

# ***In The Name Of Allah Most Gracious Most Merciful***

## **Lecture 1**

1- **Semantics** is the ----- used to refer to the study of meaning.

technical term

2- The Semantics term is ----- to the English language.

a recent addition

3- One of the earliest uses of the term was in----- ,

**1894**

4- in a paper entitled:-----

“Reflected meanings: a point in semantics.”

5- **In 1894** , The Semantics term was used to refer -----

not to meaning only but to its development

6- The Semantics term call now -----

“historical semantics”.

7- **In 1900**, a book called ----- was published.

“Semantics: studies in the science of meaning”

8- The term Semantics was treated in this book ----- , ----- not the changes of meaning from a historical point of view.

the way we use it today

to refer to the “science” of meaning

### **• The use of the word “semantics” in popular language:**

1- In popular language, especially in newspapers, the word “semantics” is used to refer to the ---  
----- mostly to mislead by choosing the right word..

manipulation of language,

2- In the manipulation of language, is used to refer to the mostly to ----- by choosing the right word..

Mislead

*Heart story*

The headline in *The Guardian* in 1971: “Semantic manoeuvres at the Pentagon”.

3- the term “*mobile manoeuvre*” was being used to mean -----  
“retreat”.

### What is “meaning”?

1- “**Meaning**” covers ----- of language.

2- there is no ----- about the nature of meaning.

a variety of aspects

general agreement

3- The dictionary will suggest ----- of the noun “meaning” and the verb “mean”.

a number of different meanings

a. **The word mean** can be-----

**to speakers,** in the sense of -----

b. **The word mean** can be ----- in the sense of -----  
applied to people who use language

“intend”.

applied to words and sentences

“be equivalent to”.

4- To understand what meaning is, one has to keep in mind whether we are talking about -----  
----- or what----- .

what speakers mean

words (or sentences)mean

5- **The definition of utterance meaning**

❖ **Utterance Meaning (Speaker Meaning)** is what speaker means when he uses -----  
a piece of language

6- Utterance Meaning (Speaker Meaning) is what -----

a speaker means

7- what a speaker means.----- when he----- .

intends to convey

uses a piece of language

8- Utterance Meaning (Speaker Meaning ----- includes ----- of meaning,-----  
----- .

the secondary aspects

especially those related to context

### ❖ Sentence Meaning (or Word Meaning)

A. is what-----

a sentence (or word) means

B. what it ----- in the language concerned.

counts as the equivalent of

1- Sentence Meaning or Word Meaning depending on ---- and ----- and ----- and ----- that  
exists between----- , it can mean ----- .

- the situation
- the speaker's facial expressions,
- tone of voice,
- or the relationship between the speaker and hearer

the speaker and hearer

the exact opposite,

9- it becomes clear that there is a distinction between what would seem to be the usual meaning  
of a word or a sentence,

10- and the meaning it has in certain specific circumstances or contexts.

11- It is this distinction that allows us to say one thing and mean another.

من ما ناقشناه اعلاه، يصبح من الواضح لنا ان هناك فرق بين ما يبدو انه (usual meaning - معنى معتاد) لكلمة ما او  
جملة ما > و هذا من الممكن ايجاد معناه في المعجم عادةً ..

و بين (the meaning it has in certain specific circumstances or contexts) - المعنى الذي يحتوي على ظروف  
او ملايسات او سياقات محدده بعينها)

٨ اذا (نظرنا الى الحاله-the situation) او (الى السياقات-the contexts) فإننا ننظر الى الـ Pragmatics

## What is Pragmatics?

**Pragmatics** is the study of ----- has in ----- which it is uttered.

meaning that a sentence

a particular context in

The study of Semantics is ----- of context.

Independent

The study of Pragmatics is ----- of context.

dependent

e.g. There's a car coming.

- This sentence out of context simply gives information that a car is coming,
- but in a specific context it can be understood as a warning.

^ كلمة (context) هنا جداً مهمه لان علم البراغماتيك يعتمد على الـcontext-سياق الكلام والـsituation-الحاله، و من جهة اخرى فان (علم المعاني-Semantics) لا يعتمد على ذلك ..

:

> علم المعاني مستقل عن سياق الكلام .. **Semantics** is independent of context.

> علم البراغماتك يعتمد عن سياق الكلام .. **Pragmatics** is dependent of context.

**Pragmatics** is dependent of context, it is involve with context and the situation in which the utterance takes a place.

^ حيث ان علم البراغماتك يشمل (سياق الكلام و الحاله) من خلال طريقة النطق..

## Lecture 2

### Sense and Reference

1- **Sense** and **reference** are two very distinct ways of ----- .  
talking about the meaning of words and other expressions.

2- **Sense** deals with the relationships-----  
inside the language.

3- **Reference** deals with the relationship -----  
between the language and the world.

**The sense of an expression** is its place in a system of ----- with -----in the  
language.

semantic relationships

other expressions

The relationship between “big” and “small” is -----  
oppositeness of meaning (antonymy).

The relationship between “rich” and “wealthy” is -----  
sameness of meaning (synonymy).

1. In some cases, the same word-form -----  
can have more than one **sense**.

We can talk about the sense, not only of **words**, but also of longer expressions such as **phrases**  
and **sentences**.

**3. One sentence can have different senses.**

**Reference** is a relationship between ----- (words and phrases) and -----  
--- (in the world).

parts of a language

things outside the language

By reference a speaker indicates ----- in the ----- are being talked about.

which things and persons

world

To make the term **reference** clearer to you, hold a book in your hand and describe it in a sentence. For example: “**This book** is about Semantics.”

“Reference” is the relationship between ----- and----- .

the language expression

the real world object

• **A referring expression** is ----- used in ----- to refer to something or someone.

any expression

an utterance

التعبير اللفظي (expression) نطلق عليه مسمى (referring expression) اي: التعبير المرجعي لشيء ما او التعبير  
المشير الى شيء ما .. > اي انه جزء من اللغة (قد يكون كلمه او عباره او جمله)  
وهو: تعبير يستخدم في نطق او كلام ما للاشاره الى شيء ما او شخص ما..

• **A referent** is the ----- in the world ----- to by using a referring expression.

person or thing

speakers refer

The relation between a referring expression and a referent is what we call----- **reference**.

1. The ----- can, in some cases, be used to refer to----- .  
same referring expression  
different referents.
2. Two ----- can have the----- .  
different referring expressions

same referent

### Comparing Sense and Reference

Sense	Reference
is <u>not</u> a thing at all	is often a <u>thing or person</u> in the world
is <u>an abstraction</u> in the mind of a language user	is the relationship between the language expression and the real world object.
Every meaningful expression has <b>sense</b>	<u>not</u> every meaningful expression has <b>reference</b> .
The words “almost”, “if” and “probable” have sense	but they <u>do not</u> refer to a thing in the world.

-كل تعبير ذو معنى له **حس**، ولكن ليس كل تعبير ذو معنى له **مرجع**.. >> هذه قاعدة

شرح المثال/ الكلمات ( **almost- if- probable** ) لديها حس و معنى، و لكنها لا تشير الى شيء ما متواجد في ارض الواقع..

## Lecture 3

### 1- Paradigmatic relations-----

are those into which a linguistic unit enters ----- being contrasted or substitutable, in a particular environment, with other similar units. (----- )

Through

vertical relation

### 2- Syntagmatic relations-----

are those into which a linguistic unit enters ----- with other units. (----- )

by its co-occurrence

horizontal relation

### 3- Semantic Fields-----

Words in a language can be grouped and classified into different semantic fields.

#### A semantic field-----

4- contains a group of words which are related in their meaning.

5- When we look at semantic fields we are concerned with ----- between words.

paradigmatic relations

6- A word can be part of more than one semantic field.

7- Semantic fields can be useful to compare ----- or to compare ----- to see the way in which they divide up a particular field.

a single language at two different time periods,

two languages

8- We notice that ----- has more color terms to divide up this particular semantic field.

English

9- the **words for noise** in a Mexican language, we find that there are six 'noise' words:

referring to children yelling, people talking loudly, people arguing, people talking angrily, increasing noise and funeral noise.

10- we have a list of words referring to items of a particular class dividing up a semantic field.



11- In almost all of these cases, moreover, the words are -----

incompatible.

12- We cannot say for example, “**This is a red hat**” and of the same object “**This is a green hat.**”

13- Also, a creature cannot be described both as a “**lion**” and as an “**elephant**” at the same time.

14- The ----- within ----- is ----- in language. incompatibility of terms

a semantic field

often clearly indicated

عدم التوافق بين المصطلحات ضمن حقل دلالي معين غالباً يشير الى الوضوح في اللغة  
^ يعني استخدام خاصية (عدم التوافق بين المصطلحات) لحقل معين يساعدنا كثير في ايضاح كلامنا..

15- We can, however, recognize terms that seem to be-----

mixtures.

16- In some cases the distinction between the terms in a semantic field is----- , and reflected by----- ;

Clear

clear distinctions in experience

17- this is the case, with few exceptions,----- . So, the distinction between “rabbit” and “tiger” is very clear.

with animal names

18- In other cases, e.g. the Mexican 'noise' words we discussed earlier, the distinctions are far ----  
----- .

more blurred.

19- Generally, too, the items in a semantic field are----- .

‘unordered’

20- there is----- , as far as their meaning is concerned, of arranging them in any kind of order.

no natural way

21- If we wanted to list them we should probably do so in----- .

alphabetical order

22- But there are some groups of words that seem to have -----  
some 'order'.

يوجد بعض المجموعات التي تبدو لها علاقة طبيعية مرتبة و متتابعة "natural order"

a. the days of the ----- of the year form sets ----- .

**week and the months**

of ordered incompatible items.

- have ----- such that Sunday comes immediately before Monday, and Monday before Tuesday.. etc.

sequential relations

b. ----- such as inch, foot and yard which can be put in order, starting from -----  
---

**is the case of measurement units**

the smallest one.

- The numerals one, two, three, etc., are another obvious example.

إذا لدينا ٤ أمثلة على الترتيب الطبيعي .. "natural order" وهم:

Days of the week-

Months of the year-

Measurement units-

The numerals

## Lecture 4

- 1- certain words tend to appear together or “**keep company**”. This keeping company is what is called in semantics ----- .

“collocation”.

- 2- Collocation can be seen ----- .

as part of the meaning of a word.

- 3- By looking at the linguistic context of words, we can----- .

often distinguish between different meanings

### • Types of Collocational Restrictions:

- 1- Some collocational restrictions are-----  
based wholly on the meaning of the item.

- Words may have -----  
more specific meanings in particular [collocations](#).
- In particular collocations, a word may -----
- change.

- 2- Some restrictions are ----- a word may be used with a number of other words that have some semantic features in common.

based on [range](#) -

- we find that individual words or sequences of words will ----- with certain groups of words.  
NOT collocate
- Looking ----- we know roughly the ----- (in terms of their meaning) with which -----  
----- may be used.  
**at the range**  
kind of nouns  
a verb or adjective

- **Range** accounts for the----- of collocations

unlikelihood

- 3- Some restrictions are collocational in the strictest sense, involving -----  
neither meaning nor range.

- Although collocation is very largely determined by meaning, it -----of the associated words.

sometimes cannot easily be predicted in terms of the meaning

- **An example**
- neither meaning nor range.
- “a blond door”  
“a blond dress”
- is words for animal sounds such as: “dog/bark”, “cat/mew”, “sheep/bleat”, “horse/neigh”, etc.
- This characteristic of language is also found in an extreme form in the collective words such as: “flock of sheep”, “herd of cows”, “school of whales” and “pride of lions”.
- there is ----- between those ----- of the words that co-occur, and those that are ----- .

no clear distinguishing line

collocations that are predictable from the meanings

not predictable from the meaning.

- might be possible to provide a semantic explanation for even the more restricted collocations, by ----- to the individual words.  
assigning very particular meanings
- For example, we can account for collocations like “dogs bark”, “cats mew” in terms of the kind of noise made.
- This should not, however, lead us to conclude that all of these restricted collocations can be accounted for semantically.

- it is difficult to see any semantic explanation for the----- .  
use of collective terms
- The only difference between ----- is that one is used with cows and the other with sheep.  
“herd” and “flock”

## Lecture 5

### 1- Synonymy -----

is the relationship between ----- that have the ----- sense.  
two lexical units (words)

same

### 2- Words that have the same sense are called -----

synonyms.

### 3- In synonyms -----

no real synonyms.

### 4- No two words ----- meaning.

have exactly the same

### 5- Perfect synonymy is ----- because it is ----- survive in a language.

hard to find

unlikely that two words with exactly the same meaning would both

### 6- These ways are as follows:

#### 1- some sets of synonyms belong to ----- of the language.

different dialects

**For instance,** the term “fall” is used in the United States and in some western counties of Britain where others would use “autumn”.

#### 2- words that are used in -----

different styles.

**For example** words such as “gentleman”, “man” and “chap” have the same meaning but are used in different styles ranging from formal to colloquial.

#### 3- some words may be said to ----- The remainder of their meaning remains the same.

differ only in their emotive or evaluative meanings.

- **Notice** the emotive difference between “politician” and “statesman”, “hide” and “conceal”, “liberty” and “freedom”, -----  
each implying approval or disapproval.
  - “politician” and “statesman”, “hide” and “conceal”, “liberty” and “freedom”,  
The function of such words in language is -----  
to influence attitudes.
  - They are chosen simply for -----  
the effect they are likely to have.
- 4- some words are -----  
collocationally restricted.
- some words are ----- with other words.  
occur only in conjunction
  - Thus, ----- occurs with “bacon” or “butter”.  
“rancid”
  - “addled” with ----- .  
“eggs” or “brain”.
  - “rancid” occurs with “bacon” or “butter” and “addled” with “eggs” or “brain”  
It could, perhaps, be argued that these are ----- differing only in-----  
true synonyms  
that they occur in different environments.
- 5- many words are close in meaning, or that their meanings overlap. There is a loose sense of synonymy between them. For the adjective “mature”, for example, possible synonyms are “adult”, “ripe” or “perfect”. For the verb “govern”, we may suggest “direct”, “control” or “determine”. This is the kind of synonymy that is used by the dictionary-maker.

- **Antonymy**-----  
is the relationship between ----- (words) that have the ----- sense.

two lexical units

opposite

Words that are opposite are called **antonyms**.

### There are three different types of antonymy:

1. binary antonymy (complementarity)
2. converses (relational opposites)
3. gradable antonyms

1- **Binary antonyms** are lexical units which come in pairs and between them exhaust all the relevant possibilities.

If one of the antonyms is applicable, then the other cannot be applicable, and vice versa.

#### 2- Converses (relational opposites):

- ----- a word describes a relationship between two things (or people).
- ----- describes ----- when the two things (or people) are mentioned-----  
----- .

the same relationship  
in the opposite order

- In this case, we say then the two lexical units are **converses** of each other.

E.g. “parent” and “child” are converses.

- The notion of **converseness** can be applied to examples in which three referents are mentioned as in the case of “buy” and “sell”.

John **bought** a car from Fred. Fred **sold** a car to John.

#### 3) Gradable antonyms -----

are two words at opposite ends of a continuous scale of values.

E.g. “Hot” and “cold” are gradable antonyms.

Between “hot” and “cold” we have “warm”, “cool” or “tepid”.

- A good test for gradability is to see whether a word can combine with: very, very much, how or how much.



- **For example**, it is possible with the gradable antonyms “far” and “near” to say: “very near” or “How far is it?”
- On the other hand, in the case of other types of antonyms like “married/unmarried” we wouldn’t normally say “very married” or “very unmarried”.
- And with the antonyms “dead/alive”, we normally wouldn’t say: “How alive is he?”

## Lecture 6

- 1- ----- is a sense relation between words in which the meaning of one word is included in the meaning of the other.
- 2- ----- involves the notion of inclusion in the sense.

### Hyponymy

- 3- The upper term is called the-----  
superordinate
- 4- The “lower” term is called the-----  
hyponym.
- 5- If a superordinate term has more than one hyponym, we call them-----  
co-hyponyms.
- 6- ----- can itself be ----- of another term included in its meaning.  
A hyponym  
a superordinate
- 7- There is ----- in a language.  
not always a superordinate term for hyponyms
- 8- there is ----- in English to -----  
no superordinate term  
cover a variety of professions and crafts
- 9- , hyponymy relations ----- from language to language.  
vary
- 10- ----- has a ----- to include a ----- .  
Greek,  
superordinate term  
variety of occupations.
- 11- Synonymy can be seen----- .  
as a special case of hyponymy
- 12- We call this special case of hyponymy:-----  
“symmetrical hyponymy”.
- 13- The rule here is that if X is a hyponym of Y and Y is a hyponym of X, then X and Y are synonymous.
- 14- ----- is a sense relation in which the ----- has several very -----  
Polysemy  
same word  
closely related meanings (senses).

15- In the case of polysemy, ----- that the different senses are related to each other in some way.

a native speaker of the language has clear intuitions

16- ----- is a sense relation in which ----- have the----- , but ----- that are far apart from each other.

### **Homonymy**

several words

same shape

different meanings

17- In the case of homonymy, ----- are ----- that is clear from a native speaker's intuition.

the senses of the word

not obviously related to each other in any way

18- ----- have to decide whether a particular item is to be handled in terms of polysemy or homonymy,

Dictionary-makers

19- **a polysemic item** will be treated ----- in the dictionary.

as a single entry

20- **a homonymous** one will have ----- for each of the homonyms.

a separate entry.

21- It is important to note that there are cases where homonyms differ in either ----- writing or speech.

a. "Lead" (metal) and "lead" (dog's lead)

have the same spelling, but pronounced differently.

b. "site" and "sight", "rite" and "right"

are spelled differently but pronounced in the same way. For the former,

22- ----- words spelled the same may be used

the term **homography**

23- ----- words pronounced the same.

the term **homophony**

## Lecture 7

- 1- In **componential analysis**, the total meaning of a word is being analyzed into a number of distinct components of meaning ----- .  
semantic features
- 2- In **componential analysis** can offer ----- for handling all the sense relations we have been discussed in our previous lectures.  
a theoretical framework
- 3- notice that in English (and also many other languages) there is ----- that refer to living creatures .  
a three-fold division with many words

4- Analysis of this kind is called componential analysis.

man                  woman                  child

bull                  cow                  calf

ram                  ewe                  lamb

In the light of relationships such as these we can abstract the **components**

(male) and (female),

(adult) and (non-adult)

(human), (bovine) and (ovine).

“ewe” is (ovine), (female), (adult),

“child” is (human), (non-adult) and so on.

5- It allows us to provide definitions for all these words in terms of a few components.

6- In many cases there is ----- in the language to label the component.

an appropriate word

7- The components (male) and (female) are obvious examples.

8- Such labels for components are not, however, always readily available.

For instance, notice the relationship between the words in the following two sets:

come            go

bring           take

- 9- From these two sets, we notice that there is a relationship between the words “come” and “go” which is similar to “bring” and “take”.
- 10- We could therefore distinguish components X and Y and A and B such that “come” is XA and “go” XB, “bring” YA and “take” YB.
- 11- But what could be the names of these components (X, Y, A, B)?
- 12- It is difficult to provide an answer, for they cannot be identified with features that have any simple kind of physical reality.
- 13- the components (male) and (female) are universal components of language.
- 14- But the “come/go” and “bring/take” ----- and it becomes less plausible to assume that they are universal components found in all languages. that not all components are related to simple physical features,
- 15- A particular characteristic of componential analysis----- is that it attempts as far as possible to treat components in terms ----- of “binary” opposites,
- 16- e.g. between (male) and (female), (animate) and (inanimate), (adult) and (non-adult).-----  
-----  
It clearly gives emphasis to the relation of complementarity.
- 17- Notationally, there is an advantage in such binary terms in that we can ----- and distinguish this -----  
choose one only as the label  
in terms of plusses and minuses.
- 18- We can, moreover, refer to ----- as in the case of inanimate objects using the notation 'plus or minus' with the -----  
the lack of a sex distinction  
symbol ( $\pm$  male).
- 19- This works well only where there is a clear distinction.
- 20- ----- as with the words “tar” and “porridge” in relation to the components (solid) or (liquid).  
Often, there is indeterminacy,

21- Componential analysis has been ----- to bring out the **logical relations** that are associated with **sense relations**.

Used

22- Thus by marking man as (+male) and pregnant as (-male), we can rule out **\*pregnant man**.

23- Yet, componential analysis does not handle all sense relations well.

- **Converses (relational opposites) in antonymy**

24- It is difficult to ----- to components.  
reduce the relational opposites

25- **For the relation of "parent/child"** cannot simply be handled by assigning components to each, unless those components are in some sense----- **directional**.

26- **In componential analysis**, cases like these are analyzed as having the-----  
**same components but in a different direction**.

- **Hyponyms**

Componential analysis cannot remove the-----

27- **hierarchical characteristic of hyponymy**.

28-

29- In Hyponyms for the distinction (+male)/(-male) applies only to----- **living (animate) things**.

30- **Componential analysis, therefore**, has to state that: ----- may it be male or female with ----- such as (+animate, +male/-male).  
**only if something is animate**,  
a formula

31- **Componential analysis can handle all the sense relations**, but it handles some sense relations better than others like **hyponyms** and **converses**.

32- It can be made to handle these relations with **some necessary modifications** like adding direction to the analysis in the case of converses.

33- but **it is doubtful** if componential analysis makes these relations **clearer**; it seems rather to obscure their differences.

## Lecture 8

- 1- There is a question about the universality of semantic features - whether all, or some of them at least, occur in all languages.
  - a. **Sapir-Whorf hypothesis**, which suggests that each language may “create” its own world and so its own semantics.
  - b. it could be argued **that components such as (male) and (female) are found in all languages** and that there are many others too, e.g. the basic colors.
- 2- The simplest form of the universalist view is that there is a-----  
**universal inventory of semantic features (components)**
- 3- There are three claims that try to explain the relation between this inventory and the actual features found in individual languages.
  - A) **The strongest claim** says that all languages make use of the whole inventory and so have the same features.
    - This claim seems **highly implausible** in view of what seem to be very obvious differences in languages;
    - it can only be made to work by arguing that all the semantic features can be exhibited somehow in each language.
  - B) **A weaker claim** is that each language uses only some of the features in the total inventory.
    - This might **seem more plausible** - all languages have “male”, “female”, “black”, “white”,
    - However, **many other features are found only in some languages**, and this claim **does not account for these features**.
  - C) A **still weaker claim** is that only some features are universal, while the rest are characteristic of individual languages.
    - Though it may not even be that the universal features are exactly the same in each language.
    - **This seems to be the case with the color terms and categories.**

- If we accept the weakest universalist claim that languages share some semantic features, then we are faced with a question.

What kind of explanation can we give for this phenomenon?

- 4- There are at least five answers which we will discuss in the following section.

(1) “The world is like that.” (physical reality)

(2) The structure of the minds of all people is basically the same. (psychological reality)

- Regarding the first two answers, we can sometimes distinguish between what would seem to be physical reality and psychological reality.
- 
- The differences indicated by “cow”, “horse”, “elephant”.. can be described on a physical basis.
- even though it is true that different people make (roughly) the same color distinctions, **these distinctions** do not really “exist” in physical terms but are part of the psychology of perception.

(3) The cultural needs of different societies are similar. (cultural reality)

(4) There is or has been contact between different societies with different languages.

- Some apparent universals may be no more than an accident of the history of languages in either of the two ways indicated by our last two answers (contact between societies and common language origin).
- For example, the modern Welsh system of color is now much more like that of English, as a result of increasing bilingualism.
- Also, in most semantic areas (including color systems) the languages of Europe have much in common because of ----- between European societies.  
the close contact



(5) The languages of the world all have a common origin.

- regarding the last answer of common language origin of languages, we often **cannot be absolutely sure** about the historical relationship of the languages we are examining.
  - For the language families for which we have evidence, we can go back only a few thousand years.
  - It is possible that all the existing languages of the world have a ----- If so, at least some of the universal semantic features of language -----  
common origin.  
may simply be accidental.
  - Our languages could also have developed in quite different ways and from quite different origins.
- 5- There may be some truth in all of these answers, and it is not at all easy to separate them. Let us examine these answers in more detail.
- 6- We must not, of course, ignore the influence of ----- upon the linguistic systems .  
cultures
- 7- Kinship terminology, for example, will be much more a reflection of cultural influences than of the actual physical relationships.
- 8- For example, in Pawnee the term that we might translate as “father” is used of all the males from the father’s side, while “uncle” is used of all the males from the mother’s side.
- Conversely**, all the females from the mother’s side are called “mother” and all the females from the father’s side are called “aunt”.

- 9- it will not always be easy, or even possible, to distinguish between cultural reality and physical or psychological reality.

10- In the case of color terminology, too, there may be **three factors** at work.

**First**, there are some objective (physical) features - the green of living plants, the red of blood, the blue of the sky.

Here we are describing colors by associating them with our physical reality.

**Secondly**, it may be that there is some psychological reality that distinguishes colors when they are perceived by the brain.

**Thirdly**, cultural considerations may make certain color distinctions important.

- For instance, in the language of the **Navaho tribe**, the basic colors “white”, “black”, “red”, “blue-green” and “yellow” are related to the use of objects and colors used in ceremonials.

- 11- Some apparent universals may be no more than an accident of the history of languages in either of the two ways indicated by our last two answers (**contact between societies** and **common language origin**).

## Lecture 9

### Semantics: Practical Applications

#### Sense Relations

##### Binary Antonymy

- 1- To identify **binary antonyms**, we can test antonymous pairs by seeing if the negative of one term is the equivalent to (or entails) the other.

Thus, “dead” and “alive” are binary antonyms because if something is not dead then it must be alive.

##### Converses

- 2- We mentioned that if a **word describes a relationship between two things** (or people) and **another word describes the same relationship when the two things (or people) are mentioned in the opposite order**, then the two words are **converses** of each other.

For example, “parent” and “child” are converses, because X is the parent of Y (one order) describes the same relationship as Y is the child of X (opposite order).

##### Gradable Antonyms

We mentioned that a good test for gradability, i.e. having a value on some continuous scale, is to see whether a word can combine with “very”, or “very much”, or “how?” or “how much?”

For example, “How tall is he?” is acceptable, but “How top is that shelf?” is not generally acceptable. Thus, “tall” is gradable, but “top” is not gradable.

##### Homonymy and Polysemy

In the case of **homonymy**, **we have two words whose senses are far apart from each other and not obviously related to each other in any way**.

While in the case of **polysemy**, **we have one word which has several very closely related senses (the different senses are related to each other in some way)**.

##### Semantic Fields and Collocation

A **semantic field** **contains a group of words which are related in their meaning**.

**Collocation** **is a relationship between words that specifically or habitually go together**.