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Semantics & Syntax 3.3



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HELLO EVERYONE!

Morphology

In many languages, what appear to be single forms actually turn out to contain a large number of "word-like" elements. For example, in Swahili (spoken throughout East Africa), the form *nitakupenda* conveys what, in English, would have to be represented as something like I will love you. Now, is the Swahili form a single word? If it is a "word," then it seems to consist of a number of elements which, in English, turn up as separate "words."

This term, which literally means "the study of forms," was originally used in biology, but, since the middle of the nineteenth century, has also been used to describe the type of investigation that analyzes all those basic "elements" used in a language. What we have been describing as "elements" in the form of a linguistic message are technically known as "morphemes."

- What is the scope of Morphology?

It is the field of study concerned with the investigation of the basic meaningful forms in a language.

- What distinguishes meaningful forms from other forms?

We have morphemes as opposed to phonemes. A phoneme is the basic unit of a language but it is not meaningful. When phonemes are combined, they make morphemes and they become meaningful. Even a suffix or a prefix is meaningful.

Morphemes

We do not actually have to go to other languages such as Swahili to discover that "word forms" may consist of a number of elements. We can recognize that English word forms such as *talks*, *talker*, *talked* and *talking* must consist of one element *talk*, and a number of other elements such as *-s*, *-er*, *-ed* and *-ing*. All these elements are described as morphemes. The definition of a morpheme is "a minimal unit of meaning or grammatical function." Units of grammatical function include forms used to indicate past tense or plural, for example.

In the sentence *The police reopened the investigation*, the word *reopened* consists of three morphemes. One minimal unit of meaning is *open*, another minimal unit of meaning is *re-* (meaning "again") and a minimal unit of grammatical function is *-ed* (indicating past tense). The

word tourists also contains three morphemes. There is one minimal unit of meaning *tour*, another minimal unit of meaning *-ist* (marking "person who does something"), and a minimal unit of grammatical function *-s* (indicating plural).

- A morpheme is the minimal unit of meaning or grammatical function.

Some linguists have claimed that the morpheme should be regarded not only as the minimal grammatical unit but also as the minimal meaningful unit of language.

Free and bound morphemes

From these examples, we can make a broad distinction between two types of morphemes. There are free morphemes, that is, morphemes that can stand by themselves as single words, for example, *open* and *tour*. There are also bound morphemes, which are those forms that cannot normally stand alone and are typically attached to another form, exemplified as *re-*, *-ist*, *-ed*, *-s*. These forms were described in Chapter 5 as affixes. So, we can say that all affixes (prefixes and suffixes) in English are bound morphemes. The free morphemes can generally be identified as the set of separate English word forms such as basic nouns, adjectives, verbs, etc. When they are used with bound morphemes attached, the basic word forms are technically known as stems. For example: *undressed carelessness*

<i>un-</i>	<i>dress</i>	<i>-ed</i>	<i>care</i>	<i>-less</i>	<i>-ness</i>
prefix	stem	suffix	stem	suffix	suffix
(bound)	(free)	(bound)	(free)	(bound)	(bound)

We should note that this type of description is a partial simplification of the morphological facts of English. There are a number of English words in which the element treated as the stem is not, in fact, a free morpheme. In words such as *receive*, *reduce* and *repeat*, we can identify the bound morpheme *re-* at the beginning, but the elements *-ceive*, *-duce* and *-peat* are not separate word forms and hence cannot be free morphemes. These types of forms are sometimes described as "bound stems" to keep them distinct from "free stems" such as *dress* and *care*.

Lexical and functional morphemes

What we have described as free morphemes fall into two categories.

The first category is that set of ordinary nouns, adjectives and verbs that we think of as the words that carry the "content" of the messages we convey. These free morphemes are called lexical morphemes and some examples are: girl, man, house, tiger, sad, long, yellow, sincere, open, look, follow, break. We can add new lexical morphemes to the language rather easily, so they are treated as an "open" class of words.

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

Derivational and inflectional morphemes

The set of affixes that make up the category of bound morphemes can also be divided into two types. One type is described in Chapter 5 in terms of the derivation of words.

These are the derivational morphemes. We use these bound morphemes to make new words or to make words of a different grammatical category from the stem. For example, the addition of the derivational morpheme -ness changes the adjective good to the noun goodness. The noun care can become the adjectives careful or careless by the addition of the derivational morphemes -ful or -less. A list of derivational morphemes will include suffixes such as the -ish in foolish, -ly in quickly, and the -ment in payment. The list will also include prefixes such as re-, pre-, ex-, mis-, co-, un and many more.

The second set of bound morphemes contains what are called inflectional morphemes. These are not used to produce new words in the language, but rather to indicate aspects of the grammatical function of a word. Inflectional morphemes are used to show if a word is plural or singular, if it is past tense or not, and if it is a comparative or possessive form.

English has only eight inflectional morphemes (or "inflections"), illustrated in the following sentences.

Jim's two sisters are really different.

One likes to have fun and is always laughing.

The other liked to read as a child and has always taken things

seriously.

One is the loudest person in the house and the other is quieter than a mouse.

In the first sentence, both inflections (-'s, -s) are attached to nouns, one marking possessive and the other marking plural. Note that -'s here is a possessive inflection and different from the -'s used as an abbreviation for is or has (e.g. she's singing, it's happened again). There are four inflections attached to verbs: -s (3rd person singular), -ing (present participle), -ed (past tense) and -en (past participle). There are two inflections attached to adjectives: -er (comparative) and -est (superlative). In English, all the inflectional morphemes are suffixes.

Noun + -'s, -s

Verb + -s, -ing, -ed, -en

Adjective + -er, -est

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

- We have several types of morphemes:

1. Free morphemes:

They are the basic meaningful forms of a language and they can stand on their own. They don't need anything in order to have meaning or function.

☞ Free morphemes are divided into:

- Functional morphemes that can stand alone and they have grammatical functions rather than meaning.

- Lexical morphemes: they are free morphemes that can stand on their own but they don't serve a grammatical function and they convey a meaning.

- The functional morphemes are called closed class. (We can't add to them)

- The lexical morphemes are called the open class.

In a language, you can always borrow or coin new words from existing words. The word *microwave* is an example of a newly coined word. We can always add new lexical morphemes but functional morphemes are the same for hundreds of years. The most significant change in the functional morphemes that I can recall is the change from the pronouns "thy, thou,

etc." to "you, you, etc."

2. Bound morphemes:

They can't stand alone in a sentence. They either carry part of the meaning or serve a grammatical function but they cannot stand alone.

☞ Bound morphemes are called affixes and they are divided into:

- Suffixes

- Prefixes

- *Infixes*: The bound morphemes that are added in the middle of a word. In English, it happens at the sentence level not at the word level. It is used in colloquial English not in formal English.

- *Circumfixes*: morphemes of two parts that are added at different parts of the word. We don't have circumfixes in English.

☞ Bound morphemes are divided into:

- *Derivational morphemes*: used to derive a new word from another word.

- *Inflectional morphemes* (grammatical): they help in cementing the grammatical function of the morpheme.

☞ Inflectional morphemes are limited so we can list them:

- Plural (s)

- Third person singular (s)

- Possessive (s)

- -ed

- -en (of past participle: taken = taken)

- -ing

- -er

- -est

These are the only inflectional morphemes in English. Any other bound morpheme is derivational.

Grammar

Grammar

The process of describing the structure of phrases and sentences in such a way that we account for all the grammatical sequences in a language and rule out all the ungrammatical sequences is one way of

Traditional Grammar

The terms "article," "adjective" and "noun" that we used to label the grammatical categories of the words in the phrase the lucky boys come from traditional grammar, which has its origins in the description of languages such as Latin and Greek. Since there were well-established grammatical descriptions of these languages, it seemed appropriate to adopt the existing categories from these descriptions and apply them in the analysis of "newer" languages such as English. After all, Latin and Greek were the languages of scholarship, religion, philosophy and "knowledge," so the grammar of these languages was taken to be the model for other grammars. The best-known terms from that tradition are those used in describing the parts of speech.

Traditional grammar is the study of grammar in the way it is conducted by Greek and Latin grammarians. From this description, they derived the rules to structure Greek and Latin sentences. In their analysis, they created the grammatical categories.

- What are grammatical categories?

It is the categorization of words into certain categories. If we want to list them, they are:

- Nouns
- Verbs
- Adjectives
- Articles
- Adverbs
- Pronouns
- Prepositions
- Conjunctions
- Interjunctions

☞ All of those grammatical categories are free morphemes.

☞ Some of them are functional and some are lexical.

☞ The lexical are: nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs.

Nouns: they are forms that refer to objects in the real world or abstract concepts or objects that are imaginary. Whenever I refer to something that

I can touch or see, it is an object in the real world. Abstract concepts are things you can understand but you can't sense such as: dream, feeling, courage, honesty. Imaginary objects are things that are fabricated in our imagination such as: aliens, unicorns, dragons, etc.

Verbs: they refer to actions. We have two types of verbs: main verbs and auxiliary or modal verbs. There is no sentence in English without a verb or more. Main verbs carry the meaning while auxiliary verbs belong to the functional morphemes. Sometimes an auxiliary verb can be a main verb in other places such as the verbs "can" and "have".

Adjectives: they are morphemes usually added to nouns or noun phrases that give the listener or the recipient more information about the noun. Colors, sizes, shapes, etc. are examples of adjectives.

Adverbs: they modify verbs the same way adjectives modify nouns. Sometimes, adjectives can modify adjectives.

Articles: they are only three: a, an, the. The definite article is "the" and the indefinite articles are "a, an". They are added to nouns or to noun phrases. Articles cannot be added to adjectives.

Example: *A green marker.* (the indefinite article "a" is added to the whole noun phrase not to the adjective itself)

Prepositions: they are often followed by a noun or a noun phrase. They convey the temporal relation or the spatial relation between two things (time or place). Prepositions convey other types of relation but mostly time and place.

- Examples:

On the fourth floor. (place)

In the morning. (time)

I went there by bus. (other relation)

Conjunctions: they are morphemes used to combine sentences or phrases or clauses or words.

Interjunctions: they are used to link sentences and to convey logical relations between ideas (however, nevertheless, etc).

Pronouns replace nouns.

Agreement & Grammatical Gender

In grammar, we have something called agreement. The concept of agreement is different in different languages. In English, we need to have

subject-verb agreement in gender (masculine or feminine) and number (plural or singular) and tense (past, present, etc).

Gender agreement in English is sometimes irrelevant. English is a gender-neutral language. When we refer to objects that don't have physical gender in English, we don't need the agreement in gender (the word "chair" is an example). When we refer to objects with physical gender, we need the agreement in gender.

In Arabic for example, all nouns have gender either feminine or masculine. The same applies to French and Spanish.

The prescriptive approach

It is one thing to adopt the grammatical labels (e.g. "noun," "verb") to categorize words in English sentences; it is quite another thing to go on to claim that the structure of English sentences should be like the structure of sentences in Latin. That was an approach taken by a number of influential grammarians, mainly in eighteenth-century

England, who set out rules for the "proper" use of English. This view of grammar as a set of rules for the "proper" use of a language is still to be found today and may be best characterized as the prescriptive approach. Some familiar examples of prescriptive rules for English sentences are:

You must not split an infinitive.

You must not end a sentence with a preposition.

The Descriptive Approach

It may be that using a well-established grammatical description of Latin is a useful guide for some European languages (e.g. Italian or Spanish), is less useful for others (e.g. English), and may be absolutely misleading if you are trying to describe some non-European languages. This last point became clear to those linguists who were trying to describe the structure of the native languages of North America toward the end of the nineteenth century. The categories and rules that were appropriate for Latin grammar just did not seem to fit these languages. As a consequence, for most of the twentieth century, a rather different approach was adopted. Analysts collected samples of the language they were interested in and attempted to describe the regular structures of

the language as it was used, not according to some view of how it should be used. This is called the descriptive approach.

☞ The Prescriptive Approach

In the prescriptive approach, grammarians describe or try to tell people how a language should be spoken based on the descriptions of Latin and Greek grammars.

☞ The Descriptive Approach

Grammarians describe how people speak languages.

These contradicting views of grammar can sometimes make a structure grammatical in one approach and ungrammatical in the other.

Examples:

You and me are going to the cinema. (Grammatical in the descriptive approach but ungrammatical in the prescriptive approach)

The prescriptive grammarians tell you not to finish a sentence with a preposition. On the other hand, you can finish a sentence with a preposition according to descriptive grammarians.

Example:

Where are you going to? (Grammatical in the descriptive approach but ungrammatical in the prescriptive view).

We have discussed Morphology and Grammar so let us move to talk about Semantics.

Semantics علم المعاني

Semantics is the study of the meaning of words, phrases, and sentences. Nouns phrases, for example, can have the function of a noun. In semantic analysis, this noun phrase can be an agent, a theme, an instrument, etc. That's why I can extend Semantics to the meaning of phrases.

Example:

The blue marker is on the desk. "the blue marker" is a noun phrase that is semantically functioning as an *experiencer*.

When we go further into Syntax, we can see that a sentence can function as a noun for example. That's why Semantics can be extended to the meaning of sentences.

Example:

The man who is wearing a black coat is standing at the corner. The whole clause "the man who is wearing a black coat" is functioning as a noun (an experiencer).

Semantics:

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 (like George Carlin) might want them to mean on a particular occasion. This approach is concerned with objective or general meaning and avoids trying to account for subjective or local meaning. Doing semantics is attempting to spell out what it is we all know when we behave as if we share knowledge of the meaning of a word, a phrase, or a sentence in a language.

- What kinds of meaning do we study in Semantics?

Conventional meaning and conceptual meaning.

Conventional: if you take a photo of any object (a bottle of water for example) and show it to any human who can speak English, he will say it is a bottle of water. Language is a set of sounds with conventionalized meaning.

Conceptual: If we agree here in the class to call the bottle of water as (fonk) for example, then this is the conceptual meaning. The other side of the conceptual meaning can be demonstrated in the following example:

The word "snake" can be used to indicate a woman. For others, it may have different connotations. This is the conceptualized meaning.

In some cultures, the owl is a symbol of wisdom. In other cultures, it is the symbol of pessimism. This is also related to the conceptual meaning.

The focus of Semantics is actually the conventionalized meaning because everybody would understand it and know it, while the conceptual meaning is personal. That's why linguists cannot cover the conceptual meaning. The conceptual meaning differs according to the cultural and even the individual differences of people.

For example, the words "snake, red, needle" have different conceptualized meanings among us even though we belong to the same culture here.

Meaning

While semantics is the study of meaning in language, there is more

interest in certain aspects of meaning than in others. We have already ruled out special meanings that one individual might attach to words. We can go further and make a broad distinction between conceptual meaning and associative meaning. Conceptual meaning covers those basic, essential components of meaning that are conveyed by the literal use of a word. It is the type of meaning that dictionaries are designed to describe. Some of the basic components of a word like *needle* in English might include "thin, sharp, steel instrument." These components would be part of the conceptual meaning of *needle*. However, different people might have different associations or connotations attached to a word like *needle*. They might associate it with "pain," or "illness," or "blood," or "drugs," or "thread," or "knitting," or "hard to find" (especially in a haystack), and these associations may differ from one person to the next. These types of associations are not treated as part of the word's conceptual meaning.

In a similar way, some people may associate the expression *low-calorie*, when used to describe a product, with "healthy," but this is not part of the basic conceptual meaning of the expression (i.e. "producing a small amount of heat or energy").

Poets, song-writers, novelists, literary critics, advertisers and lovers may all be interested in how words can evoke certain aspects of associative meaning, but in linguistic semantics we're more concerned with trying to analyze conceptual meaning.

Semantic features

One way in which the study of basic conceptual meaning might be helpful would be as a means of accounting for the "oddness" we experience when we read sentences such as the following:

The hamburger ate the boy.

The table listens to the radio.

The horse is reading the newspaper.

We should first note that the oddness of these sentences does not derive from their syntactic structure. According to the basic syntactic rules for forming English sentences, we have well-formed structures.

- The hamburger ate the boy

NP V NP

This sentence is syntactically good, but semantically odd. Since the sentence *The boy ate the hamburger* is perfectly acceptable, we may be able to identify the source of the problem. The components of the conceptual meaning of the noun hamburger must be significantly different from those of the noun boy, thereby preventing one, and not the other, from being used as the subject of the verb ate. The kind of noun that can be the subject of the verb ate must denote an entity that is capable of "eating." The noun hamburger does not have this property and the noun boy does.

Semantic features are the features contained in each and every lexical item (word).

Note: a lexical item or a lexeme is the scientific term for a word in Linguistics.

	Animate	Human	Male	Female	Adult	Plant	Animal
Man	✓	✓	✓	✗	✓	✗	✗
Woman	✓	✓	✗	✓	✓	✗	✗
Dog	✓	✗	✓	✗	✓	✗	✓
Apple	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✓	✗
Girl	✓	✓	✗	✓	✗	✗	✗

This is the description of semantic features. Can we count them all? Of course no. That's why in dictionaries, you can't find them. That's why in dictionaries, you can find a description of a word in relation to other words.

Let's try to search for the word "dog" in a dictionary:

Dog: an animal with four legs and a tail.

This definition of the word "dog" derives from your knowledge of the word "animal". Other dictionaries might give you other detailed descriptions for the word:

Dog: a common four-legged animal especially kept by people as a pet or to hunt.

Here they described the functions and the purposes of the dog using other words you're familiar with such as "pet" and "hunt".

In short, dictionary description bases itself on parts of these semantic features and describes them in relation to other semantic features but it

can't cover them all.

Semantic roles

Instead of thinking of words as "containers" of meaning, we can look at the "roles" they fulfill within the situation described by a sentence. If the situation is a simple event, as in *The boy kicked the ball*, then the verb describes an action (kick). The noun phrases in the sentence describe the roles of entities, such as people and things, involved in the action. We can identify a small number of semantic roles (also called "thematic roles") for these noun phrases.

Agent and theme

In our example sentence, one role is taken by the noun phrase *The boy* as "the entity that performs the action," technically known as the agent. Another role is taken by the ball as "the entity that is involved in or affected by the action," which is called the theme (or sometimes the "patient"). The theme can also be an entity (*The ball*) that is simply being described (i.e. not performing an action), as in *The ball was red*.

Agents and themes are the most common semantic roles. Although agents are typically human (*The boy*), they can also be non-human entities that cause actions, as in noun phrases denoting a natural force (*The wind*), a machine (*A car*), or a creature (*The dog*), all of which affect the ball as theme.

- *The boy kicked the ball.*
- *The wind blew the ball away.*
- *A car ran over the ball.*
- *The dog caught the ball.*

The theme is typically non-human, but can be human (*the boy*), as in *The dog chased the boy*. In fact, the same physical entity can appear in two different semantic roles in a sentence, as in *The boy cut himself*. Here *The boy* is agent and *himself* is theme.

Another way to look at the meaning of sentences and phrases is to look at the roles in an utterance.

☞ **Agent:** *an agent is an entity that influences the theme and that carries out an action.* So the agent is something that can animate because something that cannot animate cannot be an agent.

For example, the sentence "the apple ate the boy" is perfect syntactically but semantically it doesn't make sense because an apple cannot animate to perform the action of eating. The sentence "the boy ate the apple" is semantically sound because the boy can animate and perform the action of eating.

☞ The agent is the doer of the action. It is always related to action verbs.

☞ Themes are the entities influenced by the action or the entities upon which the action happened.

Instrument and experiencer

If an agent uses another entity in order to perform an action, that other entity fills the role of instrument. In the sentences The boy cut the rope with an old razor and He drew the picture with a crayon, the noun phrases an old razor and a crayon are being used in the semantic role of instrument.

When a noun phrase is used to designate an entity as the person who has a feeling, perception or state, it fills the semantic role of experiencer. If we see, know or enjoy something, we're not really performing an action (hence we are not agents). We are in the role of experiencer. In the sentence The boy feels sad, the experiencer (The boy) is the only semantic role. In the question, Did you hear that noise?, the experiencer is you and the theme is that noise.

☞ The instrument: an entity used by an agent to do the action on a theme. Instruments are usually associated with prepositions.

Example: I'm writing on the board with a marker. (a marker is the theme)

☞ The experiencer: when we don't have an action verb, then we don't have an action; rather, we have an experience. So the subject is no longer an agent; it becomes an experiencer.

I am happy. (the subject "I" is an experiencer because it experiences a state of being) (the word "happy" is the theme)

Location, source and goal

A number of other semantic roles designate where an entity is in the description of an event. Where an entity is (on the table, in the room) fills the role of location. Where the entity moves from is the source (from Chicago) and where it moves to is the goal(to New Orleans), as in

We drove from Chicago to New Orleans. When we talk about transferring money from savings to checking, the source is savings and the goal is checking. All these semantic roles are illustrated in the following scenario. Note that a single entity (e.g. George) can appear in several different semantic roles.

Mary saw a fly on the wall.

EXPERIENCER THEME LOCATION

She borrowed a magazine from George.

AGENT THEME SOURCE

She squashed the bug with the magazine.

AGENT THEME INSTRUMENT

She handed the magazine back to George.

AGENT THEME GOAL

"Gee thanks," said George.

AGENT

☞ **Location:** where the action takes place, either in time or in space.

☞ **Source:** the movement from one place to another, either in time or in space.

Examples:

- I took a walk yesterday. ("yesterday" is a location in time)
- I'm standing in the class. ("in the class" is a location in space)
- I took the train from the station to the airport. ("the station" is the source, "the airport" is the goal that is spatial)
 - I stayed up from 8 in the morning to 7 in the morning. ("8 in the morning" is the source, "7 in the morning" is the goal that is temporal)
 - I stayed up until 6 o'clock. ("6 o'clock is a goal in time)
 - I walked home from the university. ("home is the goal", "the university" is the source in space)
 - I overslept yesterday. ("yesterday" is a location in time)

Note: When we have a movement between two places or two times, then we have *source* and *goal*. But when we have one point either in time

or in space, then this is *location*.

Lexical items are not isolated; they have relations with each other. They are called lexical relations.

LEXICAL RELATIONS

Synonymy

Two or more words with very closely related meanings are called synonyms. They can often, though not always, be substituted for each other in sentences. In the appropriate circumstances, we can say, What was his answer? or What was his reply? with much the same meaning. Other common examples of synonyms are the pairs: almost/nearly, big/large, broad/wide, buy/purchase, cab/taxi, car/automobile, couch/sofa, freedom/liberty.

We should keep in mind that the idea of "sameness" of meaning used in discussing synonymy is not necessarily "total sameness." There are many occasions when one word is appropriate in a sentence, but its synonym would be odd. For example, whereas the word answer fits in the sentence Sandy had only one answer correct on the test, the word reply would sound odd. Synonymous forms may also differ in terms of formal versus informal uses. The sentence My father purchased a large automobile has virtually the same meaning as My dad bought a big car, with four synonymous replacements, but the second version sounds much more casual or informal than the first.

☞ Synonymy: words can have similar meanings but not identical meanings. In some contexts, one can substitute the other but in other contexts they cannot replace one another.

Two synonyms are similar in a great portion of the semantic features but they are not identical because some semantic features are different. So synonyms overlap but they are not identical.

Antonymy

Two forms with opposite meanings are called antonyms. Some common examples are the pairs: alive/dead, big/small, fast/slow, happy/sad, hot/cold, long/short, male/female, married/single, old/new, rich/poor, true/false.

Antonyms are usually divided into two main types, "gradable"

(opposites along a scale) and "non-gradable" (direct opposites). Gradable antonyms, such as the pair big/ small, can be used in comparative constructions like I'm bigger than you and A pony is smaller than a horse. Also, the negative of one member of a gradable pair does not necessarily imply the other. For example, the sentence My car isn't old, doesn't necessarily mean My car is new.

With non-gradable antonyms (also called "complementary pairs"), comparative constructions are not normally used. We don't typically describe someone as deader or more dead than another. Also, the negative of one member of a non-gradable pair does imply the other member. That is, My grandparents aren't alive does indeed mean My grandparents are dead. Other non-gradable antonyms in the earlier list are the pairs: male/female, married/single and true/false.

Although we can use the "negative test" to identify non-gradable antonyms in a language, we usually avoid describing one member of an antonymous pair as the negative of the other. For example, while undress can be treated as the opposite of dress, it doesn't mean "not dress." It actually means "do the reverse of dress."

Antonyms of this type are called reversives. Other common examples are enter/exit, pack/unpack, lengthen/shorten, raise/lower, tie/untie.

☞ Antonymy is when a word has an opposite meaning of another word such as the words "hot" and "cold".

We have two types of antonyms: gradable antonyms and non-gradable antonyms. For example, if an object is hot in a certain context, it might be cold in another context. A cold bottle of water here in Damascus would be considered hot in the North Pole.

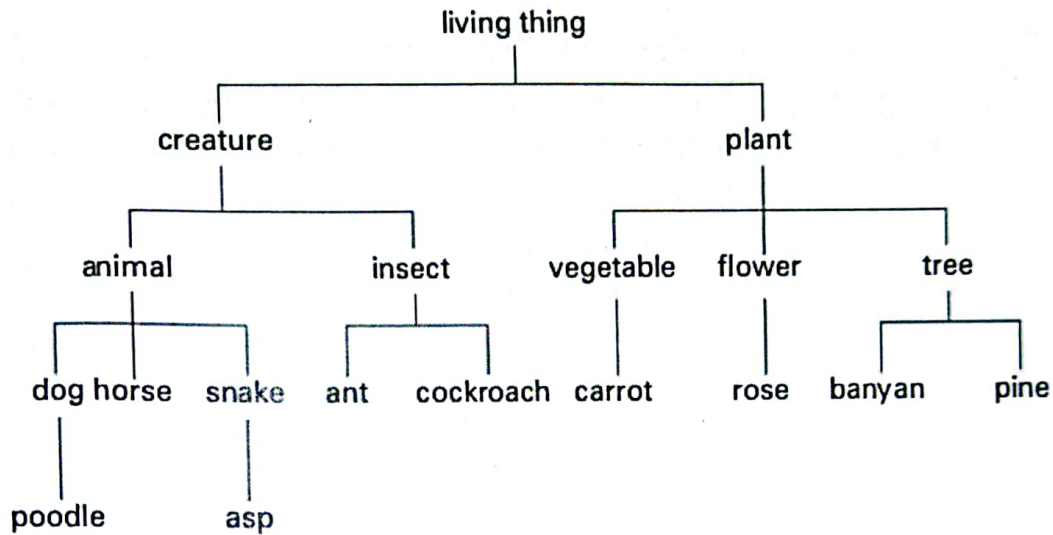
Non-gradable antonyms are like "black" and "white". Another example is "alive" and "dead".

The absence of the feature doesn't imply the opposite in both gradable and non-gradable antonyms. If a subject is hot, does it imply that it is not cold? Actually not always. If something is not hot, it might be not cold. The same way, an object that is not black is not necessarily white.

Hyponymy

When the meaning of one form is included in the meaning of another, the relationship is described as hyponymy. Examples are the pairs: animal/dog, dog/poodle, vegetable/carrot, flower/rose, tree/banyan. The concept of "inclusion" involved in this relationship is the idea

that if an object is a rose, then it is necessarily a flower, so the meaning of flower is included in the meaning of rose. Or, rose is a hyponym of flower.




We can say that an animal is a hyponym of the living beings. The "living beings" is a subordinate of "animals". The words "animal" and "insect" are called co-hyponyms of living beings.

Thank You


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Al Kindi
Languages & Training

دورات متابعة ومكثفات
بإشراف نخبة من أفضل الأساتذة الجامعيين
في معهد الكندي
لطلاب الترجمة (التعليم المفتوح) ولجميع المواد



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