

Lexical Semantics: The Meaning of lexemes

The book has been designed to suit for the undergraduate and postgraduate learners of linguistics semantics and communication in general. The text is useful for reading, revising and references for shaping learners of English as their either first or second language. It opens an account of basics in linguistics English semantics as it covers five topics namely: chapter one meaning and its types. Chapter two is on lexical relations, this section opens an account on the types of lexical relations. The next chapter is on semantic changes. Chapter four talks on treating ambiguity of words, phrases or sentences, its deals with two main types of English ambiguities. The final part of this book deals with semantics of tense and aspect, the former includes: present, past and future tense and the latter includes: progressive and perfective aspects. The last of this book are very crucial following the fact that most of the non native speakers of English face challenges in manifesting ambiguities as well as tense and aspects, for that matter this section will be assistance for the readers in pertinent to both written and spoken communication in academics.



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Title: Lexical Semantics: The Meaning of lexemes

ISBN: 979-8-88676-965-4

Author: Chípanda Simon

Cover image: <https://pixabay.com/>

Publisher: Generis Publishing
Online orders: www.generis-publishing.com
Contact email: info@generis-publishing.com

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Preface

This elementary book is intended as an introductory textbook for an introduction to lexical semantics. It is hoped that readers will grasp much in pertinent to introduction of linguistics semantics. Introduction to topics: - meaning and its types, sense relations, semantic changes, ambiguity and tense and aspects in semantics have been exhausted in a simpler way so that students get to understand effortless. After each topic, the author has provided research exercise which would help learners in their future research investigations. Most of learners (masters level) face difficulties in preparing their research task, therefore, it is from this text book research tasks have been suggested which will help students to find the related topics under their study when making references from this book.

The book has been designed purposively to suit for the undergraduate learners of linguistics Semantics who are studying linguistics and communication in general. Moreover, other advanced or postgraduate students studying linguistics may use this elementary book for revision purposes and referencing. Learners, who are expected to read this book, are thought to have good primary basics in linguistics; this makes them to become good linguists for the future.

The motivation for preparing and writing this elementary book was motivated by the lack of enough books of linguistics and Semantics in particular at the Mwalimu Nyerere Memorial Academy's library. When employed at MNMA February 2019, he found: [i] no any linguistics book written by MNMA staff linguist [ii] No semantic sources which make difficulty for students to exhaust semantics knowledge. Thus, it was my enthusiasm to struggle making sure that students get elementary book of linguistics and semantics in particular for their study. This does not only imply that only MNMA learners may benefit from this book but also other learners in the world who can be able to access this book through different links. Apart from that, some topics found in semantics forced me to rethink my own ideas on semantics in confrontation with those of others, as in homographs, homophones and to come up with a consistent picture of what these topics are all about.

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Acknowledgment

I would like to thank and extend my sincere and heartfelt gratitude to almighty God for blessing during the all processes of preparing this book. In a very special way, I would like to humbly submit my sincere appreciation to my pre- editor Mr. Mapunda, the head of printing unit from the University of Dar es Salaam. Needless to say that, this book would less be completed without his guidance. God continue to bless him and his family.

My appreciation also goes to my beloved wife called Neema Thomas Weja for her encouragement by the time I was preparing this book. On several occasions Neema gave me time and advised me to be serious in pertinent to the writing of this book. God bless her greatly.

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CHAPTER ONE: THE TYPES OF MEANING AND

1.1. Introduction

The word *mean* in linguistics can be used in reference to language speakers (authors) for the sense of roughly intention to hearers. Along with other things, it can also be used to a word or sentence implying what is meant by human beings when they apply them. Here we have words' meaning and speakers meaning respectively, as it may, the two can be equivalent or not equivalent. This means that words can mean different from what the language users' mean. It is from this base, we enroll ourselves to literal from non literal meaning. The former implies mathematical sense and the latter associate or social senses. Within the same line, Griffiths (1988:1) differentiates between semantics (mean) from pragmatics (use). To him semantics is the study of "toolkit" for meaning: knowledge encoded in vocabulary of the language and its patterns for building more elaborate meaning. Pragmatics is concerned with the use of these tools in a meaningful communication. Pragmatics is about interaction of semantic knowledge with our knowledge of the world, taking into account contents use. Therefore, Griffiths meant that semantics is about knowledge of words we speak. When these words are insinuated contextually, is where pragmatics takes into account. Thus, still I argue, sentence meaning may or not differ from the meaning of the speakers.

Generally, the study of meaning of symbols, words, phrases, clauses and sentences is called Semantics. Linguistic semantics deals with the conventional meaning conveyed by the use of words, phrases and sentences of a language (Yule, 2006:100). Thus, lexical semantics deals with lexical words' meaning. Its focus lies on the lexicological study of word meaning as a phenomenon in its own unit, rather than on the interaction with other disciplines as in morphological semantics. That is the study of the meaning of morphemes and the way in which they combine into words. This will not be covered here, as it is usually considered as a separate field from lexical semantics proper; an interested reader will see more in Murphy, (1998) and Geeraerts, (2010).

1.2. Types of Meaning

It is very vital to take into considerations the semantics of the “word” simply because without elaborating its semantics, the semantics of the “sentence” may fail to be understood clearly as it is encoded in structural semantics. Therefore, the next subsection elaborates the semantics of the “word” and its types which trigger us to understand the semantics of sentence in linguistics theories at hand.

1.2.1. Denotative meaning

This is one among the types of meanings that sometimes is known as conceptual or basic meaning of the given lexeme. Yule (2006:100) adds that denotative or conceptual meanings those basic essential components of meaning which are conveyed by the *literal use* of the word. He provides us with an example of the word “needle” which implies: thin, sharp, steel instrument. In other words, conceptual meaning is known as dictionary meaning of the lexeme following the fact that its meaning is basic and it is not associated with feeling or attitudes.

1.2.2. Connotative meaning

This is the form of meaning which covers *social association* of words and the way they work in their speech community. Society develops different connotation of either a group or an individual depending on the behaviour, role or other characteristics that trigger such community to name or to mean. Leech, (1990:18) holds that reflected meaning and Collocative meaning, affective meaning and social meaning: all these have more in common with connotative meaning than with conceptual meaning. They all have the same open ended, variable character. All these are under the cover of associative meaning.

1.2.2.1. Collocative meaning

This is the form of meaning whose words co-occur with other words naturally. This means that, words sound natural with others and not otherwise. Consider the following examples:

- 1 (a) Handsome <> boy
- (b) Beautiful <> girl
- (c) Spicy <> pepper
- (d) Butter <> bread
- (e) Needle <> thread

The data in (1) indicate Collocative meaning that meaning such lexemes sound natural with the related person or object. Leech (1974) added that collocation meaning consists of the associations of a word acquiring on account of the meanings of words which tend to occur in the environment.

1.2.2. Reflected meaning

This is the type of meaning in which words reflect the object or creature through which it is related in either terms of role, physical appearance or other characteristics. This goes together with what is known as ‘Construal Principle’. The principle is based on the assumption that meaning is conceptualization (Croft and Cruse, 2004) meaning that a number of operations are involved as in attention, judgment, comparisons perspective or situatedness and constitution. Under these operations one may consider a certain sense differently but in the scope of reflections. Consider the following examples in 2(a) and (b):

2. (a) Tick <> exploiter
(b) Chameleon <> stand less

One may write: ‘*He is a tick*’ — meaning that he is an exploiter or *laziness*, or He is a ‘*Chameleon*’ ‘*unpredictable*’ — meaning that he is stand less or has no stand at all. In Tanzanian context for example, some girls or women who “sell” their bodies (sex workers) are named ATM or Bodaboda. This means that any person may use his card (ATM) to get service or may board any time he wishes. Thus, girls or women are called so implying that any man can take them for sexual interest. This is how reflected meaning takes it account in social and cultural contexts in which the language is insinuated.

1.2.3. Affective meaning

The way an individual feels to someone or something may triggers or affects him or her to rank such person either positively, negatively or neutral. Such ranking triggers the way to call such person and this is nothing but affected semantic scope. Thus, the meaning whose senses depend on either the feelings or attitudes of the speaker is known as affective meaning. Such feeling can be in rank as in negative, positive or neutral. Consider the following examples:

3. (a) She is a skin girl. (Negative)
(b) She is a thin girl. (Neutral/general)
(c) She is a slim girl. (Positive)

The data in 3 shows the way an individual is affected in his or her feeling or psychology. That is why you can call X a slim girl while for another person may call X a skin girl. Therefore, such alternative from our feeling and altitude is nothing but affected meaning in linguistics.

1.2.4. Social meaning

Society cannot be separated with language following the fact that it is the user and owner of it. The term *owner* here is used technically to mean the language users control what they mean to what they say. That is why social meaning is the type among the types of meaning whose representation depends on the how the surrounding community views the individual. Therefore, social meaning depends on the social context in which such a person is brought up. Consider the following sentences:

4. (a) She is a man
- (b) He is a woman

The first of the two sentences implies that the way she acts or the way she does makes people to associate her with other individuals whose behaviour is similar to them. The second sentence shows that probably he is as cowardice as woman; that is why is associated with women.

1.2.5. Thematic meaning

This is the type of meaning which is treated in the text, it is a way a speaker organizes his or her text. Therefore, thematic meaning is the sense which depends on how the speaker or writer organizes his or her message in terms of ordering focus or emphasis as it is encoded in (Leech, 1990:19). Therefore let us see the following examples in 5:

- 5 (a) Juma ate some food.
- (b) Some food was eaten.

The two sentences differ thematically. That is to say, the first sentence emphasizes who ate some food—Juma, while it is true that the second sentence emphasizes what was eaten was “some food”. Thus, the active sentence answers the question of who did what while the passive sentence answers the question what was being done. Therefore, such business relations in the language system are the business of semantics. It is suggest for an interested reader to see more in (Quirk, *et al* 1985) in which semantics contribute in understanding grammar of the language.

Research work

An investigation on the association meaning manifested in football clubs of your choice

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CHAPTER TWO: LEXICAL RELATIONS

2.1. Introduction

The word *sense* deals with relationships in the language. The sense of an expression is its place in a system of semantic relationship with other expression in the language (Hurford, 1988:25-30). Additionally, Hurford defines the word “reference” for making readers to differentiate from senses. “Reference” is a semantic element that deals with relationships between language and the world. To him referent of an expression is often a thing of a person in the world; whereas the sense of an expression is not a thing at all. This means that it is very difficult to tell a sense of an expression but it is easy to tell a certain expression has the same sense with a certain expression (Ibid, 1988: 30). Reference is easy to understand e.g. it is simple to say Mount Kilimanjaro is the second largest one in the world but it is difficult (sense) for one to say where it exists.

Sense relation therefore is one among the theories of semantics which is special for assigning references of the word. It is sense and reference that triggers cognitive and social processing of meaning in the process of communication. It is from this base sometimes semantics is reference, thus picks elements in the real world for a certain creatures or non creature’s representation. Here the Theory of Reference accounts in the sense that a human being refers what is heard, seen, felt, touched and presupposed. Language words may relate either semantically, morphologically, phonetically or phonologically. We see these relations in the next section.

2.1.1. Antonyms

When the colour is red, then it is not white. When the man is tallest of all then he is not shortest of all. When something is good then such a thing is not bad. From this base, the human schemata possess a couple of words with their oppositeness. Thus such behaviour of words to have their implicative is nothing but linguistically known as antonyms. Therefore, words which indicate oppositeness of other words are called antonyms. Natural languages have oppositeness of words we use daily. An understanding of the opposite of words triggers us to understand the lexicons’ expansions of the given language. The following is the list of some antonyms below from English language:

6. (a) Bitter <> sweet
 (b) Far <> near
 (c) Big <> small
 (d) Heave <> hell
 (h) Oral <> written
 (i) Open <> shut
 (j) Profit <> loss

2.1.1.1. Binary antonyms

Binary antonyms are the words which indicate that implication of one thing predicts the impossibility of the occurrence of other thing. This means that if one predicate is applicable, then the other predicate cannot be applicable and the vice versa. For that matter for example, if something is true, therefore it cannot be untrue for the same time. Other examples include the following:

7. (a) Dead <> life
 (b) Love <> hate
 (c) Married <> unmarried
 (d) Profit <> loss
 (e) Clean <> dirty

The mentioned examples are binary antonyms following the fact that one thing cannot predict the other thing. That is to say, if things are the same, therefore, they cannot be different and the vice versa. If someone is wife she cannot be spinster at all.

2.1.1.2. Converse antonym

This means that if a predicate describes a relationship between two things and other predicate describes the same relationship when the two things are mentioned in the opposite order, then the two predicates are a converse of each other. If something is *owned* by a certain individual therefore, that property *belongs* to the individual (Hurford, 1988:116). Other data are observed in the following examples:

8. (a) Sell <> buy

- (b) Give <> take
- (c) Below <> above
- (d) Own <> belong to
- (e) Parent <> child

Here, the antonyms imply that for example parent and child are converses because “child X is the parent of Y (one order)” explains the relationship as it is encoded that Y is the child of X (opposite order).

2.1.1.3. Gradable antonyms

Words whose predicate are opposite ends of a continuous scale of values are known as gradable antonyms. For example “hot” and “cold” are gradable antonyms because hot and cold are continuous scale of values which according to Hurford (1988) can be given names as warm, cool or tepid. Such values could contextually indicate that what is called hot in one context may be cold in another context. That is why are called gradable antonyms. Other examples include the following:

- 9. (a) Tall <> short
- (b) Long <> short
- (c) Top <> bottom

Therefore, good gradable antonyms must have a good test of gradability, for example having continuous scale as in very, very much, or how, and how much, to mention just but a few.

2.1.1.4. Contradictory antonyms

This is the form of antonym which indicates that the sentence expresses one proposition and is a contradictory of a sentence expressing another proposition and it is impossible for both of the two propositions to be true at the same time and circumstances. This situation is known as contradictory antonym. Therefore, a phrase, clause or sentence contradicts another phrase, clause or sentence if it entails a negative truth of another sentence. Consider the following sentences:

- 10.(a) Neema killed Asha <> Asha died

- (b) Neema is my wife <> Neema is not married
- (c) The mouse is dead <> the mouse is alive
- (d) He made Asha to eat <> Asha did not eat

These sentences are regarded as contradictory antonyms following the fact that, they contradict each other. That is to say the truth of one sentence is the proposition of its counterpart.

2.1.2. Synonyms

Words of natural languages are not one traffic consideration. This means that language users have different related alternative words of their choice for use and such alternatives have related sense if not the same. These are words with different spelling and pronunciation but related in their semantic scope. This means that the word and its alternative are in general term known as synonyms. Thus the alternative word of for example quickly is faster. Other linguistic English synonyms include the following:

- 11.(a) Enough <> sufficient
- (b) Busy <> occupy
- (c) Steal <> rob
- (d) Admit <> confess
- (e) Answer <> reply
- (f) Expect <> hope
- (g) Kill <> murder
- (h) Allow <> permit
- (i) Order <> command
- (j) Ability <> capacity
- (k) Attain <> acquire
- (l) Defend <> protect
- (m) Hear <> listen
- (p) Idle <> lazy
- (o) Deny <> refuse
- (r) Oral <> verbal
- (s) Substitute <> replace
- (t) Possible <> probable
- (u) Vacant <> empty
- (v) See <> look

(w) Illegal <> unlawful

The notion of synonym here and sense exist differently though you cannot understand the first without understanding the other. The problems that hinder the understanding of the two can be drawn from social, dialectical or stylistic sphere. For example:

12.(a) Neema has one kid

(b) Weja has one child

Here the underlined words have the same sense. Their differences can be drawn from style and formality. Other synonymous words are like freedom <>liberty; boot <>trunk; house <> apartment; wide <>broad to mention just but a few.

2.1.3. Homophones

“Homo” means “one”; phone means “sound”. From such etymological point of view homonym refers to words which are pronounced as one though they have different spelling and meaning. This definition can be modified in the sense that not all homophone words are being altered as the same, let the word *same* be replaced by *nearby*. Hence, we can argue that linguistics words with nearby pronunciation and spelling but having different meaning are called homophones. Their spelling can be differentiated by either one or two sounds which provokes differences in their sense. Look the following examples in 13(a) - (g):

- | | | |
|----------------|----|------------|
| 13 (a) Altar | <> | alter |
| (b) Complement | <> | compliment |
| (c) Brake | <> | break |
| (d) Born | <> | borne |
| (e) By | <> | buy |
| (f) Check | <> | cheque |
| (g) Council | <> | counsel |

Looking the data in 13, we observe that homophones are nearby pronounced words and that even their orthographies differ with one sound. However, to the best of my knowledge, I am submitting that the term ‘nearby’ should be replaced by the ‘same’ lexemes following the fact that when pronouncing the above lexemes they are heard the same. Thus, homophones are words with different spellings and meaning but having the same pronunciation.

2.1.4. Homonyms

The word *stem* may have two sense representations, namely: “stem” of the word and “stem” as part of the tree. The word *root* may also mean: word root or root of the

trees. The word *valency* may mean: number of protons of a certain element or argument structure of a verb. The general term used to these words whose sense is unrelated is what referred to 2.1.4 above. However, in semantic of words, words of the same spelling and pronunciation with more than one unrelated meaning are known homonyms. In other literatures, homonym is referred as *homograph* meaning that words of the same spelling while having differences in their semantic scopes. While this is true from other literatures, for the best of my knowledge I use the two lexemes not the same, thus the later means two words with the same spelling but having different semantic scopes and pronunciations The following are examples of homonyms in 14 (a) – (g):

14 (a) Bank	<>	an institution
	<>	area of the river
(b) Pupil	<>	a student
	<>	of the eye
(c) Bad	<>	sport equipment
	<>	an animal
(d) Bass	<>	type of fish
	<>	low, deep voice
(e) Bark	<>	dog sound
	<>	outer part of the tree
(f) Fine	<>	of good quality
	<>	a levy
(g) Light	<>	of the sun or lamp
	<>	being not heavy

The listed examples in 14 are homonyms from English language. In this subsection the author argues different from Murthy (1998: 434-448) who points out that words like advice and advise; adapt and adopt; affect and effect; access and excess, allowed and aloud; berth and birth; born and borne, “break” and “brake”, “check” and “cheque” to mention just but a few are homonyms. These are homophones because have nearby pronunciation but having different semantic scopes.

2.1.5. Monosemy

This is nothing but a situation whereby a lexical item has a single sense or meaning (Chabata, 2001: 199). This means that the word’s meaning is used directly or literary as it is generally used in the dictionary. Consider the following examples:

- 15 (a) Man <> a grown male gender person
 (b) Woman <> a grown female gender person
 (c) Look <> direct your eyes in order to see
 (d) God <> Christian, Jewish, Muslim beliefs (the universe maker)

In examples 15 data shows meanings which are out of social context. Therefore, this seconds the idea of Leech (1974) who is of the fact that direct meaning is the basic sense which is also known as literal meaning of the word in linguistics semantics.

2.1.6. Polysemy

Words having the same spelling with multiple related semantic meaning are known as *polysemous* words. This is different from homonym through which its words have unrelated meaning though being having multiple semantic scopes. Additionally, polysemy has been described as the association of two or more related senses with a single linguistic form (Taylor, 2003:102). In the same line of thinking, Goldberg (1995:33) has also described it as a case in which a form is paired with different but related senses. Thus, few examples listed below are polysemous words.

- 16 (a) Head <> part of the body
 <> a leader
 <> cover of the bottle
 (b) Foot <> lower part of the mountain
 <> part of the leg
 (c) Mouth <> oral cavity
 <> of the computer
 (e) Guard <> security person
 <> mud guard (part of the car)

Here it is seen that for example — mouth (of the river Vs mouth of an animal). The two words are related in their senses by the concepts of opening from the interior of some solid mass to the outside, and of a place of issue at the end of some long narrow channel (Hurford, 1988). The word “head” may mean: the head of the department or part of human being or cover of the beer). The sense happens following the fact that “head” is at the top of whoever is referred. The word guard may either imply a person who guards or a solid protective shield. For more interest, see more in Brugman, (1988).

It can be arguably said that polysemous relations are of distance semantics following the fact that the function of one word is not directly the function of its counterpart but

in related ways e.g. the function of the human head cannot be the function (directly) of the head 'cover' of the bear though they are in the same position. Other examples are of different phenomenon as in the mouth (of the river Vs mouth of an animal) are of different characteristics e.g. the former cannot be taken from its part and returned but the later can be.

2.1.7. Meronym

The word that indicates a constituent part of something is known as Meronym. This means that it is the word which denotes the part of the whole. Thus, X is the Meronym of Y if and only if X is the part of Y. We see nail is a part of finger simply because nail is the part of finger or page is a Meronym part of book because it is the part of book. Other examples are listed below in 17 (a) - (p):

- | | | |
|-------------|----|------------|
| 17 (a) Nail | <> | finger |
| (b) Cover | <> | book |
| (c) Bark | <> | tree |
| (d) Leaf | <> | tree |
| (e) Apple | <> | apple tree |
| (g) Finger | <> | hand |
| (h) Ear | <> | head |
| (i) Foot | <> | leg |
| (k) Engine | <> | car |
| (l) Root | <> | tree |
| (m)Root | <> | word |
| (n)Wall | <> | house |
| (o) Sand | <> | break |
| (p) Sand | <> | soil |

The data in (17) show what Meronym is about. However the lexeme 'Meronym' is the opposite of the term Holonym. Thus, Holonym is the name of the whole of which the Meronym is the part as in *finger*, is the Holonym of nail or hand is a Holonym of finger. It can be noted that Meronym is not a single connection or relationship but it is the part-to- whole relationship (Matzner, 2006).

2.1.8. Hyponym

Some words or nouns in natural languages whose senses are represented by one lexeme or term with related senses are part or inclusion of that lexeme. Thus, the word through which its sense is included in the meaning of another is called

hyponyms. Yule, (2006:105) argues that, when the meaning in the inclusion is the meaning of another is known as hyponym. This is denoted by the following examples in 18(a)-(e):

- 18 (a) Animal <> dog (poodle), cat (nyuo), horse snake (asp)
- (b) Plant <> vegetable (carrot), flower (rose), tree (pine)
- (c) Rock <> igneous, sedimentary and metamorphism
- (d) Clothes <> shirt, trouser, t-shirt, underwear, short
- (c) Colour <> red, blue, pink, green, dark, dark blue, white,
- (e) Germ stone <> diamond, emerald, ruby, etc

Therefore, *horse* is the hyponym of animal and *animal* is the hypernym of horse, thus, animal (superordinate) and horse is a subordinate. It means that the small unit is the hyponym and the general unit is the hypernym of the small unit. From the same idea (Griffiths, 1988) gave us hierarchy of hyponyms for simplicity by using English lexeme *house*: to him a *house* is a hyponym of the superordinate *building*, but *building* is, in turn, a hyponym of the superordinate *structure*; and, in its turn, *structure* is a hyponym of the superordinate *thing*. A superordinate at a given level can itself be a hyponym at a higher level, as shown below:

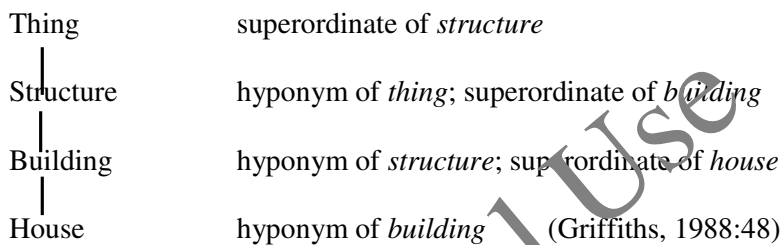


Figure 1. Superordinates can be hyponyms and vice versa

The above example shows that superordinate can be hyponyms and vice versa. Under the level of analysis, the *house* is a small category which falls under the large category of building and so forth.

2.1.9. Metonym

Metonym is defined as “a cognitive process in which one conceptual entity, the vehicle, provides mental access to another conceptual entity, the target, within the same domain...” (Kövecses, 2002:145). Consider an example whereby the tongue can stand for speech whilst the hand can stand for writing (Ungerer and Schmid 1996:31). Chabata, (2007) argues that metaphor and metonym are closely related; however, besides this close relationship the processes differ in a significant way. This

metaphor has an entity in one domain being understood through reference to another entity in another domain. Metonymy has two concepts or entities that are closely related to each other in conceptual space. Check the listed examples in 19 (a) – (f):

- 19 (a) Tongue <> speech
 (b) Hand <> writing
 (c) Tea <> drink
 (d) Mouth <> eating
 (e) Rain <> floods
 (f) Sun <> light

The examples listed in 19 data especially at the right side of the data indicate relationship to the left side of each item. For example flood has relative context within the same domain with rain. Within the same line of thinking, Lakoff and Johnson (1980) in their book entitled ‘Metaphors we live by’ argued that the phenomenon of using one entity to refer to another entity which s related to it is nothing but ‘metonymy’. From this base, Taylor (2003) added that such term metonymy resides in the possibility of making connection between entities which co-occur within a given conceptual frame.

2.1.10. Homograph

Etymologically, a homograph (from the Greek: ὁμός, homós, "same" and γράφω, gráphō, "write") thus from this base, homographs are words that share the same written form as another but having different semantic scope or meaning. In other words, homograph is another form of sense relations which refers as to a word having the same spelling but has different meaning and pronunciation. Some writers confuse homograph with homonym or/and homophones, though these are quite different lexemes and their semantics. The following are examples of homograph in linguistics semantics:

18. (a) Lead (i) /li:d/ for reading
 (ii) /led/ for minerals
 (b) Wind (i) /wind/ for air in motion
 (ii) /wəɪnd/ for a clock
 (c) Close (i) /cləʊs/ Adv – being near by
 (ii) /kləʊz/ verb – act of shutting

The data in 20 (a, b) evidence that homographs are lexemes of the same orthography but having different semantic scopes together with pronunciation, this can also be seen in the lexeme like *LIVE* to mean existence and *LIVE* to mean something in press. In this text, I argue differently from the other scholars pondering on homographs e.g. Ibrahim (2018:25-30) submits that lexemes '*fine*, '*second*' evening and *well*, also Richard, 2019) gave examples like conduct (V) and conduct (N) as homograph lexeme. These lexemes are not homographs because they have no qualifications of being homographic lexemes. Ibrahim's data are homonyms while Richard's data are being triggered by stress shift for conversion process but such segmental mutation cannot trigger homographic formation.

2.1.11. Componential analyses

This is another approach through which meaning is organized in terms of components. Thus, componential analysis uses semantic features for equating words' meaning. That is to say, the presence of X may or not imply the presence of Y or the vice versa. Thus, Palmer (1983:85) adds that, a total meaning of a word can be seen in terms of number of distinctive elements or components of meaning. Table 1 represents componential analysis:

Table 1. Componential Analysis

Components	Man	Woman	Boy	Girl	Cow	Got
Human	+	+	+	+	-	-
Adult	+	+	-	-	-	-
Male	+	-	+	-	-	-
Female	-	+	-	-	-	-
Animate	+	+	+	+	+	-

Source: Adapted from Palmer, (1976:85).

Table 1 depicts components and how they qualify to be components. For example the feature of adult qualifies to have +man and +woman because these names collocate with adult in characters. Semantics however, employs linguistics properties in tackling componential analysis, namely: naming, paraphrasing, defining and classifying. Thus, the symbol + may include one or two of these properties (Nida, 1975:64-66).

2.2. Treating ambiguity

Sentence is ambiguous when it has more than one sense. The sentence is ambiguous if it has two or more paraphrases which are not paraphrases of each other (Hurford, 1988). If a word or sentence has more than semantic scope, we qualify to argue that such lexeme or string is ambiguous. There are two forms of ambiguity in linguistics inquiry, namely: lexical and structural ambiguity. We start with lexical ambiguity:

2.2.1. Lexical ambiguity

This is one among the form of ambiguity which happens when a word has more than one interpretation. A case of either homonym or polysemy formulates ambiguity and is regarded as lexical ambiguity. Consider the words underlined in the following sentences:

21. (a) We saw her head.

(b) That is the plane.

The two sentences in 19 are ambiguous following the fact that they have more than one sense each as a “head” can be the leader (headmaster/mistress) and plane can be aeroplane against flat surface area.

2.2.2. Grammatical ambiguity

This is the form of ambiguity that occurs when a string contains more than one interpretation. Hurford (1988:128) argues “a sentence which is ambiguous because its words relate to each other in different ways, even though none of the individual words are ambiguous, is structurally or grammatically ambiguous”. This means that the string words in a sentence harvests contradictory thinking or assumption of which an or the alternative can be true. Such expression or structure is also known as amphiboly or amphibology. Consider the following sentences listed below in 22(a)-(c):

22. (a) Visiting professors can be dangerous.

(b) They killed Juma with a knife.

(c) They passed the port at mid night.

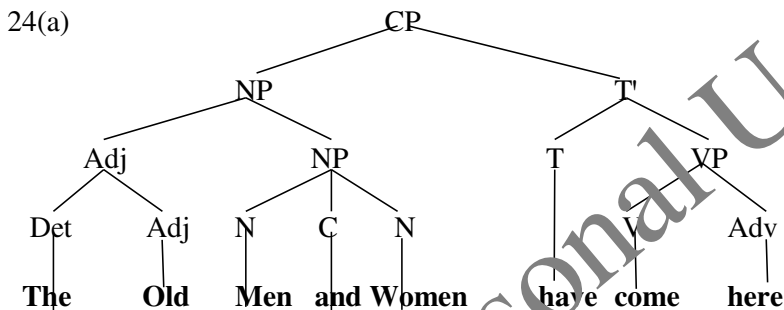
These strings are ambiguous because they have more than one sense. The first structures’ semantic scope may be that “it can be dangerous to visit professors” and

the second semantic scope may be that “professors who are visiting us are dangerous”. The second structures’ semantic scope may be that they (killers) used a knife to kill Juma and the second semantic scope may be that Juma had a knife when killed. The last structure: They passed the seaport at the mid night Vs They passed the port wine at the mid night.

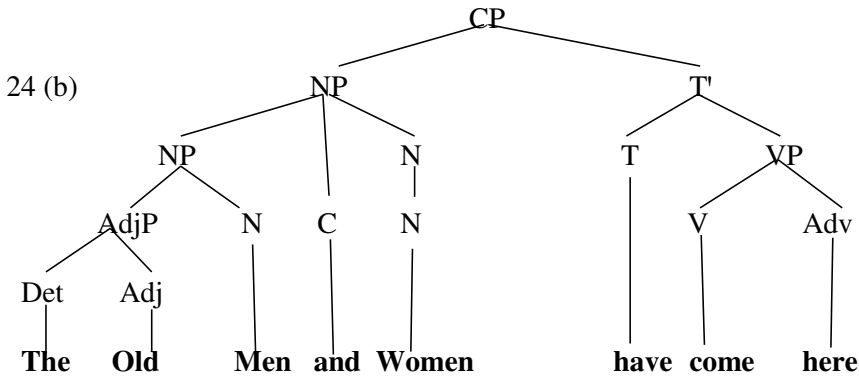
The ambiguity phrase or sentence can be represented by using tree paradox reading the two interpretations. Consider the following sentences in 23v(a)-(d):

- 23. (a) The old men and women have come here
- (b) The mother of the girl and the boy have come
- (c)The mother of the girl and the boy have come
- (d) The dog chased the cat with a mouse

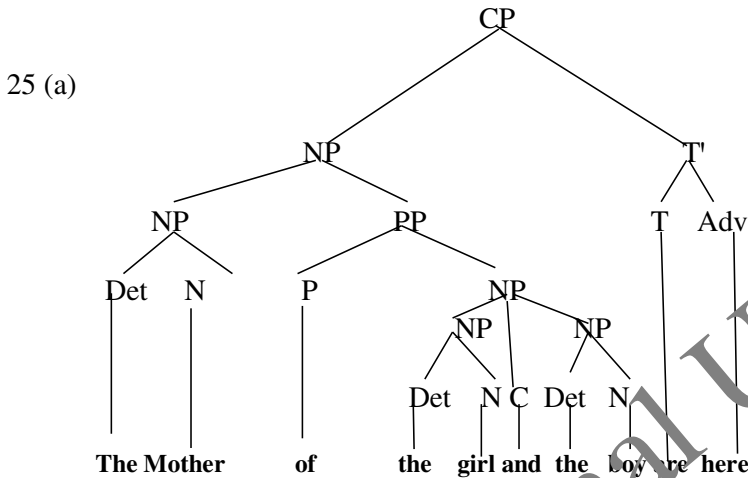
Examples in 23 indicate that each sentence has more than one interpretation. In 23 (a) two interpretations can be observed: one, both men and women are cleaver and two, only men are cleaver. In 23 (b) two interpretations are observed: one, the mother and the boy has come; two, two mothers (of the girl and the boy) have come. Also in 23(c) two interpretations: one, the dog used mouse for chasing the cat and two, the cat had a mouse when chased. Therefore, these sentences can be interpreted by using tree paradox as it is illustrated in 24 (a)-(c):



Example in 24 (a) shows that “old” is the property of both men and women. Therefore, an adjective “old” modifies both men and women. This is different from 24 (b) interpretations:



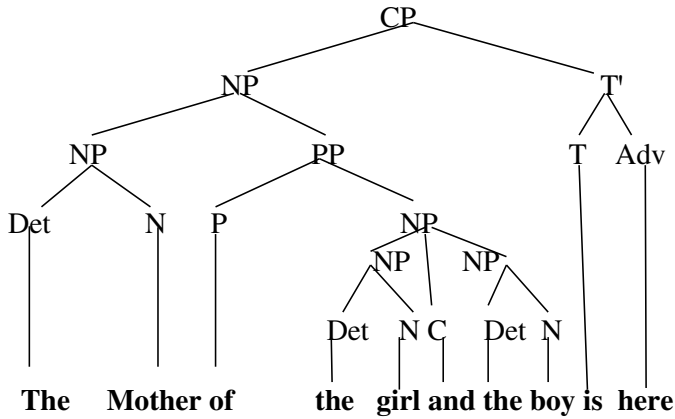
An example given in 24(b) shows that “old” is not the property of both men and women. It is only the property of men. Therefore, an adjective “old” modifies men and not women. Let us consider another interpretations in 25 (a-c) below:



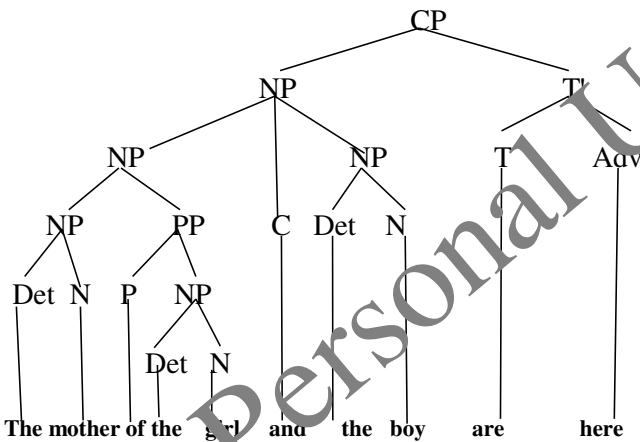
The interpretations being given in 25 (a) shows only one mother (parent) of the girl and another boy. This means that, the boy and the mother of the girl are the ones who are present here. This differs from the interpretations being given from 25(b) illustrations:

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25 (b)



Example being given in 25 (b) shows another reading structure: “*The mother of the girl and the boy is here*” which means only one mother of the two (a girl and a boy) individuals. This means that the auxiliary “is” triggers the reader to exhaust such interpretations opposite from the “are” auxiliary being given in 25 (a). However, this is different from the interpretations being given in 25 (c) illustrations:



The interpretations being given in 25 (c) shows that there are two mothers (parents), namely: the mother of the girl and the mother of the boy. From the tree paradox we observe that the concentration or prominence is provided to the NP at the left part of the tree paradox together with possessive preposition.

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CHAPTER THREE: SEMANTIC CHANGES

3.1. Introduction

Meaning of the lexemes is not static; it may change due to the time and space in a given context. Therefore semantic change is one among the language change behaviour in which the concept of the word changes its meaning. Thus, these changes can be in form of semantic broadening, narrowing, shift, synecdoche, amalgamation, elevation, metonym degeneration to mention just but a few.

"If meaning as such consists of cognitive categories—a psychological type of entity—then meaning changes must be the result of psychological processes. That is to say, the general mechanisms of semantic change that can be derived from the classificatory study of the history of words constitute patterns of thought of the human mind. Bréal calls these mechanisms 'les lois intellectuelles du langage' (the conceptual laws of language), but he hastens to add that 'law' means something different here than in the natural sciences: a law of semantic change is not a strict rule without exceptions, but it represents a tendency of the human cognitive apparatus to function in a particular way" (Geeraerts, 2010:12).

From this quotation, it can be argued that semantic changes a human based orientation—manifestations following their cultural bases. All words are actions in semantic change bases. These changes can be broader (broadening) or narrow (narrowing) of semantic lexemes in philosophical semantics.

3.1.1. Semantic broadening

This is when the meaning of the word becomes more general than specific. In other words, the word gets other than its original meaning. Tripp, (1966:31) gave us example of the word *dogge* in Middle English meant specific breed of dog but it was eventually broadened to encompass all members of *canis familiaris*. Also the word *holiday* meant a hole day of religious significance but today the word holiday implies, any day that we do not have to work. Interested readers, see more in (O'grady *et al* 1989:295-6). Moreover, these examples and others are shown in table 2:

Table 2. Semantic broadening

Word	Old meaning	New meaning
Bird	Small fowl	Any winged creature
Barn	Place or store barley	Any agricultural building
Aunt	Father's sister	Father or mother's sister
Dog	A hunting breed	Any canine

Source: O'Grady *et al* (1989:206)

The data in table 2 above shows lexemes' senses have been extended from single to multiple semantics. This behaviour can be attested in deferent languages of the world. For example Kisukuma language of Tanzania has expanded lexemes' senses from Kiswahili language e.g. *Chupas* is one among the lexemes borrowed from Kiswahili language to Kisukuma language. The meaning of the word *Chupa* in Kiswahili is 'bottle' (of glass). However, when borrowed into Kisukuma language becomes *Chupá* and it is used differently in this language as in: thermos, bottle of water being it either plastic or non plastic. Additionally, in colloquial context, the lexeme *Chupá* is used to mean a thin person or skeleton person. This means Sukuma speakers have extended the semantic scopes of the *Chupa* to have more interpretations (Simon, 2023).

3.1.2. Semantic narrowing

This is the opposite of semantic broadening. It is the process in which the meaning of the word becomes less general. This means that the word changes from general meaning to specific meaning. O'Grady and Dobrovolsky (1989:206) gave us these examples; in old English the word "hound" meant any dog but currently means a hunting breed; also in old English, the word meat meant any type of food but currently it means flesh of animal. These examples and others are shown in table 3:

Table 3. Semantic narrowing

Word	Old meaning	New meaning
Hound	Any dog	A hunting breed
Meat	Any type of food	Flesh of an animal
Fowl	Any bird	A domesticated bird
Disease	Any unfavorable state	An illness

Source: O'Grady and Dobrovolsky (1989:206)

With regard to terms of narrowing and broadening, terminologically, ‘restriction’ and ‘narrowing’ of meaning equal ‘specialization’; ‘expansion’, ‘extension’, ‘schematization’, and ‘broadening’ of meaning equal ‘generalization’ (Geeraerts, 2010:27). The author continues by giving us examples of specialization are *corn* (as we saw earlier, originally a cover term for all kinds of grain, now specialized to ‘wheat’ in England, to ‘oats’ in Scotland, and to ‘maize’ in the United States) and *queen* (originally ‘wife, woman’, now restricted to ‘king’s wife, or female sovereign’). Examples of generalization are *moon* (primarily the earth’s satellite, but extended to any planet’s satellite), and French *arriver* (which etymologically means ‘to reach the river’s shore, to come to the bank’, but which now signifies ‘to reach a destination’ in general). To him a comparison of the *moon* example and the *corn* example shows that the original meaning either may remain present or may disappear after the development of the new meaning.

Bantu languages also exhibit the phenomenon mentioned above, evidences can be drawn when certain language has borrowed lexemes from another language, as the result when the new lexemes come integrated in the new language, its meaning also may get modification as far as semantics narrowing is concerned. Examples can be seen in Machame language of Tanzania when borrowed words from Kiswahili language, e.g. lexeme *pamba* are a Kiswahili lexeme which means: cotton, new or good clothes, but when integrated in Machame the meaning has been narrowed into ‘cotton’ only. The lexeme *jaraja* has been narrowed to mean ‘grade’ but in Kiswahili has multiple semantics as in ‘grade-score’, ‘bridge and promised place to be (Muslims) as lowest or highest grade after death (Urassa, 2020:73-74).

3.1.3. Semantic shift

This is the third types of semantic changes in which a word undergoes a shift in meaning. However, semantic shift is the change (shift) in meaning of a word in the context that such meaning is used to refer to something (else) as different from the original meaning (Mapunda & Rosenthal, 2015). it can shift from positive to negative (de-generation), for example, the word *Lusi* in old English meant pleasure but in modern English means sexual over tones. The word *silly* meant happy or prosperous but currently means *foolish*. Moreover, the meaning can shift from negative sense to positive sense (elevation/amelioration). For example, the word *madam* meant female head of prostitution but in modern English it implies any employed person (see more in Tripp, 1966 and O’Grady and Dobrovolsky 1989). Let us see one after another.

3.1.3.1. Elevation

This is sometimes known as amelioration. It is a semantic change towards a positive value of the word in the mind of the language (Campbell, 2006). This means that elevation is the change of the word from negative to positive evaluation. Consider the following examples in 26 (a)-(c):

26 (a) Casa	'hut, cottage'	<>	casa	'house'
(b) Ville	'farm'	<>	ville	'city, town'
(c) Nice	'foolish'	<>	nice	'good'

Data in 26 (a) – (c) show that, the Latin word 'casa' meant 'hut, cottage'. Its meaning gained a more positive sense in Spanish as 'house'. The same issue to the word 'ville' in Latin meant 'farm' and became to mean 'city or town' in Spanish. The English word *nice* originally meant foolish, stupid, senseless etc but currently has gained a positive sense to mean good or something better (See more in Campbell, 2006: 262).

3.1.3.2. Degeneration

Sometimes degeneration is known as *peroration*. It is the change of the word from positive to less positive or to negative value, thus, more negative evaluation of the sense of the lexeme. The word *silly*, for instances means stupid, foolish came from Middle English *sely* 'which meant innocent, happy' etc.

3.2. Synecdoche

Synecdoche comes from Greek *sunekdokhé* which means "inclusion". This is another form of semantic change which deals with the inclusion of meaning from the original. In other words, a synecdoche is adapted to give variety to language by letting us understand the plural from the singular, the whole from a part, a genus from the species, something following from something preceding, and vice versa, (Geeraerts, 2010:6). From this base, it can be said that "tongue" means language, "sun" means day, moon > month. The synecdoche is synonymous with the word Meronymy as we have seen above. An interested reader may see more in (Campbell, 2006:259).

3.3. Metonymy

Is a change in meaning of a word whose meaning is closely related to its original meaning, though the conceptual association between old and new meaning may lack precision. It is also thought to be semantic shift within the same domain (Traugott and Dasher, 2002:28-29). However Traugott and Dasher's base is similar to Geeraet (2010:6) who was of the opinion that synecdoche is not far from metonymy, it is the substitution of one word for another e.g. the Greek rhetoricians, as Cicero observes, call it '*hypallage*'. It indicates an invention, by the inventor, or a thing possessed, by the possessor. Within the same line of thinking, an English word *tea* is associated with or in addition to the *drink*, evening meal in many English speaking communities.

3.4. Metaphor

Metaphor is one among semantic changes in linguistics. It involves understanding or experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another kind of thing thought somehow to be similar in some way (Campbell, 2006:256). Metaphor triggers semantic changes in our social contexts with which it houses the meaning of word that suggest a semantic similarity or connection between new sense and the original one in different domains.

Metaphor is not new word to us, that the illiterate and literate often use it unconsciously manner. However, within the line of academics it has become a topic under discussion because it increases the copiousness of a language by allowing it to borrow what it does not naturally possess; and, what is its greatest achievement; it prevents an appellation from being wanting for anything whatever (Cf, Geeraet 2010:6).

To be specific, the metaphor is a short comparison of two contexts: one, an object is compared with the thing which we wish to illustrate, and two, the object is put instead of the thing itself to be presented. It must be noted that, like simile, a metaphor is not introduced by: so, as, so etc. (Murphy, 1998:548). O'Grady and Dobrovolsky (1989) gave the following examples of English metaphor in table4:

Table 4. Some examples of English metaphor

The word	New meaning
Grasp	Understand
Yarn	Story
High	On drugs

Down	Depressed
Sharp	Smart
Dull	Stupid

Source: O’Grady and Dobrovolsky (1989:207)

The table above informs us on some English metaphorical expressions. Feldman (2006) looks Metaphor as the source of all cultural knowledge as embodied experiences of human being, thus Metaphors are perceived as ways of tools of expressing people’s experience.

3.5. Amalgamation

This is another approach in attempting to treat theoretical meaning of words. Amalgamation is when a formally free-standing words come together in a single word with the loss of (one) sound and the meaning changes. The two words — *all* and *ready* combine to be *all ready* to mean all are ready done or all have completed a certain action. It has become combined to be *already* means something is completed. Amalgamation is considered to be a kind of analogy in linguistics semantic changes as it is seen in linguistics literatures. Other examples from English language are:

- | | | |
|---------------------|----|------------|
| 27 (a) All together | <> | altogether |
| (b) All one | <> | alone |
| (c) All ways | <> | always |
| (d) All most | <> | almost |
| (e) All right | <> | alright |
| (f) No one | <> | none |

Data in 27 (a) – (f) show that amalgamation is the kind of semantic change in which meanings change although still in the same categorical context as in no one is like none. Interested readers, see more in (Campbell, 2006:277).

Research work

Make an analysis on the manifestations of metaphor in one of the language of your choice and then accountability within Cognitive Grammar Theory.

CHAPTER FOUR: SEMANTICS OF TENSE AND ASPECTS

4.1. Introduction

Two reasons have triggered the author of this book to present tense and aspect following the fact that [i] in any speech we convey for a certain meaning, tense and aspect is unavoidable [ii] most of the undergraduate students face problems in pertinent to English grammar as far as Tense and aspect is all about. Since meaning is not only expressed through lexical words in natural languages, it is also expressed clearly through verbs and the way they change grammatically. Hence, it is better to present tense and aspect and how they help us to convey different semantic scopes.

4.1.1. Tense

Tense is a term used in grammar to indicate the time of the action or event (Murthy, 1998:151). Tense is divided into three classes, namely: present; past and future tense. The three tenses are represented in aspective profiles. This means that each one of the three is divided into four sub categories or sometimes known as aspects in linguistics. Tense is about inflectional pointers to the position of events relative to their time of utterance. While this is true, aspect is the issue of grammatical resources for encoding the time profiles of states and events within an interval of time, (Griffiths, 2006:100). Additionally it is said that tense is deictic while aspect is not deictic. The next subsection describes each of the three.

4.1.1.1. Present tense

When the verbs indicate the present time, this is described as present tense. Auxiliaries such as *are*, *is* and *am* are used directly for this form of tenses and it is described as present continuous tense. Auxiliaries such as *has* and *have* represent present perfect aspect. While this is true, the addition of suffixes such as *-s-*, *-es-* and *-ies-* to verbs indicate the form of simple present as well as the indication of the –has/have been- auxiliary form indicates the present perfect continuous tense. See more in the following examples 28 (a)-(b); 29 (a)-(c); 30 (a) - (b) and 31 (a)-(b):

- 28 (a) We drink well. <> do we drink well?
(b) She drinks well. <> does she drink well?

- 29 (a) You have written well. <> have you written well?
 (b) It has written my book. <> it written my book?
- 30 (a) We have been writing. <> have we been writing?
 (b) He has been writing <> has he been writing?
- 31 (a) We are eating some food. <> are we eating some food?
 (b) He is eating some food now. <> is he eating some food now?

Data in 28-31 sentences indicate the present tense and its aspects. That is to say 28 shows simple aspect, 29 structures indicate progressive aspect, 30 shows perfective aspect and 31 indicate perfective progressive aspect. Here, whatever the speaker writes or utters he or she cognitively adheres to a certain linguistics time and aspect to the hearer. For example if speaker X tells hearer Y as follows:

32. X: I have told you... stand up the time is over.
 Y: hee! Wonders and stand slowly walking.

These sentences indicate the present tense together with perfective aspect of which the tense entails. Cognitive semantics for the two persons as in X and Y are insinuated in their mind following the fact that their schemas between the X and Y understand each other according to the aspect. Y understands not only the sentence arrangement in pertinent to SVOCA style but the meaning of its components especially the auxiliary have and the verb told which indicate that the time is out of Y.

However, each tense represented has manifestation. For example, simple present may refer to the past and the future. That is to say, semantically, the normal/simple present tense may refer to the either past, or future depending on the structure of the sentence being organized. This subsection encompasses the some usage of the simple present tense shortly. Consider the following sentences in 33 (a)-(b):

- 33 (a) The book of Genesis *speaks* terrible reality of human being original
 (b) We *hear* that Professor Muniyo has become a chief of the village

The sentence in 33 (a) shows that the book of Genesis is lively currently though it was written many thousands of years ago. 33 (b) shows as the event takes place just now though it is the past one. That is to say the verb “hear” shows as we hear just now while it refers to the past as we used to hear. Therefore, these are semantic organization of the simple present referring to the past.

We have also simple present referring to the future. That is to say in the main clause it appears with time position adverbials and in dependent clause it is mostly manifested with the conditional or temporal clause. Consider the following examples in 34 (a)- (b):

- 34 (a) The plane *leaves* for X at 8:00 PM
 (b) I will perform better if you *pay* me much.

In 34 (a) the verb appears with adverbial after preposition and 34 (b) indicates the condition of doing well if paid. The two sentences indicate that present tense representing the future semantic references.

4.1.1.2. Past tense

Semantically, Quirk *et al* (1985:183) argue that the meaning of the past tense with reference to the past time has two features, namely: one, the event/state must have taken place in the past, with a gap between its completion and the present moment; and two, the speaker or writer must have in mind a definite time at which the event/state took place. The first condition can be exemplified by the sentence like: *I kept money for many years* in which the common implication or meaning is that presently I'm not keeping money now. The second condition can be presented by: *Juma joined university last year 1999* sentence, showing the past time and the time position as in last year, several weeks, yesterday, etc.

It is from these examples, we agree with Murthy (1998:151) who states: "when a verb is used to show that an action was completed, it is known as the past tense". This definition seems similarly to mean the time had already done which is too narrow to take into consideration. For the best of the author's knowledge, past tense is the period of time which was operationalized in a simple completion, progressively or perfectly manner. This means that the time can be already past but how past is past is described through aspects. Consider the following sentences in 35 (a)- (b); 36 (a)- (b) and 37 (a)-(b) and 38(a)-(b):

- | | | |
|-----------------------------|----|-----------------------|
| 35 (a) We came here | <> | did we come here? |
| (b) He plagiarized | <> | did he plagiarize? |
| 36 (a) They had plagiarized | <> | had they plagiarized? |
| (b) She had plagiarized | <> | had she plagiarized? |
| 37 (a) We had been writing | <> | had we been writing? |
| (b) He had been writing | <> | had he been writing? |

- 38 (a) You were plagiarizing <> were you plagiarizing?
 (b) He was plagiarizing <> was he plagiarizing?

Examples in 35-38 data present the past time known as past tense with its aspects. Here it is seen that auxiliaries such as “had”, “had been”, “were” and “was” show aspect of the past tense. This means that “had” as auxiliary indicates perfective aspect while had been indicate past perfective progressive aspect and “were” or “was” indicate past progressive aspect. It must be noted that the simple past tense indicate the simple past tense and this is nothing but simple/habitual aspect, it can be thousand years ago, two years, one day or hours ago. This shows the point of progression, since it has no limit of which simple past is simple past limits.

In connection to semantics, as it is observed elsewhere in this tex, here the meaning of the past tense does not necessarily show completed event. It can refer to present and future time also. The meaning of the past tense showing present and the tense indicates semantic meanings as in: *direct* and *indirect phenomena*. Here we see that the past tense may reports the event known as backshift of the subordinate clause which is optional but its usage reflects the present time. Consider the sentence in 39 below:

39. Did you tell people that you have no money?

This sentence indicates backshift following the fact that the sentence describes speech in the future containing a reported speech clause referring to the present. Also, it functions to show *altitudinal past*. It is one among the semantic scope which is used to express mental state, reflecting or showing the mental altitude of the participant being a speaker, other than the past time as it is expressed in the below pair of examples in 40 (a)-(b):

40. (a) Did/ do you need to see me now
 (b) I wonder/wondered if you could help us (Quirk *et al* 1985)

These sentences indicate that both the present and the past time refer to the present state. Finally, it shows *hypothetical past*. This is used in certain dependent clause and expresses what is contrary to the expectation of the speaker. Consider the below sentences:

41. If you came late you would see the tree.

This sentence shows the non appearance of the state or event in the present or future. Thus the implication of the sentence is that the hearer did not attend on time.

4.1.1.3. Future tense

This is the time which indicates the expectation of an action to be done. As it is encoded in other tenses, future time can be either progressive or perfective. The act which is spoken about the future can indicate promise, request, command, declaration to mention just but a few. Consider the following examples in 42 (a)- (b); 43 (a)-(b); 44 (a)- (b) and 45 (a)-(b):

- 42 (a) We will come. <> will we come?
 (b) He shall come. <> shall he come?
- 43 (a) They will have written. <> will they have written?
 (b) He will have written. <> will he have written?
- 44 (a) You will have been eating. <> will you have been eating?
 (b) He will have been eating. <> will he have been eating?
- 45 (a) We will be plagiarizing. <> will we be plagiarizing?
 (b) He will be plagiarizing. <> will he be plagiarizing?

Examples from 42-45 show future tense with its four aspects; that is, 42 indicates habitual or simple aspect, 43 and 44 represent future progressive aspects and 45 represents future perfective aspect in English grammar. Each of the aspect has its own profile of semantic representation in either writing or speech communication acts. The table in 5 shows the aspects in summary:

Table 5. Combination of Two Part labels for Tense – aspect

	Past tense	Present tense	Future tense
Simple aspect	Past simple	Present simple	Future simple
	saw	see	will see
Progressive aspect	Past progressive	Present progressive	Future simple
	was/were seeing	am, is, are seeing	will see
Perfect aspect	Past perfect	Present perfect	Future perfect
	Had seen	Has, have seen	will have seen

Adopted from Griffiths, (2006:96).

4.2. Aspect

According to Griffiths (1988) an aspect is about grammatical resources for encoding the time profiles of states and events within an interval of time. In the other hand aspect refer to the grammatical category which reflects the way in which the verb is regarded or experienced with respect to time, however (cf 4.1.1) unlike tense, aspect is not deictic following the fact that it is not relative to time of utterance (Quirk *at el*, 1985:189). This subsection summarizes forms of aspect in English grammar despite being shown practically in sentences (cf, 19-29). We must note that without aspect we cannot reach the success of time profile of interpretation.

4.2.1. Habitual aspect

This is one among English aspects which show — the often done action. This is an action which is done frequently by an animate or inanimate. Griffiths, (1988) holds that the adverb *now days* triggers habitual interpretation of the present tense. This is confirmed in 46(a) and (b):

46. (a). She loves music (now days).
(b) He drinks decaffeinated coffee (now days) (Griffiths, 2006:100).

These sentences are habitual in nature which is nothing but simple aspect. They are evidenced by loving music *now days* and drinking decaffeinated coffee *now days*. However, the word *now days* does not necessarily trigger habitual even if absent, the sense of habitual still applies. One may say or write *she loves music* still habitual aspect of the present tense. Moreover, simple or habitual aspect is summarized in table 6:

Table 6. Habitual Aspect

<i>Past simple aspect</i>	<i>Present simple aspect</i>	<i>Future simple aspect</i>
We went to school.	He or she loves matoke.	He or she will love matoke.
He brushed his shoes.	They clean the doors.	They will clean the doors.

Source: Author's construction (2023).

The simple past aspect or habitual aspect points a single event and shows clearly that we went to school or he brushed his shoes. The present simple aspect describes clearly the everyday activities or the activities that are being operationalized frequently. The future simple aspect indicates or admits the will plan. This means that it the coming period without indicating how long is it will take. Therefore, habitual is the strongest reading for present simple (Miller, 2002:148).

4.2.2. Progressive aspect

This is one among the English aspects which indicates progression of the events. It is marked by verb to BE plus verb “-ing”. Semantically it indicates that events are endless because they are in progress. This is the way of drawing events on time. For instance, the sentence like “hurry up, the car is moving” indicate that the event is in progress. The person who is told to make it quickly is in the progressive activity and the car is progressively moving respectively. In other words for example “*He sings a song*” and “*He is singing a song*”, are sentences with the same tense, but different in aspect. It must be noted that their difference makes also difference in their meaning. The table depicts progressive aspect:

Table 7. Progressive Aspect

<i>Past progressive aspect</i>	<i>Present progressive aspect</i>	<i>Future progressive aspect</i>
We were drinking liquid.	It is drinking liquid.	They will be drinking liquid.
He was drinking liquid.	I'm drinking liquid.	You will be drinking liquid.

Source: Author's construction (2022).

The tables shows that auxiliaries such as “are”; “am”; “were”; “was” and “is” indicate that the events are in progression without showing the endless of the event so far for the case of past and present aspect. The future progressive aspect entails auxiliary “will” plus “be” then verb with *-ing* form for formulating future progression.

4.2.3. Perfective aspect

This is one among the forms of aspects which indicate the short time ago for the past, present or the future. According to Quirk (1985:190), perfective aspect indicates anterior time as in time preceding whatever time orientation is signaled by tense or by other elements of the sentence or its context. Auxiliaries including: *has, have/ will/shall have* and *had* are used to present perfective form of English grammar. Consider the following in table 8:

Table 8. Perfective Aspect

<i>Past perfective aspect</i>	<i>Present perfective aspect</i>	<i>Future perfective aspect</i>
We had drunk liquid.	It has drunk liquid.	They will have drunk liquid.
He had drunk liquid.	I had drunk liquid.	You will have drunk liquid.

Source: Author's construction, (2023).

The sentences in table 8 indicate perfective aspect. This is aspect which does not show the continuation of the event rather than the completion of the event.

4.2.4. Perfective Progressive aspect

There are events which take place two in one period. The first shows progression while the second shows the sense of completion. Such situation I encode to be perfective progressive aspect in English grammar. Therefore, this form of aspect indicates that a certain action has been taking place since a point of time and the other event has already taken place in a finished form. Consider the following sentences in 47 (a) and (b):

47. (a) Asha has been playing when her friend (has) collapsed
(b) They have been doing examination by 9:00PM sharp

The two sentences in 47 (a) and (b) are in form of perfective progressive. In 47 (a) there are two events, the first event that “Asha has been playing netball” shows progression. This means that the action has been in progress. While the action of playing netball is in press another event of her friend to collapse has already taken place either in Asha’s understanding or not. Considering examples in 47 (b), it is observed that the point of time is over when people had been writing an examination. Similar claim can be made drawing attention to the context when students are given test of one an hour. We find that one an hour is over (completed) while students still writing, it is where the invigilator quickly announces ‘... pens down...’. This implies that, the point of time is over while the event has been taking place. This concurs with Griffiths, (2006) who points out that progressive aspect is marked by BE+ Verb – *ing*. Semantically, it down plays the onset and ignores the end of the event, focusing instead on its middle phase (s), presenting it as going. Griffiths (1988:103) did not consider the progression of either present/past perfective progressive in the past, present or the future. To him he considered progressive aspect of just BE+ Verb-*ing* — implying the present continuous aspect. He gave an example as it reads:

48. Hurry, the bus is leaving (Griffiths, 2006:103).

An example in 48 shows that auxiliary “is” and the verb with “-ing” (leav-*ing*) is the indicator of progressive aspect. However, therefore, it is this book that informs the insinuation of another form of aspect mentioned above. Therefore, perfective progressive aspect is summarized in table 9:

Table 9. Perfective Progressive Aspect

<i>Perfective progressive past</i>	<i>Perfective progressive present</i>	<i>Perfective progressive future</i>
We had been drinking.	It has been doing by 10:00PM.	It will have been drinking.
He had drank liquid..	I have been eating when he died.	You will have drunk liquid.

Source: Author's construction, (2023)

Perfective progressive aspects as we see in table 8 show two predictable events or a point of time and one event parcel. However, a native English speaker does not necessarily mention the second event being it the perfect one, he or she assumes the listeners understand depending on the context of speech.

We have seen (Cf 5.1 & 5.2) tense and aspect combine together freely when complex verb phrases are formed to present certain entity action. We summarize aspects by adopting Quirk's table 10 below.

Table 10. Aspects in English

Symbol	Name	Example
	Present perfective (simple)	He has written my letter
<i>Type B</i>	Past perfective (simple)	He had written my letter
	Present progressive (simple)	He is writing my letter
<i>Type C</i>	Past progressive (simple)	He had written my letter
	Present perfective progressive	He has been writing my letter
<i>Type BC</i>	Past perfective progressive	He had been writing my letter

Adapted from Quirk *et al* (1985:189)

Table 10 indicates aspects though they have connection with their respectively tenses e.g. Perfective aspect has a connection with either present/past perfect tense that is why we term present perfect tense or past perfect tense. Their verb changes insinuate the same morphological structure.

Moreover, in semantic interpretations, we cannot claim a certain auxiliary to present a certain aspect. I write this following the fact that, any linguistics unit e.g preposition or any may change the general concept of the aspect we refer. Consider the following sentences organization:

49. (a) The man has been rewarded every month since 2015.
- (b) The man was rewarded every month since 2015.

Examples in 49 (a) semantic meaning differs with 49 (b)'s meaning. The meaning of the first sentence shows progressive aspect following the fact that, the event of rewarding takes place up to the present month while this is true that the second sentence shows opposite to the first; meaning that the action of rewarding does not exist currently. Sentences that involve combined auxiliaries as in *has been* or *had been* semantically do differ with sentences which do not have such combined auxiliaries.

The tense and aspect we see deal with the change of the verb within the framework of sentences being it syntax. This means that the aspects show different occurrences of verbs as in *sleep* > *slept*; even their semantic grammars are different. However, the added affixes to a certain word have a lot to do with semantic of that word. The word *write* and *written* have different semantic scope which is being triggered by the addition on *-en*. That is why tense/aspect is very important for learners of English linguistics and semantics in particular.

For Personal Use

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