

ภาคผนวก
คำศัพท์เฉพาะภาษาศาสตร์
ในสาขาอรรถศาสตร์*

1. **ambiguity (ambiguous)** The general sense of this term, referring to a WORD OR SENTENCE which expresses more than one MEANING, is found in LINGUISTICS, but several types of ambiguity are recognised. The most widely discussed type in recent years is **grammatical (or structural) ambiguity**. In PHRASE-STRUCTURE ambiguity, alternative CONSTITUENT STRUCTURES can be assigned to a CONSTRUCTION, as in *new house and shops*, which could be analysed either as *new [houses and shops]* (i.e. both are new) or *[new houses] and shops* (i.e. only the houses are new). In TRANSFORMATIONAL ambiguity, the alternative SEMANTIC representations can be shown only by relating the ambiguous sentence to different structures. For example, *visiting speakers can be awful* is relatable to either it is *awful to visit speakers who visit are awful*. A sentence with more than two structural interpretations is said to be **multiply ambiguous**. An analysis which demonstrates the ambiguity which does not arise from the grammatical analysis of a sentence, but is due solely to the alternative meanings of an individual LEXICAL ITEM, is referred to as **lexical ambiguity**, e.g. *I found the table fascinating* (-‘object of furniture’ or ‘table of figures’- cf. POLYSEMY). In recent semantic discussion, a distinction is sometimes drawn between ‘ambiguity’ and ‘vagueness’: an ambiguous sentence is formulated as having more than one distinct structure; a vague

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sentence, on the other hand, permits an unspecifiable range of possible interpretations (i.e. is unstateable in syntactic or PHONOLOGICAL terms). For example, deciding on the implications of a NEGATIVE sentence such as *He didn't hit the dog* is a matter of vagueness, in this view, in that it is not possible to state specifically a fixed number of different underlying structures involved in its interpretation (*What did he hit? Did he do something else to the dog?*)

2. **analytic(ity)** (1) A type of language established by COMPARATIVE LINGUISTICS using STRUCTURAL (as opposed to HISTORICAL) criteria, and focusing on the characteristics of the WORD: in 'isolating' languages, all the words are invariable (and SYNTACTIC relationships are shown primarily by WORD-ORDER). The term is seen in opposition to SYNTHETIC (and sometimes also POLYSYNTHETIC) languages (which include AGGLUTINATIVE and INFLECTING TYPES), where words typically contain more than one MORPHEME. Several languages of South-East Asia illustrate analyticity in their word structure. As always in such classifications, the categories are not clear-cut: different languages will display the characteristic of analyticity to a greater or lesser degree.

(2) Considerable use is made in SEMANTICS of the sense of 'analytic' found in logic and philosophy, where an **analytic proposition/sentence** is one whose GRAMMATICAL FORM and LEXICAL MEANING make it necessarily true, e.g. *spinster are unmarried women*. The term contrasts with SYNTHETIC, where the truth of the proposition is established using empirical criteria.

3. **antonym(y)** A term used in SEMANTICS as part of the study of oppositeness of MEANING. 'Antonymy' is one of a set of SENSE relations recognised in some analyses of meaning, along with SYNONYMY, HYPONYMY, INCOMPATIBILITY and others. In its most general sense, it refers collectively to all types of semantic oppositeness, with various sub-divisions then being made (e.g. between **graded antonyms**, such as *big ~ small*, where there are degrees of difference, and **ungraded antonyms**, such as *single ~ married* where there is an either/or contrast). Some linguists (e.g. the British linguist John Lyons (b. 1932)) have reserved the term for a particular type of oppositeness: graded antonyms are referred to as 'antonyms', the other type just illustrated being referred to as COMPLEMENTARIES. It is a matter of controversy how many types of opposites one should usefully recognise in semantic analysis, and the use of the term 'antonym' must always be viewed with caution.
4. **Bloomfieldian(ism)** Characteristic of, or a follower of the linguistic approach of the American linguist Leonard Bloomfield (1887-1949), as exemplified in his book *Language*, published in 1933. **Bloomfieldianism** refers particularly to the school of thought which developed between the mid-1903s and 1950s, especially in America, and which was a formative influence on STRUCTURAL LINGUISTICS. It was especially characterised by its behaviouristic principles for the study of MEANING, its insistence on rigorous DISCOVERY PROCEDURES for establishing linguistic units, and a general concern to make LINGUISTICS AUTONOMOUS and scientific (in a BEHAVIOURIST sense). A reaction against Bloomfieldian tenets was a powerful force in producing GERNERATIVE

grammar. Though Bloomfieldianism is no longer fashionable, some of its methods are still widely used in field studies.

5. **Chomskyan** Characteristic of, or a follower of, the linguistic principles of Avram Noam **Chomsky** (b. 1928), professor of Modern Languages and Linguistics at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. His theory of LANGUAGE STRUCTURE known as TRANSFORMATIONAL-generative grammar revolutionised work in LINGUISTICS in 1957, with the publication of his monograph *Syntactic Structures*. Later, major publications on technical linguistic topics included *Current Issues in Linguistic Theory* (1964) and *Aspects of the theory of Syntax* (1965). The latter publication introduced a new direction into generative theory and became the orthodoxy for several years. His main publication on phonology was *The Sound Pattern of English* (1968), with Morris Halle; referred to in this dictionary as 'Chomsky & Halle'. More recent developments in his linguistic thinking in book form may be found in *Reflections on Language* (1976).

By the mid-1960s, Chomsky had come to stress the role of language as a key means to the investigation of the human mind. The view that linguistics can be profitably seen as a branch of cognitive psychology is argued especially in *Language and Mind* (1968), and it is this aspect of the thinking which has attracted a wide readership outside linguistics, especially amongst philosophers and psychologists.

Chomsky was also actively involved in politics during the period of the United States' involvement in Vietnam, and he has written widely on the issues raised, e.g. *American Power and the New Mandarins* (1964).

6. **collocation (colloc-ate, -ability)** A term used in LEXICOLOGY by some (especially FIRTHIAN) LINGUISTS to refer to the habitual co-occurrence of individual LEXICAL ITEMS. For example, *auspicious* 'collocates' with *occasion, event, sign*, etc., and *letter collocates with alphabet, graphic*, etc., on the other hand, and *postman, pillar-box*, etc. On the other. Collocations are, then, a type of SYNTAGMATIC lexical relations. They are linguistically predictable to a greater or lesser extent (e.g. the bond between *spick* and *span* is stronger than that between *letter* and *pillar-box*), and this differentiates them from SENSE ASSOCIATIONS, which tend to include idiosyncratic connections (e.g. *mother-in-law* associating with *hippopotamus*). Some words have no specifiable **collocational restrictions--grammatical** words such as *the, of, after, in*. By contrast, there are many totally predictable restrictions, as in *eke+out, spick+span*, and these are usually analysed as IDIOMS, cliches, etc. Another important feature of collocations is that they are FORMAL (not SEMANTIC) statements of co-occurrence, e.g. *green* collocates with *jealousy* (as opposed to, *say, blue, red*), even though there is no REFERENTIAL basis for the link. Lexical items which are 'collocated' are said to be 'collocates' of each other; the potential of items to collocate is known as their 'collocability', or 'collocational range'. Collocational restrictions would be handled under the heading of SELECTIONAL RESTRICTIONS, is GENERATIVE GRAMMAR.

7. **component(ial)** (1) A term used in GENERATIVE LINGUISTICS to refer to the main sections into which a generative GRAMMAR is organised. In Noam CHOMSKY's *Syntactic Structures* (1957), three

components are recognised: the PHRASE-STRUCTURE component (which generates a set of underlying STRINGS), the TRANSFORMATIONAL component (which acts on these strings in various OPTIONAL and OBLIGATORY way, introduction SEMANTIC changes), and the MORPHOPHONEMIC component (which converts each syntactic string into a string of PHONOLOGICAL UNITS). In *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* (1965), the model is radical altered. The phrase-structure component is replaced by a **base component**, which generates the UNDERLYING PHRASEMARKERS representing the DEEP STRUCTURE of SENTENCES, i.e. all semantically relevant grammatical notions. The base component contains the CATEGORIAL and LEXICAL components (or **sub-components**) of the grammar. Two things than happen to these markers: (i) they are semantically interpreted, using the rules of the **semantic component** (which has no equivalent in the *Syntactic Structure* model), and (ii) they are converted into SURFACE structures through the **transformational component** (which contains largely obligatory RULES, the optional ones now being handled by choices made in the base rules). Lastly, a **phonological component** operates on the surface structures, providing them with a PHONETIC interpretation.

8. **connotation (connotative)** A term used in SEMANTICS as part of a classification of types of MEANING; opposed to DENOTATION. Its main application is with reference to the emotional associations (personal or communal) which are suggested by, or are part of the meaning of a LINGUISTIC UNIT, especially a LEXICAL ITEM. Denotation, by contrast, covers the relationship between a linguistic unit and the non-lin

guistic entities to which it refers. (The traditional philosophical use of 'connotation' and 'denotation' is quite different: here, the meanings involved largely correspond to the distinction between SENSE and REFERENCE, the former being concerned with the relationships of equivalence between terms and PROPOSITIONS, the latter with their external world status and truth-value.) For example, the connotations of the lexical item *December* might include 'bad weather', 'dark evenings', etc. (for north Europeans, at least,) or 'parties', 'Christmas', etc. Alternative terms for 'connotative meaning' include AFFECTIVE and EMOTIVE.

9. **deep structure/grammar** A central theoretical term in GENERATIVE GRAMMAR; opposed to SURFACE STRUCTURE. 'Deep structure' (or 'deep grammar') is the abstract SYNTACTIC REPRESENTATION of a SENTENCE--an UNDERLYING LEVEL of structural organisation which specifies all the factors governing the way the sentence should be interpreted. This level provides information which enables us to distinguish between the alternative interpretations of sentences which have the same surface form (i.e. they are AMBIGUOUS), e.g. *Flying planes can be dangerous*, where *flying planes* can be related to two underlying sentences, *planes which fly...* and *to fly planes...* It is also a way of relating sentences which have different surface forms but the same underlying MEANING, as in the relationship between ACTIVE and PASSIVE structures, e.g. *the panda chased the man* vs. *the man was chased by the panda*. TRANSFORMATIONAL grammars would derive one of these alternatives from the other, or perhaps both from an even more abstract ('deeper') underlying structure. The various grammatical relations in

such sentences can then be referred to as the 'deep SUBJECT', 'deep OBJECT', etc. (contrasted with 'surface subject', etc.). It is also possible to compute the 'depth' at which a transformation operates, by referring to the number of stages in a DERIVATION before it applies, and some attempt has been made to correlate this notion with the COMPLEXITY of a sentence.

In some recent studies, the role of deep structure has been called into question, it being suggested that a separate level of underlying syntactic organisation between surface structure and meaning is unnecessary and misleading (cf. GENERATIVE SEMANTICS). It is also possible to find the term used in the general sense of 'underlying structural interpretation', without commitment to a specific interpretation in terms of transformational grammar. Indeed, the original use of this term, by the American linguist Charles Hockett (b. 1916), antedates its CHOMSKYAN application.

10. **denotation (denotative)** A term used in SEMANTICS as part of a classification of types of MEANING; opposed to CONNOTATION. 'Denotative meaning' involves the relationship between a LINGUISTIC UNIT (especially a LEXICAL ITEM) and the non-linguistic entities to which it refers--it is thus equivalent to REFERENTIAL meaning. For example, the denotation of *dog* is its dictionary definition of 'canine quadruped', etc.; its connotations might include 'friend', 'helper', 'competition', etc.

11. **disambiguate** A term used in LINGUISTICS, and especially in TRANS-

FORMATIONAL GRAMMAR, to refer to an analysis which demonstrates the alternative STRUCTURAL interpretations of an AMBIGUOUS SENTENCE, e.g. by ASSIGNING BRACKETS or specifying a transformational relationship. For example, the SENTENCE *it is too hot to eat* can be 'disambiguated' by showing how it can be related to such sentences as the *food is too hot to eat*, *the weather is too hot to allow eating*, and *the girl is too hot to eat anything*.

12. **ellipsis (elide, ellipt-ed, -ical)** A term used in GRAMMATICAL analysis to refer to a SENTENCE where, for reasons of economy, emphasis or style, a part of the STRUCTURE has been omitted, which is recoverable from a scrutiny of the CONTEXT, TRADITIONAL grammars talk here of an ELEMENT being 'understood', but LINGUISTIC analyses tend to constrain the notion more, emphasising the need for the 'elided' (or 'ellipted') parts of the sentence to be unambiguously specifiable. For example, in the sequence A: *Where are you going?* B: *To town*, the 'full' FORM of B's sentence is predictable from A's SENTENCE (I am going to town). But in such sentences as *Thanks*, *Yes*, etc., it is generally unclear what the full form of such sentences might be (e.g. 'Thanks is due to you'? 'I give you thanks'?), and in such circumstances the term 'ellipsis' would probably not be used. 'Elliptical' constructions are an essential feature of everyday conversation, but the rules governing their occurrence have received relatively little study.

13. **etymology (etymo-n, -logical)** The term traditionally used for the study of the origins and history of the FORM and MEANING of WORDS.

Insofar as etymology derives its methods from LINGUISTICS (especially SEMANTICS), it may be seen as a branch of HISTORICAL LINGUISTICS. The linguistic form from which a later form derives is known as its 'etymon'. A 'folk etymology' occurs when a word is assumed to come from a particular etymon, because of some association of form or meaning, whereas in fact the word has different DERIVATION, e.g. *spit an image* becomes *spitting image*. The **etymological fallacy** is the view that an earlier (or the oldest) meaning of a word is the correct one (e.g. that *history* 'really' means 'investigation', because this was the meaning the etymon had in Classical Greek). This view is commonly held, but it contrasts with the attitude of the linguist, who emphasises the need to describe the meanings of modern words as they are now, and not as they once may have been in some earlier state of the language (the 'oldest' state, of course, being unknown).

14. **form word** A term sometimes used in WORD classification for a word whose role is largely or wholly grammatical, e.g. ARTICLES, PRONOUNS, CONJUNCTIONS. Several such terms exist for this notion (e.g. FUNCTION WORD, GRAMMATICAL WORD, FUNCTOR); all contrast with the LEXICAL words in a language, which carry the main SEMANTIC content.
15. **full** A term sometimes used in the GRAMMATICAL CLASSIFICATION of WORDS to refer to one of two postulated major word classes in LANGUAGE, the other being EMPTY. 'Full words' are said to be those which contain LEXICAL MEANING (e.g. *table, man, go, red*) as

opposed to empty words, which have a purely grammatical role. The distinction has come under criticism, largely on the grounds that the boundary between 'full' and 'empty' words is not as clear-cut as is suggested. Words like *while*, *but*, *in*, etc., are considered to be grammatical words, but they plainly do have some independently stateable meaning.

'Full' may also be encountered as part of the specification of types of grammatical UNIT, e.g. 'full verb' (i.e. the lexical VERBS in the verb PHRASE), 'full sentence' (i.e. a MAJOR SENTENCE type, consisting of SUBJECT and PREDICATE).

16. **general** (1) A commonly used characterisation of LINGUISTICS, when one wants to emphasise the UNIVERSAL applicability of linguistic theory and method in the study of LANGUAGES. **General linguistics** thus includes the theoretical, DESCRIPTIVE and COMPARATIVE biases of the subject. It is sometimes seen in contrast with those branches of linguistics where there is an interdisciplinary or applied orientation (as in SOCIOLINGUISTICS, APPLIED LINGUISTICS). A similar use of the term is in the phrase **general grammar** found in several early language studies (e.g. the PORT ROYAL GRAMMAR), and often used in GENERATIVE linguistic contexts in the sense of 'UNIVERSAL GRAMMAR'. **General semantics**, by contrast, has nothing to do with linguistics in its modern sense, referring to a philosophical movement developed in the 1930s by the American scholar Alfred Korzybski (1879-1950), which aimed to make people aware of the conventional relationship between words and things, as a means of improving systems of

communication and clear thinking.

17. **homonym(-y, ic)** A term used in SEMANTIC analysis to refer to LEXICAL ITEMS which have the same FORM, but differ in MEANING. 'Homonymy', is illustrated from the various meanings of *bear* (=animal, carry) or *ear* (of body, of corn). In these examples, the identity covers both spoken and written forms, but it is possible to have partial homonymy (or 'heteronymy'), where the identity is within a single MEDIUM, as in HOMOPHONY and HOMOGRAPHY. When there is AMBIGUITY between homonyms (whether non-deliberate or contrived, as in riddles and puns), a **homonymic clash** or 'conflict' is said to have occurred. In semantic analysis, the theoretical distinction between homonymy and POLYSEMY (one form with different meanings) provides a problem which has attracted a great deal of attention.

18. **homophone (homophon-y, -ic)** A term used in SEMANTIC analysis to refer to WORDS (i.e. LEXEMES) which have the same pronunciation, but differ in MEANING. 'Homophones' are a type of HOMONYMY. **Homophony** is illustrated from such pairs as *threw/through* and *rode/rowed*. When there is AMBIGUITY on account of this identity, a **homophonic clash** or 'conflict' is said to have occurred.

19. **hyponym(y)** A term used in SEMANTICS as part of the study of the SENSE relations which relate LEXICAL ITEMS. 'Hyponymy' is the relationship which obtains between specific and general lexical items, such that the former is 'included' in the latter (i.e. 'is hyponym of' the

latter). For example, a *cat* is a hyponym of *animal*, *flute of instrument*, chair of *furniture*, and so on. In each case, there is a superordinate term, with reference to which the subordinate term can be defined, as is the usual practical dictionary definitions ('a cat is a type of animal...'). The set of terms which are hyponyms of the same superordinate term are **co-hyponyms**, e.g. *flute*, *clarinet*, *trumpet*, etc. Hyponymy is distinguished from such other sense relations as SYNONYMY AND ANTONYMY.

20. **idiom(-atic)** A term used in GRAMMAR and LEXICOLOGY to refer to a SEQUENCE of WORDS which is SEMANTICALLY and SYNTACTICALLY restricted, so that they function as a single UNIT. From a semantic viewpoint, the MEANINGS of the individual words cannot be summed to produce the meaning of the 'idiomatic' expression as a whole. From a syntactic viewpoint, the words often do not permit the usual variability they display in other CONTEXTS, e.g. *it's raining cats and dogs* does not permit **it's raining a cat and a dog/dogs and cats*, etc. Because of their lack of internal CONTRASTIVITY, some linguists refer to idioms as 'ready-made UTTERANCES'. An alternative terminology refers to idioms as 'habitual COLLOCATIONS'. A point which has attracted considerable discussion is the extent to which degrees and kinds of idiomaticness can be established: some idioms do permit a degree of internal change, and are somewhat more literal in meaning than others (e.g. *it's worth his wife/the job will be worth my while*, etc.)

21. **illocutionary** A term used in the theory of SPEECH-ACTS to refer to an act which performed by the speaker by virtue of his UTTERANCE

having been made. Examples of **illocutionary acts** (or **illocutionary force**) include promising, commanding, requiring, baptising, arresting, etc. The term is contrasted with LOCUTIONARY (the act of 'saying') and PERLOCUTIONARY (where the act is defined by reference to the effect it has on the hearer.)

22. **lexeme** A term used by some LINGUISTS to refer to the minimal DISTINCTIVE UNIT in the SEMANTIC SYSTEM of a LANGUAGE. Its original motivation was to reduce the AMBIGUITY of the term WORD, which applied to orthographic/PHONOLOGICAL, GRAMMATICAL and LEXICAL LEVELS, and to devise a more appropriate term for use in the context of discussing a language's vocabulary. The lexeme is thus postulated as the abstract unit underlying such set of grammatical VARIANTS as *walk, walks, walking, walked*, or *big, bigger, biggest*. IDIOMATIC phrases by this definition, are also considered lexemes (e.g. *kick the bucket* (= 'die')). Lexemes are the units which are conventionally listed in dictionaries as separate entries.

23. **linguistics** The scientific study of LANGUAGE. As an academic discipline, the development of this subject has been recent and rapid, having become particularly widely known and taught in the 1960s. This reflects partly an increased popular and specialist interests in the study of language and communication in relation to human beliefs and behaviour (e.g. in theology, philosophy, information theory, literary criticism), and the realisation of the need for a separate discipline to deal adequately with the range and complexity of linguistic phenomena; partly the impact of

the subject's own internal development at this time, arising largely out of the work of the American linguist Noam CHOMSKY, and his associates, whose more sophisticated analytic techniques and more powerful theoretical claims gave linguistics an unprecedented scope and applicability.

Different branches may be distinguished according to the linguist's focus and range of interest. A major distinction, introduced by Ferdinand de SAUSSURE, is between **diachronic** and **synchronic linguistics**, the former referring to the study of language change (also called **historical linguistics**), the latter to the study of the state of language at any given point in time. Insofar as the subject attempts to establish general principles for the study of all languages, and to determine the characteristics of human language as a phenomenon, it may be called **general linguistics**. When it concentrates on establishing the facts of a particular language system, it is called **descriptive linguistics**. When its purpose is to focus on the differences between languages, especially in the language-teaching context, it is called **contrastive linguistics**. When its purpose is primarily to identify the common characteristics of different language or language families, the subject goes under the heading of **comparative (or typological) linguistics**.

When the emphasis in linguistics is wholly or largely historical, the subject is traditionally referred to as COMPARATIVE PHILOLOGY (or simply PHILOLOGY) though in many parts of the world 'philologists' and 'historical linguists' are people with very different backgrounds and attitudes. The term **structural linguistics** is widely used, sometimes in an extremely specific sense, referring to the particular approaches to SYNTAX and PHONOLOGY current in the 1940s and 1950s, with their

emphasis on providing **DISCOVERY PROCEDURES** for the analysis of a language's **SURFACE STRUCTURE**; sometimes is a more general sense, referring to any **SYSTEM** of linguistic analysis that attempts to establish explicit systems of **RELATIONS** between linguistic **UNITS** in surface structure. When the emphasis in language study is on the classification of structures and units, without reference to such notions as **DEEP STRUCTURE**; some linguists, particularly within **GENERATIVE** grammar, talk pejoratively of **taxonomic linguistics**.

In recent years the term **linguistic sciences** has come to be used by many as a single label for both linguistics and **PHONETICS**--the latter being seen here as a strictly pre-language study. Equally, there are many who do not see the divide between linguistics and phonetics being as great as this label suggests: they would be quite happy to characterise the subject as **linguistic science**. 'Linguistics' is still the preferred name.

The overlapping interests of linguistics and other disciplines has led to the setting up of new branches of the subject, such as **anthropological linguistics, biolinguistics, computational linguistics, ethnolinguistics, mathematical linguistics, neurolinguistics, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics**. When the subject's findings, methods, or theoretical principles are applied to the study of problems from other areas of experience, one talks of applied linguistics; but this term is often restricted to the study of the theory and methodology of foreign-language teaching.

24. **locutionary** A term used in the theory of **SPEECH-ACTS** to refer to an act of making a **MEANINGFUL UTTERANCE**. The point of the term is in its contrast with **ILLOCUTIONARY** and **PERLOCUTIONARY**

ACTS, where there is more involved than merely 'speaking'.

25. **meaning(-ful)** This basic notion is used in LINGUISTICS both as a datum and as a criterion of analysis: linguists study meaning and also use meaning as a criterion for studying other aspects of LANGUAGE (especially through such notions as CONTRASTIVITY and DISTINCTIVENESS). The topic of 'meaning' in the context of language, however, necessitates reference to non-linguistic factors, such as thought, situation, knowledge, intention and use. It is the difficulty in drawing clear dividing-lines between such notions that indicates why so many other academic disciplines are involved in the study of meaning along with linguistics--philosophers, and logicians especially, but also psychologists, sociologists, literary critics, theologians and others. The linguist's primary interest is distinguished by the attention he pays to the analysis of meaning in the context of everyday speech (rather than, say, in the context of literature, or abstract reasoning), by his comparative interests (comparing the way meaning is structured in a range of languages, and how meaning changes over time), and by his attempt to integrate meaning with the other COMPONENTS of a general linguistic theory (especially with GRAMMAR). These emphases characterise the linguistic study of meaning, SEMANTICS.

Linguistics shares with other disciplines the concern to isolate the several factors which contribute to the total interpretation, or signification, of a message, as this provides the essential perspective within which the specifically intralinguistic properties of meaning can be identified. These factors--the 'meanings of meaning' as they are sometimes called--

have been variously labelled; and while it is impossible to generalise about usage (in view of the many technical senses these labels have in various theories), labels do cluster around three major themes. When the emphasis is on the relationship between language, on the other hand, and the entities, events, states-of-affairs, etc. which are external to the speaker and his language, on the other, terms such as 'REFERENTIAL/ DESCRIPTIVE/ DENOTATIVE/ EXTENSIONAL/ factual/ objective meaning' have been used. When the emphasis is on the relationship between language and the mental state of the speaker, two sets of terms are used: the personal, emotional aspects are handled by such terms as 'ATTITUDINAL/ AFFECTIVE/ CONNOTATIVE/ EMOTIVE/ EXPRESSIVE meaning'; the intellectual, factual aspects involve such terms as 'COGNITIVE/ IDEATIONAL meaning'. When the emphasis is on the way variations in the EXTRALINGUISTIC situation affect the understanding and interpretation of language, terms such as 'CONTEXTUAL/ FUNCTIONAL/ interpersonal/ social/ SITUATIONAL' have been used. 'Contextual', along with 'TEXTUAL meaning' is also used to refer to these factors which affect the interpretation of a sentence which derive from the rest of the DISCOURSE of TEXT within which the sentence occurs.

Within linguistics, the role each linguistic LEVEL play in the total interpretation of a sentence is often referred to as the 'meaning' of that level. The level involved are 'LEXICAL meaning', the meaning of lexical ITEMS; and 'GRAMMATICAL meaning' (or 'STRUCTURAL meaning'), the meaning of grammatical structures. This approach has been extended by some linguists (e.g. FIRTHIANS) to include other linguistic levels,

e.g. 'PHONETIC meaning' (cf. SOUND-SYMBOLISM), 'PHONOLOGICAL meaning' (as in the structural use of alliteration or rhyme in poetry.) The term 'semantic meaning' may be used whenever one wants to emphasise the content, as opposed to the form or reference, of linguistic units. Specific aspects of the content of sentences may be singled out for special attention, e.g. the notion of 'propositional MEANING'.

26. **paralanguage (paralinguistics)** A term used in SUPRASEGMENTAL PHONOLOGY to refer to variations in TONE of voice which seem to be less systematic than PROSODIC features (especially INTONATION and STRESS). Examples would include the controlled use of BREATHY or CREAKY voice, spasmodic features (such as giggling while speaking), and the use of secondary ARTICULATIONS (such as lip-ROUNDING or NASALisation) to produce a tone of voice signalling attitude, social role, or some other language-specific meaning. Some analysts broaden the definition of paralanguage to include KINESIC features; some exclude paralinguistic features from LINGUISTIC analysis.
27. **perlocutionary** A term used in the theory of SPEECH-ACTS to refer to an act which is performed when an UTTERANCE achieves a particular effect on the behaviour, beliefs, feelings, etc. of a listener. Examples of **perlocutionary acts (or) perlocutionary effects**) include utterances which frighten, insult, ridicule, sympathise, persuade, etc. A distinction may then be made between the intended and the actual perlocutionary effect of an utterance (e.g. a speaker may intend to persuade X to do Y, but may succeed in getting X to do Z). The term is contrasted with

LOCUTIONARY (the act of 'saying') and ILLOCUTIONARY (where the act is defined with reference to the speaker's purpose).

28. **phonaesthetics (phonaesth-eme, -esia)** A term sometimes used in LINGUISTICS to refer to the study of the aesthetic properties of sound, especially the SOUND SYMBOLISM attributable to individual sounds. Cases such as the [i:] vowels in a LANGUAGE signalling smallness (cf. *teeny, weeny*, etc.) have been suggested as evidence for a limited sound/MEANING correspondence in language ('phonaesthesia' or SYNAESTHESIA), the sound units concerned being referred to as 'phonaesthemes'. The branch of STYLISTICS which studies such EXPRESSIVE effects (e.g. the onomatopoeia of poetry) is known as phonostylistics.
29. **polysemy (polysem-ia, -ic, -ous)** A term used in SEMANTICS analysis to refer to a LEXICAL ITEM which has a range of different MEANINGS, e.g. *plain* = 'clear', 'unadorned', 'obvious'... A large proportion of a language's vocabulary is 'polysemic' (or 'polysemous'). The theoretical problem for the LINGUIST is how to distinguish 'polysemy' or 'polysemia' (one FORM--several meanings) from HOMONYMY (two lexical items which happen to have the same PHONOLOGICAL form). Several criteria have been suggested, such as ETYMOLOGY (the antecedents of) homonymous items would be formally distinct), and the closeness of the relationship between the meanings in question (the meanings of homonymous items would be further apart, or unrelated--cf. the related senses of *plain* above with the homonyms *plan* = 'carpenter's tool' and *plane* = 'aeroplane'). But all such criteria involve analytic problems, and

the distinction between polysemy and homonymy thus remains a source of theoretical discussion in LINGUISTICS.

30. **presupposition** The philosophical uses of this term will be found in SEMANTIC discussion, *viz* a condition which must be satisfied if a particular state of affairs is to obtain, or (in relation to language) what a speaker assumes in saying a particular sentence, as opposed to what he actually asserts. It is also analysed as a certain type of logical relationship between statements, contrasting with ENTAILMENT. Some linguists have come to use the term in a narrower sense, in a two-part analysis of sentences which contrasts the INFORMATION assumed (or 'presupposed') by the speaker, and that which is at the centre of his communicative interest; in this sense, 'presupposition' is opposed to FOCUS. (The contrast between GIVEN and NEW information makes an analogous distinction.) For example, in one interpretation of this notion, the sentence *Where's the salt?* is said to presuppose that the salt is not present to the speaker, that there is someone whom he thinks might know where the salt is, and so on. This total study of the factors in the communicative context which affect the meaning of an utterance has attracted increasing interest from linguists in recent years, partly in SEMANTICS and partly under the heading of PRAGMATICS. Controversial aspects of analysing language in these terms abound, in particular over the extent to which the notion of presupposition can or ought to be restricted to certain kinds of logical or behaviourally demonstrable factors.

31. **pro-form** A term used in some models of GRAMMATICAL description

to refer collectively to the ITEMS in a SENTENCE which substitute for other items or CONSTRUCTIONS. The central class of examples (from which) the term is derived by analogy is PRONOUNS, which substitute for NOUN PHRASES. Other pro-forms replace ADVERBIALS (e.g. *them, there*), PREDICATES (e.g. *do*, as in *I like films. So do I* (sc. 'so, do I like films')), and even whole CLAUSES or sentences (e.g. *so*, as in *I said so*). Terminology such as 'pro-verb', 'pro-nominal', 'pro-locative', etc. is therefore likely to be encountered.

32. **proposition(al)** A term derived from philosophy, where its status is controversial, and often used in LINGUISTICS as part of a GRAMMATIC, or SEMANTIC analysis. It refers to the UNIT of MEANING which constitutes the subject-matter of a STATEMENT in the form of SIMPLE DECLARATIVE sentence. Two 'terms' are involved in the analysis of propositions: the expression of a single action or state (a PREDICATE), and one or more entities ('names') which delimit the effects of this action or state. The logical system of **propositional calculus** may then be used as a framework for aspects of grammatical and semantic analysis. A logical calculus presents a set of logical laws or truths in systematic deductive form; in propositional calculus, rules for determining the relations between combinations of propositions are presented (usually AXIOMatically) in formal notation. Particular emphasis is placed on the analysis of the logical CONNECTIVES use in forming these combinations (negation, conjunction, disjunction and implication), and on the possible truth-values which 'single' or 'complex' propositions may have.

In linguistics, the interest is primarily in the way in which different linguistic FORMS can be shown to express the same proposition (e.g. *the cat ate the meat, the meat was eaten by the cat*, and so on), and how a single linguistic form can be analysed in terms of several propositions (e.g. *those nice red apples cost a lot* expressed the propositions that ‘the apples cost a lot’, ‘the apples are nice’ and ‘the apples are red’). The notion of ‘proposition’ is fundamental to CASE GRAMMAR, where it is used as one of the two main UNDERLYING CONSTITUENTS of sentences (Sentence --> Modality + Proposition): each proposition is analysed in terms of a predicate word and its associated ARGUMENTS (i.e. case roles). Also of interest is the distinction to be made between the ‘propositional meaning’ of a sentence on the one hand, and the use made of the sentence (e.g. in various SPEECH-ACT situations) on the other. Linguists are not primarily concerned with the evaluation of a proposition in terms of truth-values, nor with the question of the referential or cognitive status of the notion.

33. **prosody/prosodic (feature)** A term used in SUPRASEGMENTAL PHONETICS and PHONOLOGY to refer collectively to variations in PITCH, LOUDNESS, TEMPO and RHYTHM. Sometimes, it is used loosely as a synonym for ‘suprasegmental’, but in a narrower sense it refers only to the above variables, the remaining suprasegmental features being labelled PARALINGUISTIC. The narrow sense is close to the traditional use of the term ‘prosody’, where it referred to the characteristics and analyses of verse structure.

34. **redundancy** A term derived from information theory and applied to the analysis of the range of features used in making LINGUISTIC contrasts. A feature (of sound, GRAMMAR, etc.) is redundant if its presence is unnecessary in order to identify a linguistic unit. For example, the contrast between the /p/ and /b/ PHONEMES of English, as in *pin* vs. *bin*, may be defined in terms of VOICING, muscular TENSION and ASPIRATION: but only one of these features is necessary to specify the contrast involved, and once this decision has been made (e.g. voicing), the other features would be seen as redundant, in respect of this contrast. Features of sound (grammar, MEANING) which are not considered redundant are DISTINCTIVE. It should be noted that circumstances may arise which will affect the GENERALITY of an analysis: for instance, in other positions in the word, other features may become less redundant (e.g. muscular tension in final position, as in such contrasts as *rip* vs. *rib*), and in some VARIETIES of speech (such as public speaking, or in very noisy situations) the speaker may need to use all the available features in order to be ACCEPTABLE or intelligible.

Similar principles apply to the analysis of grammar and SEMANTICS in terms of redundancy. In grammar, for example, SENTENCES such as *the boy sits* display redundancy, in that both the SUBJECT and the VERB are MARKED for singularity: in theory, it would be possible for English to use, e.g. *the boy sit* vs. *the boys sit* to keep a singular/plural distinction clear. In semantics, the issue is more complex: what to one person might appear a totally unnecessary (and hence redundant) use of a word or phrase, may to someone else provide an additional nuance, and thus be distinctive. In GENERATIVE linguistics, the notion of re-

dundancy has been formalised in terms of RULES (**redundancy rules**) which simplify the form of descriptions. For example, in generative PHONOLOGY, when certain features of a SEGMENT are predictable (because of the occurrence of other features in some CO-OCCURRING segment), the specification of these features is unnecessary: such redundant features specifications would be left blank in the UNDERLYING representation of MORPHEMES (the RULES subsequently involved in inserting the redundant features being referred to as 'LEXICAL redundancy rules' or MORPHEME STRUCTURE RULES).

Various mathematical methods are available to demonstrate the nature and extent of redundancy in linguistic analysis.

35. **Saussurean** Characteristic of, or a follower of, the principles of Ferdinand de Saussure (1857-1913), especially as outlined in his post-humous *Cours de linguistique generale* (Paris 1913), translated by W. Baskin as *Course in General Linguistics* (New York 1959). His conception of LANGUAGE as a SYSTEM of mutually defining entities was a major influence on several schools of LINGUISTICS (e.g. the PRAGUE SCHOOL, GENEVA SCHOOL, GLOSSEMATIC), and most of the theoretical distinctions he introduced have become foundations of linguistic study. Chief among these are the notions of LANGUE and PAROLE< SYNTAGMATIC and PARADIGMATIC, SYNCHRONIC and DIACHRONIC, and SIGNIFIANT and SIGNIFIE.

36. **semantics (semantic, -ity)** A major branch of LINGUISTICS devoted to the study of MEANING in LANGUAGE. The term is also used in

philosophy and logic, but not with the same range of meaning or emphasis as in linguistics. **Philosophical semantics** examines the relations between linguistic expressions and the phenomena in the world to which they refer, and considers the conditions under which such expressions can be said to be true or false, and the factors which affect the interpretation of language as used. Its history of study, which reaches back to the writing of Plato and Aristotle, in recent years includes the work of such philosophers and logicians as Charles Peirce (1839-1914), Rudolf Carnap (1891-1970) and Alfred Tarski (b. 1902), particularly under the heading of SEMIOTICS and the 'philosophy of language'. 'Logical' or 'pure' semantics is the study of the meaning of expressions in terms of logical systems of analysis, or calculi, and this such more akin to formal logic or mathematics than to linguistics.

In linguistics, the emphasis is on the study of the semantic properties of natural languages (as opposed to logical 'languages'), the term 'linguistic semantics' often being employed to make the distinction clear (though this is not a convention needed in this dictionary, where the term 'semantics' will be used without qualification to refer to its linguistic sense). Different linguists' approaches to meaning nonetheless illustrate the influence of general philosophical or psychological positions. The 'behaviourist' semantics of Leonard BLOOMFIELD, for example, refers to the application of the techniques of the BEHAVIOURIST movement in psychology, restricting the study of meaning to only observable and measurable behaviour. Partly because of the pessimism of this approach, which concluded that semantics was not yet capable of elucidation in behavioural terms, semantics came to be much neglected in post-Bloom-

fieldian linguistics, and has received proper attention only since the 1960s.

Of particular importance here is the approach of **structural semantics**, which displays the application of the principles of **STRUCTURAL** linguistics to the study of meaning through the notion of **semantic relations** (**SENSE** or 'meaning' relations such as **SYNONYMY** and **ANTONYMY**). 'Semantic meaning' may here be used, in contradistinction to 'GRAMMATICAL meaning'. The linguistic structuring of 'semantic space' is also a major concern of **GENERATIVE** linguistics, where the term 'semantics' is widely used in relation to the grammar's organisation (one section being referred to as the **semantic component**) and to the analysis of Sentences (in terms of a **semantic representation**) and of **LEXICAL ITEMS** (in terms of **semantic features**). Other terms used to distinguish features of meaning in this and other theories include 'SEMANTIC MARKERS/ DISTINGUISHERS/ properties' and (in an unrelated sense to the above) 'semantic components/ (cf. **COMPONENTIAL**). The **semantic feature hypothesis** (SFH) is an application of this notion in the study of language **ACQUISITION**, where the order of appearance of a child's lexical items is held to be governed by the type and complexity of the semantic **FEATURES** they contain.

Semantic field theory is an approach which developed in the 1930s; it took the view that the **VOCABULARY** of a language is not simply a listing of independent items (as the headwords in a dictionary would suggest), but is organised into areas, of **FIELDS**, within which words inter-relate and define each other in various ways. The words denoting colour are often cited as an example of a semantic field: the precise meaning of a colour word can only be understood by placing it in

relation to the other terms which occur with it in demarcating the colour spectrum.

Other areas of semantics include the HISTORICAL study of word meanings (ETYMOLOGY), the SYNCHRONIC analysis of word USAGE (LEXICOLOGY), and the compilation of dictionaries (LEXICOGRAPHY). The term 'semantic' has many other uses, however. In the phrase **semantic differential**, it has in fact very little to do with linguistic semantics, being a technique devised by psychologists to find out the emotional reactions of speakers to lexical items, and thus suggest the main AFFECTIVE dimension in terms of which a language's concepts are organised. In the phrase **semantic triangle**, it refers to a particular MODEL of meaning proposed by C. K. Ogden (1889-1957) and I. A. Richards (1893-1979) in the 1920s, which claimed that meaning is essentially a three-fold relationship between linguistic FORMS, CONCEPTS and REFERENTS. In the phrase **procedural semantics**, it refers to an approach in PSYCHOLINGUISTICS which models the notion of 'sense' in terms of a set of mental operations that decide on the applicability of a lexical item to an entity, state of affairs, etc. And the term **semanticity** has a much broader sense, being suggested as a very general defining property of language (and other SEMIOTIC SYSTEMS), viz the ability of system to convey meaning, by virtue of the associative ties which relate the system's signals to features of the external world.

37. **structural ambiguity** A term used in LINGUISTICS of refer to a CONSTRUCTION with more than one GRAMMATICAL interpretation in terms of CONSTITUENT analysis. A much-used example is *old men*

and women, which is 'structurally ambiguous': it may be analysed as [*old men*] and *women* (i.e. only the men are old) or old [*men and women*] (i.e. both the men and women are old.) In GENERATIVE grammar, this phenomenon is usually referred to as 'CONSTRUCTIONAL homonymity'.

38. **surface structure/grammar** A central theoretical term in GENERATIVE GRAMMAR, opposed to DEEP STRUCTURE. The 'surface structure' (or 'surface grammar') of a sentence is the final stage in the SYNTACTIC REPRESENTATION of a sentence, which provide the input to the PHONOLOGICAL COMPONENT of the **grammar**, and which thus most closely corresponds to the structure of the sentence we articulate and hear. Analysing a surface STRING of MORPHEMES through CONSTITUENCY analysis is a universal procedure which indicates many important facts about LINGUISTIC structure; but it by no means indicates everything, e.g. it cannot explain how we recognise AMBIGUOUS sentences, or how we INTUITIVELY relate sentences which have different surface FORMS but the same basic MEANING (e.g. *cats chase mice* and *mice are chased by cats*). For such reasons, linguists in the late 1950s postulated a deep or 'underlying' structure for sentences--a LEVEL of structural organisation in which all the factors determining structural interpretation are defined and inter-related. The standard view is that a grammar operates by generating a set of abstract deep structures, subsequently converting these UNDERLYING REPRESENTATIONS into surface structures by applying a set of TRANSFORMATIONAL RULES. This two-level conception of grammatical structure is still widely held,

though it has been much criticised in recent generative studies. An alternative conception is to relate surface structure directly to a SEMANTIC level of representation, by-passing deep structure altogether.

39. **synchronic** One of the two main temporal dimensions of LINGUISTIC investigation introduced by the Swiss linguist, Ferdinand de SAUSSURE, the other being DIACHRONIC. In **synchronic linguistics**, languages are studied at a theoretical point in time: one describes a 'state' of the language, disregarding whatever changes might be taking place. For example, one could carry out a synchronic description of the language of Chaucer, or of the 16th century, or of modern-day English. Most synchronic descriptions are of contemporary language states, but their importance as a preliminary to diachronic study has been stressed since Saussure. Linguistic investigations, unless specified to the contrary, are assumed to be synchronic.

40. **synonym(-y, -ous)** A term used in SEMANTICS to refer to a major type of sense-relation between LEXICAL ITEMS: lexical items which have the same MEANINGS are synonyms, and the relationship between them is that they should be identical in meaning, i.e. interchangeable in all CONTEXTS, and with identical CONNOTATIONS--this unlikely possibility is sometimes referred to as 'total synonymy'. Synonymy can be said to occur if items are enough in their meaning to allow a choice to be made between them in *some* contexts, without there being any difference for the meaning of the sentence as a whole. Linguistic studies of synonymy have emphasised the importance of context in deciding whether

a set of lexical items is synonymous. For example, in the context *What a nice--of flowers*, the items *range*, *selection*, *choice*, etc. are synonymous; but in the context *His--of knowledge is enormous*, only *range* can be used., along with a different set of synonyms, e.g. *breadth*. Synonymy is distinguished from such other sense-relations as ANTONYMY, HYPONYMY and INCOMPATIBILITY.

41. **truth-conditional semantics** An approach to SEMANTICS which maintains the MEANING can be defined in terms of the conditions in the real world under which a SENTENCE may be used to make a true statement. It can be distinguished from approaches which define meaning in terms of the conditions on the use of sentences in communication, such as the function of the sentence in terms of SPEECH ACTS, or the speaker's beliefs about the sentence (cf. PRAGMATICS).

42. **utterance** A term used in LINGUISTICS and PHONETICS to refer to a stretch of speech about which no assumptions have been made in terms of linguistic theory (as opposed to the notion of SENTENCE, which receives its definition from a theory of GRAMMAR). In principle, it is a physically definable, behavioural unit, capable of definition in everyday terms. One commonly used definition refers to 'a stretch of speech preceded and followed by silence or a change of speaker'. But it has proved very difficult to construct a satisfactory definition. The definition just given, for instance, applies equally to a one-word response and a sermon, and attempts have been made to produce more restricted definition, using such features as PAUSE, RHYTHM, breath patterns, PITCH movement, etc. The analogous term in the study of writing is TEXT.

Lists of Homonyms

เสียง	Homophones	ตัวอย่างคำพ้องความหมาย
/æktz/	acts (deeds)	ax or axe (a tool)
/eə/	air (atmosphere)	heir (inheritor)
/aɪl/	aisle (passage)	isle (island) I'll (I will)
/ænt/	ant (insect)	aunt (relative)
/bɛə/	bare (naked)	bear (animal, to carry)
/bi:tʃ/	beach (sea shore)	beech (a tree)
/bit/	beat (to strike)	beet (vegetable)
/bi/	bee (insect)	be (to exist)
/blu/	blew (past tense of "blow")	blue (a color)
/baʊ /	bow (v. to salute)	bough (of tree)
/brɛd/	bread (food)	bred (brought up)
/kærət/	carat (weight)	carrot (vegetable)
/kɔt/	caught (past tense of "catch")	cot (small bed)
/sil iŋ/	ceiling (of a room)	sealing (fastening)
/sɛl/	cell (small room)	sell (to part for price)
/sɛnt/	cent (coin)	sent (past tense of "send") scent (odor)
/kɔ:d/	chord (musical sound)	cord (string)
/kənəl/	colonel (officer)	kernel (seed in a nut)
/kri:k/	creak (harsh noise)	creek (stream)
/kruz/	crews (seamen)	cruise (voyage)
/di/	dear (beloved)	deer (an animal)
/du/	dew (moisture)	do (to perform) due (own)
/daɪ/	die (to expire)	dye (to color)
/do/	doe (female deer)	dough (unbaked bread)
/et/	eight (a number)	ate (past tense of "eat")
/yu/	ewe (female sheep)	you (a pronoun)
/aɪ/	eye (organ of sight)	I (myself)

เสียง	Homophones	ตัวอย่างคำพ้องความหมาย
/fæ/	fair (beautiful, just)	fare (price)
/fɑːðə/	farther (further)	father (male parent)
/fli/	flea (insect)	flee (to run away)
/flaʊə/	flour (ground grain)	flower (a blossom)
/grɪs/	Greece (a country)	grease (fat)
/hɛə/	hair (of the head)	hare (a rabbit)
/hɪl/	heal (to cure)	heel (part of foot)
/hɔːd/	heard (did hear)	herd (a drove)
/hɪm/	him (that man)	hymn (sacred song)
/hɒl/	hole (cavity)	whole (all)
/aʊə/	hour (sixty minutes)	our (belonging to us)
/ɪn/	inn (a tavern)	in (within)
/ki/	key (for a lock)	quay (wharf)
/nu/	knew (understand)	new (not old)
/naɪt/	knight (title of honor)	night (darkness)
/nɑːt/	knot (tied)	not (word of refusal)
/lɛd/	lead (metal)	led (guided)
/lɒn/	loan (to lend)	lone (solitary)
/luːz/	lose (to miss anything)	loose (unbound)
/med/	made (created)	maid (unmarried woman)
/meɪl/	mail (post bag)	male (masculine)
/maɪnə/	miner (worker in mines)	minor (one underage)
/mɔːnɪŋ/	morning (before noon)	mourning (grief)
/nəʊn/	none (no one)	nun (female devotee)
/noʊz/	nose (organ of smell)	knows (understands)
/ɔː/	ore (mineral)	oar (paddle)
/peɪl/	pail (bucket)	pale (whitish)
/peə/	pair (a couple)	pear (a fruit)
/piːs/	peace (quiet)	piece (a part)
/rɪl/	real (trul)	reel (winding machine)

เสียง	Homophones	ตัวอย่างคำพ้องความหมาย
/rɛst/	rest (quiet)	wrest (to twist)
/rod/	road (way)	rode (did ride)
/sɒn/	son (male child)	sun (fountain of light)
/tel/	tale (story)	tail (the hinder part)
/ðeə/	their (belonging to them)	there (in that place)
/tu/	to (toward)	two (couple)
/west/	waist (part of body)	waste (destruction)
/we/	way (road, manner)	weigh (to balance)
/wik/	week (seven days)	weak (not strong)

ตารางแสดงคำที่มีความหมายกำกวม เพราะมีหลายความหมาย บางคำเป็นคำประเภท

Homonymy และบางคำเป็นประเภท Polysemy

Ambiguous Sentences	Meanings	Polysemic or Homonymic
Mike <u>beat</u> his colleague.	1. hit (somebody) repeatedly, especially with a stick 2. defeated; won against (somebody)	Polysemic: 1. } 2. } OE beatan (V)
Mike gave Pat a beautiful <u>bow</u> .	1. a weapon for shooting arrows 2. bending of the head or body as a greeting 3. ribbon	Homonymic: 1. OE boga (n) 2. OE bugan (v) Polysemic 3 จากคำนาม OE boga คันทนู
They are looking at the <u>band</u> .	1. thin flat stripe use of fastening things together 2. body of musician 3. a waveband	Homonymic: 1. ME band 2. MF bande = troop 3. also ME band
Because of the <u>cold</u> , Sally had to put on warm clothes.	1. low temperature 2. infectious illness of the nose or throat with sneezing, coughing	Polysemic: 1. OE } 2. OE } cald (n)

Ambiguous Sentences	Meanings	Polysemic or Homonymic
To those students, the young teacher seemed rather <u>fair</u> .	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. impartial 2. beautiful 	Polysemic: 1. OE } 2. OE } feƒer (adj)
The <u>horns</u> are in the display case.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. animal horn 2. musical instrument 	Polysemic: 1. OE } 2. OE } horn (n)
The farmer <u>drove</u> the boys all the way to the field.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. took somebody in a vehicle 2. caused (people) to move in some direction by shouts etc. 	Polysemic: 1. OE } 2. OE } drifan (n)
While in a forest, Mary broke a <u>limb</u> .	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. leg or arm 2. main branch of a tree 	Polysemic: 1. OE } 2. OE } lim (n)
She finally wrote a <u>letter</u> .	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. alphabetic character 2. written document 	Polysemic: 1. OF } 2. OF } letter

Ambiguous Sentences	Meanings	Polysemic or Homonymic
<p>Helen moved closer to the <u>plate</u>.</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. shallow dish 2. thin flat sheet of metal glass 3. oblong piece of metal with something stamped or engraved on it 4. sheet of metal, plastic, rubber treated so that words, or pictures can be printed from them etc. 	<p>Polysemic: 1, 2, 3, 4 OF plate</p>
<p>The boss did not care much about the <u>present</u>.</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Present time 2. gift 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. OF pré[✓]sence 2. ME ȝ^han OF presenter (v) something persented = a gift

Ambiguous Sentences	Meanings	Polysemic or Homonymic
Pete gave me a <u>ring</u> last night.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. telephone call (นาฬิกา ring the bell) 2. small circular band of precious metal worn on a finger 3. circular band of any kind of material 	<p>1. OE hringan</p> <p>Homonymic</p> <p>2. } 3. } OE hring</p>
He remembered the <u>tie</u> .	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. necktie 2. piece of cord, wire etc. used for fastening something 3. even score in a competition 	<p>1, 2, 3 จาก OE tēag</p> <p>Polysemic</p>
The <u>tablet</u> was yellow.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. flat pad of paper (สมุดบันทึก) 2. flat plaque (เหรียญ) 3. pill 	<p>1, 2, 3 จาก ME tablett</p> <p>Polysemic</p>