other in all contexts are rare, e.g. *buy-purchase* or *stop-occlusive*.”

Synonymy differs from the other relations, defined by specifying what is similar among the words rather than what is different. synonymy relies on our knowledge about words – if it is a part of what we know about two words is that they have different forms, then they are potential synonyms (Murphy, 2003:137).

1.1. Lexical Relations of Synonyms

Synonym judgments might be made in a number of procedural contexts, such as asking “what” is a good synonym for x?” or trying to paraphrase some text. It constrains these judgments, but they are further constrained by the context of the specific synonym judgment task. Since synonym analyses requires that two synonyms have relevant similarities with reference to a context, two words that are similar enough to be synonyms in the “neutral” context of (1) might not be similar enough for the particular sentential context in (2), but might be perfectly well suited to another sentential context, as in (3).

1. What’s a synonym for *prize*? – *Award*.
2. The plaintiff received a hefty award ($\neq$ prize) in the lawsuit.
3. Jan won the prize/award for the best drawing(ibid).

There are three kinds of synonyms which are:

1. **Total synonymy**: total synonymy is described by some words as perfect, complete, absolute actual or full synonymy. Total synonymy is two lexical units which is totally alike and exchangeable as well as have a identical meaning. For example (cruse,1986:)

- *He is a big boy.*
- *He is a large boy.*

2. **Partial synonymy**: refers to lexical items which are cognitive sameness in certain context. These two item of synonym words are best represented as:

. *I will go to the market and get/buy some bread.*

These two word is used alike. But in other sentences, it may be wrong to be exchangeable (Lyon,1969:452).

3. **Near synonymy**: expressions that are more or less similar but identical meaning. For example *mist-fog*, *stream-brook*. We can deny one but accept the other:

5. *It was not *foggy* yesterday - it was just *misty*.

1.2 Antonym

Murphy (2003:181) explains **antonym** has been claimed to be irreflexive, symmetric, and intransitive. Antonyms are irreflexive in that a lexical unit cannot be an antonym of itself. While antonyms are logically symmetric (if A is the opposite of B, then B is the opposite of A), for example: *tall* is the opposite of *short* and *short* is the opposite of *long*, but this does not make *tall* the opposite of *long*. There are two kinds of antonym which are:

1. **Gradable antonym:** refer to opposites along a scale. We can use gradable antonyms in comparative constructions involving adjectives: I'm *smaller* than you and *slower*, *sadder*, *colder*, *shorter* and *older*, but luckily quite a bit *richer*.

2. **Relational antonym:** the pair of words in this type are the reversal relationship of words. (Palmer,1981: gives some examples *buy-sell*, *give-receive*, *parents-child*. According to this type there is a relationship between the words, for example parent and child , some one cannot be called parent if he/she does not have a child and vice versa.

Also, the negative of one member of a gradable pair does not necessarily imply the other. For example, '*my car isn't old*' doesn't have to mean My car is new(Yule,2017:332).

3. **Non-gradable antonyms:** are antonyms which do not admit a midpoint, such as *male-female* or *pass-fail*. An assertion of one of these typically entails the denial of the other, and comparative constructions are not normally used. We don't typically describe someone as *deader* or *more dead* than another. Thus, if someone is female, they are necessarily not male, and someone who has failed an exam has necessarily not passed it (Riemer,2010:137).

In its most general sense, **antonym** refers collectively to all types of semantic oppositeness (**antonyms**), with various subdivisions then being made, Some linguists have reserved the term for a particular type of oppositeness: graded antonyms are referred to as „antonyms“, the other type just illustrated being referred to as complementaries. It is a matter of controversy how many types of opposites one should usefully recognize in semantic analysis, and the use of the term „antonym“ must always be viewed with caution (Crystal, 2008:28-29).

1.3 Homonymy

Homonymy is the situation where a single phonological form possesses unrelated meanings. A good example of a homonym is provided by the English verb pronounced [weɪv], and spelt wave or waive, depending on the meaning (Riemer, 2010:161).

We use the term **homonyms** when one form (written or spoken) has two or more unrelated meanings, as in these examples:

- *bat* (flying creature) – *bat* (used in sports)
- *mole* (on skin) – *mole* (small animal)
- *pen* (writing instrument) – *pen* (enclosed space)

- *sole* (single) – *sole* (part of foot or shoe)

The temptation is to think that the two types of *bat* must be related in meaning. They are not. Homonyms are words that have separate histories and meanings, but have accidentally come to have exactly the same form (Yule, 2017:3360).

1. **Partial homonymy**: are the identity covers both spoken and written forms where the identity is within a single medium.

- *Meat-meet* - *right-write* (Crystal, 2008:231).

2. **Full homonymy**: those are homonymy that have the same pronunciation and the same spelling but different meaning. For example:

- *Pupil* (in the eye).
- *Pupil* (in the school).

1.4 Homophone

Homophone is a term used in semantic analysis to refer to words (i.e. lexemes) which have the same pronunciation, but differ in meaning.

Homophones are a type of **homonymy**. Homophony is illustrated from such pairs as *threw/through* and *rode/rowed*.

One of two or more words which are identical in sound but different in meaning and/or spelling, e.g. English *heir* and *air* *bare/bear* *flour/flower* *meat/meet* *pail/pale* *pair/pear* *right/write* *sew/so* *to/too/two* (Hartmann&Stork, 1972:105).

1.5 Polysemy

Polysemy is written or spoken having multiple meanings that are all related by extension. Examples are the word *head* is used to refer to The object on top of your body,

1. Froth on top of a glass of beer,
2. A person at the top of a company or department or school.

The different uses of a single word are examples of **homonymy** or polysemy, we can check in a dictionary. If the word has multiple meanings (i.e. it is polysemy). Examples like *face*, *foot*, *get*, *head* and *run* are treated as polysemy. Whereas words like *bat*, *mail*, *mole*, and *sole* are treated as homonyms (Yule,2017:337).

1.6 Homograph

Crystal (2008:230) refer to words (i.e. lexemes) which have the same spelling but differ in meaning.

Hartmann & Stork (1972:104) state that **homographs** are one of two or more words which are identical in spelling, but different in meaning, e.g. *lead* 'to guide' and *lead* 'metal'.

Hartmann & Stork (1972:105) define **homonym** as 'one of two or more words which are identical in sound, but different in meaning, e.g.

flour and *flower*. If they are also identical in spelling they may also be called **homographs**, e.g. *rest* 'remainder' and *rest* 'to relax.'

Homonyms may be derived from the same word by a split in semantic meaning, e.g. *game* 'organized play' and 'object of hunt'.

1.7 Metonymy

Hartmann & Stork (1972:141) say that **metonymy** is a type of semantic relation in which the meaning of a word or group of words is changed by using it for another word with which it is connected, e.g. the *bar* to refer to 'lawyer's profession' or *kettle* to refer to 'water' (in the kettle is boiling). The **metonymy** has three relations which are the close connection can be based on:

1. *Container–contents* relation (bottle/water, can/juice),
2. A *whole–part* relation (car/wheels, house/roof),
3. A representative *symbol* relationship (king/crown, the President/the White House).

Using one of these words to refer to the other is an example of **metonymy**.

In metonymy, the relationship between words based simply on a close connection in very day experience. It is our familiarity with metonymy that makes possible for us to understand

- *'He drank the whole bottle'* although. it sound absurd literally (i.e. he drank the liquid not the glass object).

- *The white house announced.* We accept it as (the government announced something, or something like that.

- *filling up the car, answering the door, boiling a kettle, giving someone a hand, or needing some wheels.* We also get sense of it.

1.8 Metaphor

Metaphor is a form of figurative language which involves describing something in term of another thing, gradually on the basis of resemblance between these two things. For example '*the internet is a goldmine*', it is metaphorical in that 'the *internet*' is not a actual '*goldmine*', but a source when you can find countless piece of valuable information. Traditionally, the thing that is being described 'the *internet*' is called **tenor/topic** while the thing that is used to described something also metaphorically (*goldmine*) is the **vehicle**. The relationship of similarity between the **tendor** and the **vehicle** is the **ground**, here both '*the internet*' and '*the goldmine*' are locations where one can find valuable things (Murphy & kokela:2010:103).

Hartmann & Stork (1972:140) explain that metaphor is a figure of speech in which a name or descriptive term is applied to a person or object to which it is not implying a comparison. For example 'Wordsworth is in Lucy's Poem describes her as a violate:

- *A violate by a mossy stone*

Half hidden from the eye (Alexander,1973:10, line 5).

1.9 Hyponymy

Yule (p.118-119) states that Hyponymy refers to the meaning of one form when it is included in the meaning of another .For example *daffodils* and *flower* the meaning of flower is included in the meaning of *daffodil* or daffodil is a hyponymy of *flower*.

We can say that a dog is hyponymy of animal. In these examples animal and flower are called superordinate while daffodil and dog are called co-

hyponymy. Co-hyponymy refers to two or more terms sharing the same superordinate.

The relation of **hyponymy** captures the idea of it is a kind of as when you give the meaning of a word by saying „rose“ is a kind of „flower“. Here we see a kind of relation that is an example of entailment. Chihuahua, Dalmatian and Irish setter are other hyponyms of dog, and they are **co-hyponyms** of collie. Daffodil and rose are two co-hyponyms of tulip.

1.10 Troponymy: -

Troponymy represents the hyponymy relation between verbs. Conrath (2015:19)

According to Crystal (2008:p.497) is a term used for a type of entailment found in verbs: The activity referred to by a troponymy and its superordinate are always temporally co-extensive. An example, is the relationship „limp“ and „walk“.

Is the presence of a „manner“ relation between two lexemes. The concept was originally proposed by Christiane Fellbaum and George Miller. Some examples they gave are “to nibble is to eat in a certain manner, and to gorge is to eat in a different manner. Similarly, to traipse or to mope is to walk in some manner.

1.11 Meronymy

Meronymy: - Is the relationship which obtains between „parts“ and „wholes“, such as wheel and car or leg and knee (Crystal, 2008:p.302).

Meronymy is a kind of aggregation which specifies a relation between a whole (determiner) and a part (the the tolerate). Meronymy which be understood as holding on the generic level, as car generally has a chassis, for example. (Andrea C. Schalley:p.140)

John I. Saeed (2016:p.66) states that Meronymy is a term used to describe a part-whole relationship between lexical items. Thus cover and page are meronyms of book. The whole term, here book, is sometimes called the holonym. We can identify this relationship by using sentence frames like X is part of Y, or Y has X, as in A page is part of a book, or A book has pages.

Meronyms vary for example in how necessary the part is to the whole. Some are necessary for normal examples, for example nose as a meronym of face; others are usual but not obligatory, like collar as a meronym of shirt; still others are optional like cellar for house.

Meronymy also differs from hyponymy in transitivity. Hyponymy is always transitive, as we saw, but meronymy may or may not be. A transitive example is: nail as a meronym of finger, and finger of hand. We

can see that nail is a meronym of hand, for we can say A hand has nails. A non-transitive example is: pane is a meronym of window (A window has a pane), and window of room (*A room has a window*); but pane is not a meronym of room, for we cannot say A room has a pane.

1.12 Prototype

Yule in his book (2010, p.119) mentioned that the **prototype** is the characteristic instance of a category. For example, *ostrich*, *penguin*, *sparrow* and *pigeon* are **hyponyms** of *birds*. But only the last two are prototype of birds.

So, the words *canary*, *dove* and *duck* are all equally **co-hyponyms** of the **superordinate bird**. The concept of a prototype helps to explain the meaning of certain words, like bird, not in terms of component features for example, “*has feather*”, “*has wings*”, but in terms of resemblance (*belonging to a certain class*).

1.13 Collocation

Collocation is the study of which words occur together and their frequency of occurrence. For example, if you ask a thousand people what they think when you say hammer, more than half will say nail. If you say table, they mostly say chair. One way we organize our knowledge of words is on the basis of collocation, or frequently occurring together. Yule (2010:p.122)

J. Dickens, S. Hervey, and I

Richards, J. C. and Schmidt (2010:p.95) state that the way in which words are used together regularly.

Collocation refers to the restrictions on how words can be used together, for example which prepositions are used with particular verbs, or which verbs and nouns are used together.

For example, in English the verb perform is used with operation, but not with discussion:

The doctor performed the operation.

2. Semantics Fields

Semantic field theory is an approach which developed in the 1930s; it took the view that the vocabulary of a language is not simply a listing of independent items, but is organized into areas, or fields, within which words interrelate and define each other in various ways. For example, the word *colour* is, it is the best example of the semantic fields, involves the relation with the all colours of spectrum. Other areas of semantics include **etymology** which is the diachronic study of word meanings, as well as **lexicology** the synchronic analysis of word usage.

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