

English Lexicology

(digest)

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Lecture 1. Introduction to ME Lexicology.

Plan

- 1. English Lexicology: general overview.**
- 2. Lexical units.**
- 3. Categorization and naming.**
- 4. Universal ways of naming.**
- 5. Motivation, demotivation, remotivation.**

1. English Lexicology: General Overview

Major issues under discussion:

1. *origin* of English words;
2. their *semantic, morphological and derivational structures*;
3. major *ways of replenishing the English vocabulary*;
4. their *interrelation* within the language system;
5. their *combinability* in speech;
6. major *standard variants of English*;
7. traditions of *British and American lexicography*
8. the mental lexicon of an English native speaker.

2. Lexical units

Lexical units are:

- **two-faceted** (двусторонние), i.e., have meaning and form, and
- **ready-made** (готовые), i.e., registered in a dictionary and reproducible in speech.

- 2) **a morpheme** -- the *smallest* lexical unit;
- 3) **a phraseological unit, or an idiom** -- the *largest* lexical unit;
- 4) **a word** -- the most *typical, central* two-faceted ready-made lexical unit;

3. Categorization and naming

All living beings ***categorize***, i.e., match sense data and other information with ***prototypes*** and classify information into ***categories***.

Human beings in addition ***name***, or ***lexicalize*** categories.

3. Categorization and naming

1. We lexicalize, name **only** important categories to survive, to communicate, to make a further research.

Each community has its own list of important categories

(a *knuckle*, a *caboose*, *пятилетка*).

The most important lexicalized (named) categories have several names (synonyms: *intoxicated*, *boozy*, *balmy*, *jolly*, *tight*, *D and D*, *loaded*, etc.).

They also may have a more detailed lexical subdivision into lexicalized subcategories (e.g., *camels* for Arabs or *snow* for Eskimos).

2. The boundaries of the named (lexicalized) categories are **arbitrary**: in different languages usually do not coincide (*door*, *finger*, *table*, *рука*, *нога*, etc.)

4. UNIVERSAL WAYS OF NAMING

Major universal ways of naming:

I. By borrowing from another language;

II. By creating a new name by means of:

- 1) by secondary use of the existing name (by lexical-semantic means);**
- 2) by a new word derivation (by morphological means);**
- 3) by lexicalization of a free word-combination (by syntactic means).**

5. Motivation and demotivation

Motivation:

The form and meaning of one name may give incentive (motive) to creation of another name for another concept:

roam – ***roaming***;

cat – ***bearcat*** (панда); ***fat cat*** (богач, денежный мешок);

catfish – 1) сом 2) зубатка 3) каракатица; головоногий
МОЛЛЮСК

chicken 1) a young domestic fowl

2) the flesh of such a bird used for food

3) any of various similar birds, such as a prairie chicken
'луговой тетерева'

4) slang a cowardly person

5) slang a young inexperienced person

By and large, kick the bucket, to have a look

5. Motivation and demotivation

Motivation:

The semantic and formal relation of one name to another name, more simple in meaning and form, is called **motivation**.

The name thus related to another, simpler name is called **motivated name** (*a teacher, a blackboard, eatery*).

5. Motivation and demotivation

Three types of motivation:

1. **phonetic motivation** (*a cuckoo, buzz, click, giggle, hum, boom, chirp, clap, bang, mumble, etc.*);
2. **morphological motivation** (*a teacher — a person who teaches, a sunflower — a plant with a flower looking like the sun, etc.*);
3. **semantic motivation** (*fox — a cunning person {like a fox}; chicken — meat of a chicken, etc.*).

5. Motivation and demotivation

Demotivation:

Partial motivation: *blackboard, cupboard; cranberry; breakfast; pocket; hamlet;*

Complete demotivation: **book** [Old English *bōc* ; related to Old Norse *bōk* , Old High German *buoh* book , Gothic *bōka* letter ; see BEECH 'бук' (the bark of which was used as a writing surface)];

paper [from L *papyrus*]

afford [origin: late Old English *geforthian*, from *ge-* (prefix implying completeness) + *forthian* "to further", from *forth* . The original sense was "*promote, perform, accomplish*", later "*manage, be in a position to do*"]

5. Motivation and demotivation

Folk motivation:

copper ‘policeman’ **not** from **copper** ‘медь’ **but:**
from cop ‘arrest, catch’ [fr,L capere];

the Canary Islands means in L **Insularia Canaria**
‘the island of dogs’;

gooseberry [L. **Grossularia**]

Lecture 2

NAMING BY BORROWING

1. Etymological survey of the English vocabulary.
2. Native words in English.
 - a) Anglo-Saxon words (Indo-European words; Common Germanic words; Continental borrowings).
 - b) Early insular borrowings from Celtic and Latin.
3. Later borrowings in English.
 - a) The main waves of borrowing.
 - b) Loans and native words relation.
 - c) Assimilation of borrowings.

NAMING BY BORROWING

ETYMOLOGY –

*the study of the **origin of words***

*and the way in which their meanings have
changed throughout history*

NAMING BY BORROWING

only **30%** of English words are native

70% of the Modern English vocabulary are
loans, or borrowed words from 80
languages

So, the English vocabulary has **a mixed character.**

Celtic peoples



The *Dying Gaul*, a Roman marble copy of a Hellenistic work of the late 3rd century BC Capitoline Museums, Rome



The end of the Roman rule

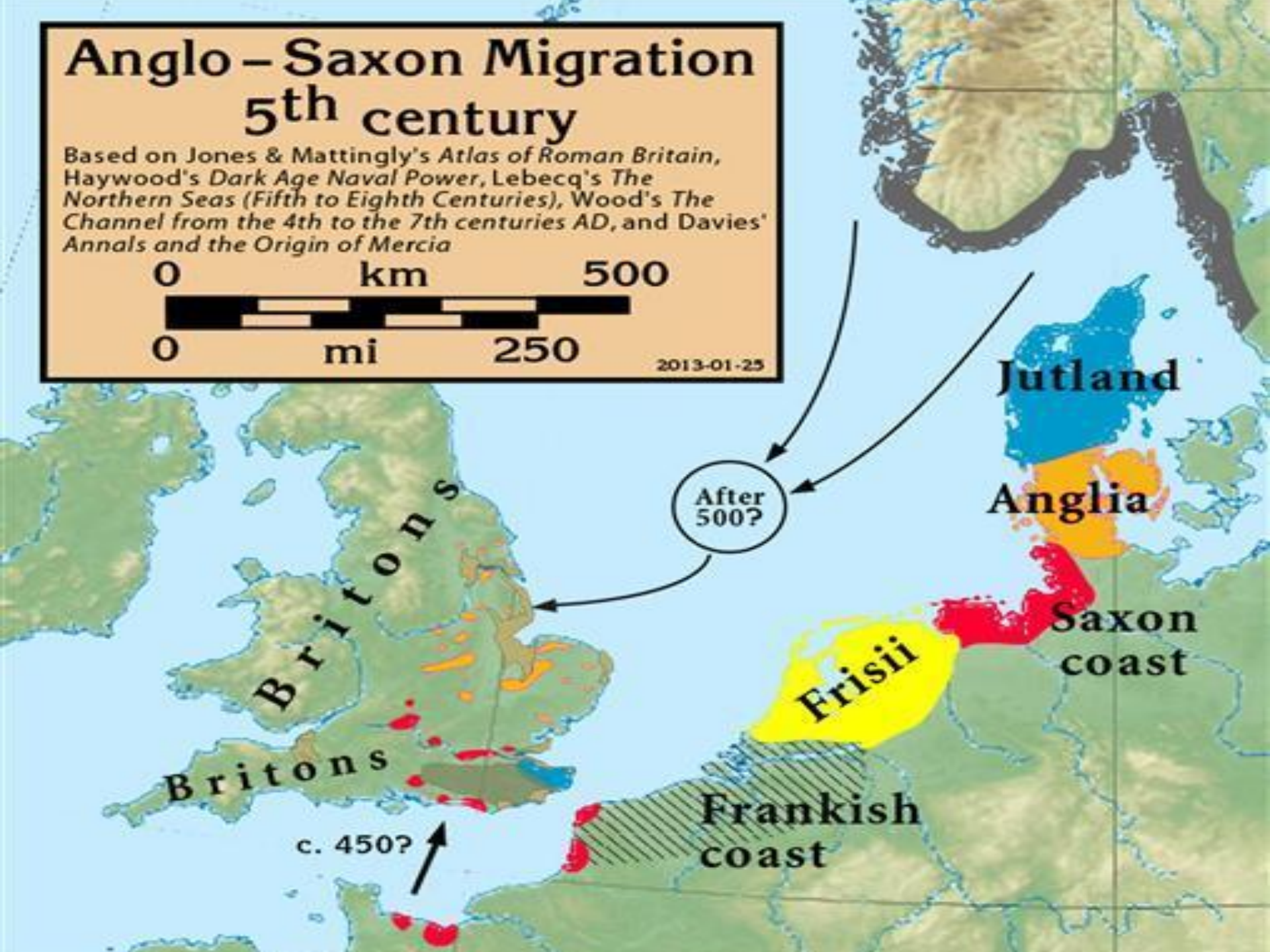
- An appeal for help by the British communities against the barbarians attacks was rejected by the Emperor Honorius in **410**.
- The pagan Germanic tribes **Saxons** were invited by Vortigern to assist in fighting the Picts and Irish

Anglo-Saxon Migration 5th century

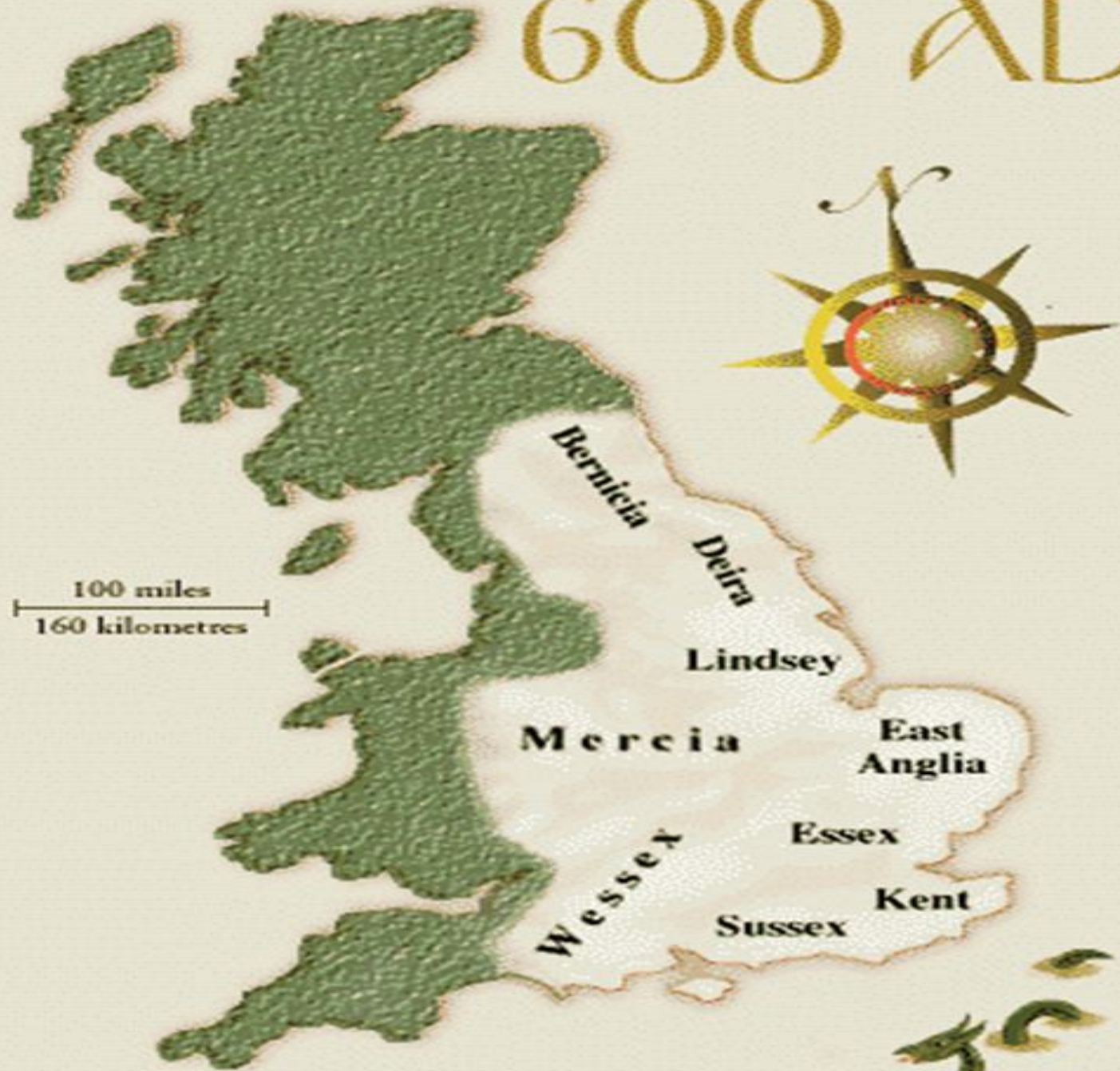
Based on Jones & Mattingly's *Atlas of Roman Britain*, Haywood's *Dark Age Naval Power*, Lebecq's *The Northern Seas (Fifth to Eighth Centuries)*, Wood's *The Channel from the 4th to the 7th centuries AD*, and Davies' *Annals and the Origin of Mercia*



2013-01-25



600 AD



100 miles
160 kilometres

British held territories

Lecture 2. Borrowing

Native words in English (Englisch by 7th century)

I. **Anglo-Saxon words:**

- Common Indo-European roots (*father, mother, brother, son, daughter, birch, cat, cold, one, two, three, etc.*).
- Common Germanic roots (*arm, bear, boat, finger, hand, head, say, see, white, winter, etc.*)
- *Cannot be traced to any sources and were characteristic only of the Anglo-Saxon language (e.g. dog)*
- *Continental Latin borrowings (cup, cheese, butter, mill, line, ounce, pipe, pound, wine, etc.);*

Lecture 2. Borrowing

II. Early insular borrowings:

■ Celtic borrowings

(*whiskey, bug, bog, glen, kick, creak, basket, dagger, lad*, etc.); names of *rivers* (*the Avon, the Esk, the Usk, the Thames, the Severn*, etc.), *mountains and hills* (**Ben Nevis** (from *pen* ‘a hill’), the first elements in many *city names* (**Winchester, Cirencester, Clouchester, Salisbury, Lichfield, Ikley**, etc.) or the second elements in *many villages* (**-cumb** meaning ‘deep valley’ still survives in *Duncombe* or *Winchcombe*);

■ Latin borrowings

(*port, street, mile, mountain*, the element **chester** or **caster**, retained in many names of towns [from L *castra* ‘camp’], etc.).

Lecture 2. Borrowing

The main waves of later borrowings in English

- The conversion of the English to Christianity
- The Danish invasion
- The Norman Conquest
- The Renaissance period
- The more recent borrowings

Lecture 2. Borrowing

The conversion of the English to Christianity (6th-7th centuries)

Latin and **Greek** words appeared in English (as *altar, bishop, church, priest, disciple, psalm, mass, temple, nun, monk, creed, devil, school*, etc.).

Some pagan Anglo-Saxon words remained (**God, godspell, hlaford, synn, etc.**)

**The Danish invasion
(8th-11th centuries)**



Old Norse Words

both, they, their, them;

gap, get, give,

egg, odd, ill,

leg, fog, law, low, fellow,

reindeer, call, die, flat, happy, happen, husband, knife, loan,

sale, take, tidings, ugly, want, weak, window, wrong, etc.

Some of them are still easy to recognize as they begin with **sk-**:
ski, skin, sky, skill, skirt, scrub, etc.

At least **1,400** localities in England have Scandinavian names (names with elements *-beck* ‘brook’, *-by* ‘village’, *toft* ‘a site for a dwelling’: *Askby, Selby, Westby, Brimtoft, Nortoft, etc.*).

**William I
(the
Conqueror)**

**Hastings
1066**



French borrowings

government, social and military order: *Duke, count, baron, noble, parliament, government, servant, messenger, royal, market, state;*

law: *arrest, judge* (судья), *jury* (присяжные), *justice, court* (суд), *prosecution* (сторона обвинения), *plaintiff* (истец), *verdict, prison,*

military sphere: *battle, army, soldier, navy, enemy, spy, peace, demand, false,* etc.

cooking terms: *sauce, boil, fry, roast, toast, pastry, soup, jelly, beef,* etc.

arts, fashion : *art, painting, poet, chamber, labour, mansion, diamond, salon, mirror, scent, jewel, robe, coat, collar, curtain,* etc.

inner parts of the body: *vein, nerve, stomach, artery, tendon*

But: the outward parts of the body (with an exception of *face*), and most of the better known inner organs were untouched by the Norman French (*arm, hand, finger, nose, eye, skin, heart, brain, lung, kidney, liver, bone*)

The borrowings of the Renaissance period (1500-1650)

Latin, Greek, Italian:

*allegro, anachronism, capacity, catastrophe, celebrate,
chronology, confidence, contract, criterion, dogma,
epic, expend, fertile, granite, hierarchy, laconic,
museum, native, opera, piano, portico, soprano,
sarcasm, system, type, etc.).*

About **85%** of the Anglo-Saxon words are no longer in use.

2/3 of native Anglo-Saxon words died out:

wittagemot, wergild (cf.: werewolf), morgenmete

But about **50,000** Anglo-Saxon words still remain in English today.

Anglo-Saxon words are:

- *communicatively important and very frequently used,*
- *mostly monosyllabic in character,*
- *highly polysemantic.*

They:

- *have a great word-building potential,*
- *enter a great number of set-expressions, proverbs and sayings.*

Assimilation of borrowings:

honour, garage, adult, alloy, psalm [sa:(l)m], psyche, Psaki

il+legal, a/im+moral) [Gk; L]

but

un+friendly, mis+understand [OE]

Yet -- **HYBRIDS:**

un-+reliable [OE+OFr]

un-+interesting {OE+[L+OE]}

false+-hood [L + OE]

love+-able [OE+OFr-L]

etymological doublets - two or more words originated from the same source but having different form and meaning

more than 500 etymological doublets in English

canal [L] — *channel* [Fr],

liquor [L] — *liqueur* [Fr],

major [L] — *mayor* [Fr]

senior [L] – *sir* [Fr]

discrete [L] – *discreet* [Fr]

disk [L] – *dish* [L]

circle [L fr Gk] – *cycle* [L fr Gk]

shirt [OE] — *skirt* [Sc]

shift [OE] – *skip* [Sc]

cattle-chattel-capital [fr. L *caput* ‘head’].

host, hostel, hotel, hospital, hospice, hostile, hostage [fr. L. **hospes** ‘stranger, guest’]

'a translator's false friends' (1928) - words existing in two different languages, which have a similar form (either graphic or phonetic) but different meanings.

sympathy is not *симпатия*

romance is not *романс*

solid is not *солидный*

angina is not *ангина*

Caucasian is not only *кавказский*

invalid is not a full equivalent to *инвалид*

public is not only *публичный* (cf.: *public house*)

policy is not only *политика*

conductor is not only *кондуктор*

cream is not only *крем*

International words

are the result of

simultaneous or successive

borrowings in many languages:

sputnik, killer, opera.

(Cf.: *cat, father, mother* – I.-E.)

Lecture 3-4. Lexical-semantic naming

Plan:

1. Different approaches to word meaning:

- 1) *Ostensive approach.*
- 2) *Ideational approach.*
- 3) *Behaviouristic approach.*
- 4) *Semiotic (Referential) approach.*
- 5) *Structural approach.*
- 6) *Functional approach.*
- 7) *Cognitive approach.*

3. Typologies of word meaning.

Aspects of:

- *sign relation: denotational / connotational (referential/ pragmatic); free/ bound*
- *structure: lexical / grammatical*
- *history: primary/ secondary*
- *frequency: central/ peripheral*

3. Change of meaning. Causes, types and results.

5. Lexical-semantic naming. Polysemy. Lexical-Semantic Structure.

6. Semantic ambiguity. Polysemy versus homonymy.

7. Types of homonyms.

1. Different approaches to word meaning

5a. Structural Approach to meaning:

Word meaning can be seen as a complex cluster of smaller units – **semantic components**, or **semes/ features** organized in a **componential structure**.

Componential analysis:

man, woman, boy, girl || the semantic features [+HUMAN], [MALE] and [ADULT].

man: [+HUMAN] [+ADULT] [+MALE]

boy: [+HUMAN] [—ADULT] [+MALE]

woman: [+HUMAN] [+ADULT] [—MALE]

girl [+HUMAN] [—ADULT] and [—MALE].

1. Different approaches to word meaning

6. *Functional approach:*

The meaning of a word is a contextual activation of the part of its potential:

warm water: *warm* reception

dwarf/ early/ late *tulip*

tulip bulb/ field

a *sad* woman : a *sad* voice : a *sad* story : a *sad*
scoundrel (= an incorrigible scoundrel) : a *sad*
night (= a dark, black night - *arch, poet.*)

3. Change of meaning. Causes, types and results

Causes for change of meaning:

- **extralinguistic causes:** *atom, car, pen, window;*
- **linguistic causes:**
 - **differentiation** of synonyms: *land/ country*
 - **ellipsis:** *a soft; an elastic*
 - **linguistic analogy:** *white – ‘morally clean’; black ...; blue...*

3. Change of meaning. Causes, types and results

Nature (types) of change of meaning:

Associations of:

- similarity (metaphor):
broadcast ['to cast seeds out'] → 'the transmission of audio and video signals'.
- contiguity 'nearness in space or time, cause and reason' (metonymy):
jaw ['Old French *joe* 'cheek'] → 'mandible' (the bone in the lower jaw of a person or animal - НИЖНЯЯ ЧЕЛЮСТЬ).

3. Change of meaning. Causes, types and results

Results of change of meaning:

- *In the denotational component:*

- ✓ **restriction, or narrowing:**

- mare* ‘a horse’ → ‘a female horse’;

- mete* ‘any food’ → *meat* ‘flesh of animal’;

- girl orig.* ‘a child’ → a female child;

- a hound orig.* ‘any dog’ → ‘a dog for hunting’;

- ✓ **extension, or generalization:**

- hoover; cook; guy.*

- *In the connotational meaning:*

- ✓ elevation, upgrading: **amelioration**: *minister* – orig. ‘servant’

- ✓ deterioration: **pejoration**: *silly* – orig. ‘happy’

4. Polysemy. Lexical-semantic naming. Patterned polysemy. Lexical-Semantic Structure.

Polysemy -- *the capacity of a word/any other lexical unit to have multiple but related meanings:*

crane: 1. a bird

2. a type of construction equipment

4. Lexical-semantic derivation of a name. Patterned polysemy of lexical units in English

LSV (*lexical-semantic variant*), or meaning/sense of a polysemantic word is a *naming unit* (like a word).

Minor meanings, or senses, or LSVs of a word are the result of a lexical-semantic naming process, or lexical-semantic derivation.

All the meanings of a word make its *semantic structure*.

**Arbitrariness (произвольность)
of semantic structure
in different languages:**

Semantic structures of correlated words are different in different languages:

- foot** 1) лодыжка, ступня **ступня** 1) foot
- 2) фут (единица измерения длины)
 - 3) подножие горы
 - 4) лапка (у машины)
 - 5) нижняя часть лепестка ...

Homonymy. Types of homonyms.

Classification of homonyms

- **homophones:** *tail* and *tale*;
buoy and *boy*;
board and *bored*
- **homographs:** *live* [liv] and *live* [laiv],
lead [li:d] and *lead* [led],
minute ['minit] and *minute* [mai'nju:t]
- **perfect homonyms:** *bank* I 'shore' [Sc.] and
bank II 'financial institution' [It];

Homonymy. Types of homonyms.

- **lexical homonyms:** *seal* (n) ‘a sea animal’;
seal (n) ‘design on a piece of paper, stamp’);
- **grammatical homonyms:** *seals* – pl. of ‘sea animal’ and
seal’s – sing. Poss. Case of ‘sea animal’);
- **lexical-grammatical homonyms:** *seal* (n) – ‘a sea animal’ and
seal (v) – ‘to close tightly’;
court (n) and *caught* (v);
sea (n) and *see* (v), etc.

Lecture 5-7. NAMING BY MORPHOLOGICAL MEANS

(WORD-FORMATION/ WORD-DERIVATION IN ENGLISH)

Morphological naming is naming of a concept by morphological means, creating (derivation) of a new word *out of available morphological language means*.

It is the most obvious, prototypical and *productive way* of the English vocabulary growth.

Lecture 5. MORPHEMIC AND DERIVATIVE STRUCTURE OF ENGLISH WORDS

PLAN:

1. Morphemic analysis.

- a) Morpheme. Classification of morphemes.**
- b) Variants of forms in morphemes (allomorphs).**
- c) Procedure of morphemic analysis.**
- d) Types of word-segmentability.**
- e) Morphemic structure and morphemic types of words.**

2. Derivational analysis.

- a) Derivative structure.**
- b) Derivative types of words. Degree of derivation**

1. Morphemic analysis

Morphemes are the *smallest lexical units*:

a) form-building, or inflectional morphemes, as in
smiled, smiles, is smiling;

b) word-building, or **derivational morphemes as in:**

reason- + -able

teach- + -er

1. Morphemic analysis

Derivational morphemes are identified by a combination of criteria:

- 1. *semantic,***
- 2. *structural and***
- 3. *distributional.***

1. Morphemic analysis

Semantic criterion:

A morpheme should have its own meaning.

Types of meaning in derivational morphemes:

Like words:

- Some derivational morphemes may have lexical meaning:
 - denotational** (especially revealed in root-morphemes, like in *-girl-*) and
 - connotational** (the suffixes in *piglet* and *horsy*; *woman-ly*, *woman-like*, *woman-ish*).
- Many derivational morphemes (except roots), like words, may possess part-of-speech meaning (*govern-ment*, *teach-er*).

BUT: word-building morphemes in contrast to words and to inflectional morphemes like *-ed* for the Past Indefinite

- **do not possess grammatical meaning:**
the root morphemes (*-man-* in *a man*, *man-ly*, *un-man-ly*) possess **neither grammatical** meaning of case and number, **nor the part-of-speech meaning**, while the word *a man* does.

1. Morphemic analysis

Specific types of meaning in morphemes:

- *differential* — serves to distinguish one word from another (*over-cook*, *under-cook*, *pre-cook*; *re-ceive*, *perceive*), and
- *distributional* — the meaning of morpheme arrangement in a word (*uneffective*; *sugarless* and *lessen*).

Phonetic-semantic resemblances:

flash, flicker, flame, flare

Classification of morphemes:

Semantic classification:

- **roots** — lexical-semantic centers of words ;
- **affixes** — prefixes and suffixes with modifying meaning.

- **pseudo-morphemes** are semantically deficient: *re-* in *receive* or *con-* in *contain*.

1. Morphemic analysis

Classification of morphemes:

In different contexts

a morpheme may also have different forms

(**allomorphs**):

please – pleasure – pleasant;

price – precious;

fuse – fusion;

school – scholar

1. Morphemic analysis

Classification of morphemes:

Structural classification:

- **free** (coincide with a word-form, roots are usually free as *friend* in *friendship*),
- **bound** (always a part of a word (*friend-ship*); affixes and some roots as *histor-* in *history*, *cord-* in *cordial*, or *not-* in *notion* are bound),
- **semi-free (semi-bound)** (occur both as free and bound: *to do well* and *well-done*, *take a half of it* and *half-eaten*).
- **Combining forms:** neoclassical compounds (*phonology*, *telephone*, *telegram*, *gramophone*, *phonogram*) that have never existed in the language of borrowing.

1. Morphemic analysis

Morphemic analysis:

How many meaningful constituents are there in the word?

1. Morphemic analysis

Procedure of morphemic analysis:

The method of **I**mmEDIATE and **U**LTIMATE **C**ONSTITUENTS
(the *IC* and *UC* method).

The *IC* method is:

identification of **two** *meaningful* and *recurring in other words* components that the word under analysis falls into (*immediate constituents, IC*):

friendliness

The IC are: 1) **friendly-**(*friendly, friendly-looking*) + 2) **-ness** (*dark-ness, happy-ness*)

The *UC* method is:

The procedure IC analysis goes on until the word is broken into the smallest meaningful parts (*ultimate constituents, UC*):

friendly- is finally divided into *friend-* and *-ly* (cf.: *wife-ly*).

So, the **UC** are *friend-*, *-ly* and *-ness*.

1. Morphemic analysis

Types of word-segmentability:

1. **Complete** - segmentation into morphemes (*free* or *bound*) does not cause any doubt for structural or semantic reason: *teach-er*; *stud-ent*, and *nat-ive*.
2. **Conditional** - segmentation is doubtful for semantic reasons (*re-tain*, *de-tain*; *con-ceive*, *de-ceive*, *per-ceive*, *re-ceive*; *ac-cept*, *ex-cept*, *con-cept*, *per-cept*, *pre-cept*).
3. **Defective** - segmentation is doubtful for *structural* reasons (*ham-let*, *pock-et*, *dis-may*).

Morphemic classification of words:

- **monomorphic** (*table*) and
- **polymorphic**

Polymorphic: *monoradical* and *polyradical*.

- *monoradical* words:

monoradical suffixal (*teacher, student*),
monoradical prefixal (*overteach, overstudy*), and
prefixal-radical-suffixal (*superteacher, superstudent, beheaded*).

- *polyradical* words:

polyradical proper (*head-master, blackboard*),
polyradical suffixal (*head-teacher, graduate-student, boarding-school*),
polyradical prefixal (*super-headmaster, post-graduate-student*),
polyradical prefixal-suffixal (*super-headteacher, super-light-mindedness*).

2. Derivational analysis

Morphemic analysis:

How many meaningful constituents are there in the word and what are their types?

Derivational analysis:

How is the word derived?

2. Derivational analysis

The morphological structure:

do-gooder

dress-maker

polyradical-suffixal words

2. Derivational analysis

The derivative structure:

do-gooder: *(do good)+-er*, or *(v _adv)+-er*

dress-maker: *dress-+(make-+-er)*, or *n +(v+-er)*

2. Derivational analysis

The morphological structure:

unmanly *discouragement*

prefixal-radical-suffixal words

2. Derivational analysis

The derivative structure:

unmanly

un- + (*man* + *-ly*) \Longrightarrow Adj

discouragement

(*dis-* + *courage*) + *-ment* \Longrightarrow *N*

2. Derivational analysis

The basic elements in the **morphological structure** are

- *morphemes* (the ultimate meaningful units in a word).

The basic elements in the **derivative structure** are:

- 1) *a derivational base,*
- 2) *a derivational affix* and
- 3) *a derivational pattern* of their arrangement .

1) A derivational base is *the starting point for new words*.

It is the word constituent to which a rule of word-formation is applied.

Structurally **derivational bases** fall into 3 classes:

1) bases that **coincide** with **morphological stems** of different degrees of complexity.

-- a *simple* morphological stem as father- in the verb *to father*,

-- a *derived* morphological stem as computer- in the word *computerize*;

-- a *compound* morphological stem as week-end- in the word *weekender*, etc..

This is the most numerous class of bases.

2) bases that **coincide** with **word-forms** as the base known in *unknown* or dancing in *a dancing-girl*;

3) bases that **coincide** with **word groups** of different degrees of stability as the derivational base narrow mind in *narrow-minded* or *blue eye(s)* in *blue-eyed* or *second rate* in *second-rateness*)

2. Derivational analysis

3) A derivational pattern is *an arrangement of IC* which can be expressed by *a formula* denoting their type of a morpheme and part-of-speech of the derivational base:

pref + adj → Adj (adj + n) + -ed → Adj

or being written in a more abstract way not taking into account the final results:

pref + adj (adj + n) + suf

or vice versa, taking into account the final results and individual semantics of some of the IC, like in:

***re-* + v → V or pref + *read* → V.**

2. Derivational analysis

Derivative types of words

Derivationally all the words in a language are subdivided into:

- **simplexes**

(monomorphic words as *read*, *dead*, *table*, and polymorphic words of conditional and defective types of segmentability like *deceive* or *hamlet*), and

- **complexes, or derivatives**

(*reader* – v+-er→N; *to snow* – n + conversion →V, and *student* (v+-ent→N)).

2. Derivational analysis

Degrees of derivation:

- derivatives of the first degree of derivation: *reader* (v+-er→N); *reading* (v+-ing→N); *readable* (v+-able→Adj); *reread* (prf-+v→V);
- derivatives of the second degree of derivation: *unpredictable* un-+(v+-able)→Adj;
- derivatives of the third degree of derivation: *aircraft-carrier* (n+n)+(v+-er)→N.

2. Derivational analysis

Major types of derivation (word-formation) in English:

In English there are **three major types of word-derivation:**

- *affixation*,
- *zero derivation, or conversion, and*
- *composition, or compounding.*

Minor types of word-formation:

- ✓ *back-formation,*
 - ✓ *shortening,*
 - ✓ *blending,*
 - ✓ *extension of proper names,*
- and some others.

Lecture 6-7. Major and minor ways of word-formation (Naming by morphological means)

PLAN:

I. Major ways of word-formation:

1. Affixation

a) prefixation

b) suffixation

2. Conversion

3. Compounding (word-composition)

II. Minor ways of word-formation.

Prefixation

Semantic classification of prefixes :

1. **negation, reversal, contrary** (*unemployment, undress, incorrect, inequality, disloyal, disconnect, amoral, non-scientific, antifreeze, decentralize*);
 2. **sequence and order in time** (*pre-war, post-war, foresee, ex-president, co-exist*);
 3. **space location** (*inter-continental, trans-Atlantic, subway, superstructure*);
 4. **repetition** (*reassert, rewrite, anabaptize ‘to baptize again’*);
 5. **quantity and intensity** (*unisex, bilingual, polytechnical, multilateral*);
- ++
- **pejoration** (*abnormal, miscalculate, maltreat, pseudo-morpheme*);
 - **amelioration** (*super-reliable, supermarket, ultramodern*).

Suffixation

suffix [from L. *sub*-‘under’ + *fix* ‘to attach’]

from 130 to 64 suffixes in English

Suffixation in English is mostly characteristic of
nouns and ***adjectives***.

- ***receive*** – is *not* derived in modern English
- ***rewrite*** – is a derivative of the first degree

Conversion

Conversion -- phonetic identity of words belonging to different parts of speech:

round *adj, n, v, adv;*

back *n, adj, adv, v;*

water, eye, jump (v, n)

Stress-interchange

It takes place in some *disyllabic verbs* and **nouns** of Romance origin:

V	N
<i>com´pact</i>	<i>´compact</i>
<i>trans´port</i>	<i>´transport</i>
<i>im´port</i>	<i>´import</i>
<i>in´sult</i>	<i>´insult</i>
<i>re´cord</i>	<i>´record</i>
<i>pro´ject</i>	<i>´project</i>
<i>pro´gress,</i>	<i>´progress</i>
<i>prod´uce</i>	<i>´produce</i>
<i>pro´test</i>	<i>´protest</i>

- but *to re´cruit – a re´cruit*

Word compounding (word composition)

In English:

combination of *two derivational bases*:

❖ *without a linking element:*

house-dog, day-time, a baby-sitter; early-riser; oil-rich, power-driven;

❖ *or with it:*

Anglo-Saxon, sociolinguistics, handicraft, sportsman.

Most common types of word-compounding in English:

1. **n+n→N** (*ice-cream*) and
2. **adj+n→N** (*software, a blackboard, a red-breast*);
3. **(n+adj→Adj)**: (*value-free, airtight, life-long*)

Word compounding (word composition)

The second base

is semantically more important, cf.:

ring finger and *finger-ring*

piano-player and *player piano*

armchair and *chair-arm*

Minor ways of word-formation

Graphic Shortening: Mr, Mrs (1447, 1582), Str., Prof.

1. Lexical Shortening

a) Clipping of a word:

- ✓*initial*: **bus** (short for 'omniBUS', **phone** (short for 'telePHONE');
- ✓*final*: **pop** (short for 'POPular), **exam** (short for 'EXAMination');
- ✓*both initial and final*: **flue** (short for 'inFLUEnza', **fridge** (short for 'reFRIDGErator);
- ✓*middle*: **maths** (short for *MATHeMaticS*)

Minor ways of word-formation

b) Acronymy [1940s: from Greek *akron* 'tip' + *onuma* 'name'] - abbreviation made of initial letters of a fixed phrase:

SMS for 'short *messages* service',

DVD for 'digital video *disk*',

CD-ROM 'Compact *Disk* Read Only *Memory*',

hi-fi (short for '*High Fidelity*'),

UNO for '*United Nations* Organization, **VIP** for '*Very Important Person*',

jeep for '*General Purpose* vehicle', **laser** for '*Light Amplification by Stimulated Emission of Radiation*',

V-day for '*Victory day*',

Pakistan (1933) (*Punjab, Afghan Border States, Kashmir, Sind* and the end of the name of Baluchis *TAN*);

SMART (*Self-Monitoring, Analysis and Reporting Technology*),

MAESTRO, WASP,

oink (*One Income No Kids*), **dinky** (*Dual Income No Kids*).

Minor ways of word-formation

2. Blending (telescoping) of two words

blog for 'web *log*' (registration), *brunch* for '*BR*eakfast and *LUNCH*', *smog* for '*SM*oke + f*OG*',

3. Back-formation when a derived word looks shorter than its source:

to edit from *an editor*,

to beg from *a beggar*,

4. Reduplication

bye-bye

walkie-talkie

wishy-washy

ping-pong

Minor ways of word-formation

5. The extension of proper names

champagne, coffee [late 16th cent.: from Turkish kahveh, from Arabic qahwa, probably via Dutch koffie], *Nicotine* [Jean Nicot], *magnolia* [Pierre Magnol (1638–1715), French botanist], *sandwich, hooligan*

6. Analogical word-formation

hamburger — cheeseburger — fishburger;
England — Disneyland — acqualand — dreamland;

7. Adjectivization

-ed: *united, organized, elected*

8. Nominalization

the recruiting, the terminating

9. Word manufacturing

Gas, Kodak

Lecture 8. **NAMING BY WORD GROUPS**

NAMING BY WORD GROUPS

- 1. Free word-groups vs. multi-word naming units (compounds, complex taxonomies, set-expressions).**
- 2. Restrictions on word-combinability in free word-groups.
Lexical and Grammatical valency of words in free word-groups.**
- 3. Classification of free word-groups.**
- 4. Phraseology. Clichés. Set expressions.
Multi-word Latin and French set expressions.
Idioms. Phraseological units.**
- 5. Classification of phraseological units.**

1. Free collocations vs. multi-word naming units

**sanding machine, sewing machine, whistle-blower,
white flight, to kick the bucket**

**съедобный гриб, белый гриб, швейная
машина, железная дорога, бить баклуши**

4. Phraseology

Phraseological unit –

most inclusive term for the largest two-faceted lexical units.

Types:

- *cliches,*
- *set-expressions,* and
- *idioms.*

Semantic classification of phraseological units by

Acad. V.V. Vinogradov:

based on the **semantic approach**, i.e. the different degree of semantic cohesion between the components:

- **phraseological combinations** (фразеологические сочетания: *to meet the demand/ necessity/requirement; a bosom friend*);
- **phraseological unities** (фразеологические единства: *to look a gift horse in the mouth*);
- **phraseological fusions** (idioms) (фразеологические сращения: *to spill the beans* ‘выдать секрет, проболтаться’).

Lecture 9.

SEMANTIC RELATIONS OF WORDS. STRUCTURE OF THE ENGLISH LEXICON

PLAN

- 1. Ways of classifying lexemes.**
- 2. Major types of semantic relations of lexical units.**
- 3. Structure of the English lexicon.**
- 4. Lexicon structure in different languages.**

2. Major types of semantic relations of lexical units in the lexical system:

Paradigmatic relations of lexical units:

1. The relations of inclusion:

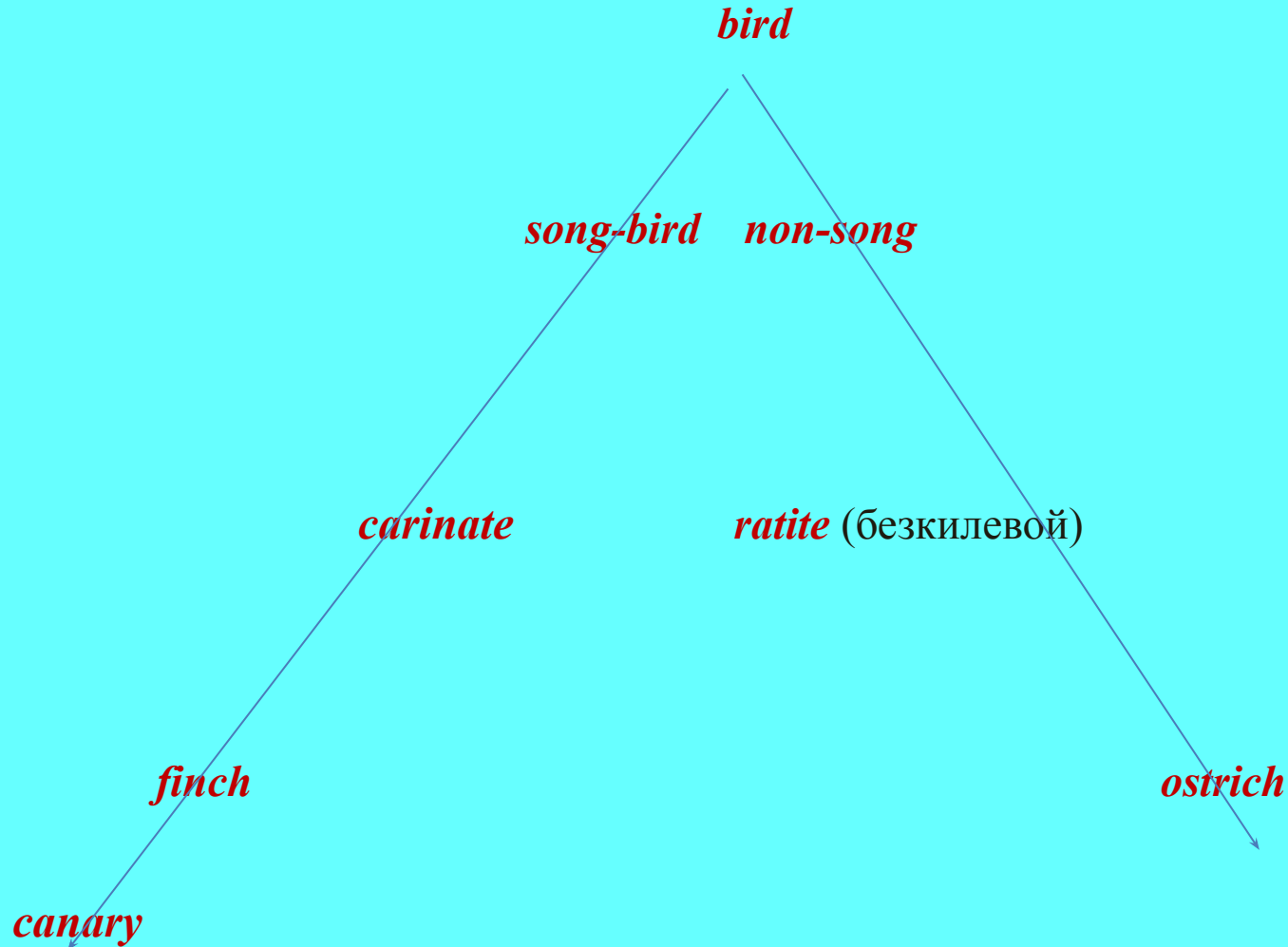
1. *hierarchical relations (hyponymy)*
2. *serial relations and*
3. *Meronymy (part-whole relations).*

2. The relations of partial compatibility:

4. *synonymy,*
5. *antonymy and*
6. *distant compatibility.*

2. Major types of semantic relations of lexical units

Hierarchical, hypero-hyponymic relations, or hyponymy (X is a kind of Y):



Quasi-hyponymy:
cutlery : *knife*, *fork* and *spoon*

2. Major types of semantic relations of lexical units

Meronymy, or meronymic relations (X is part of Y; Y has X):

body

△

arm

△

hand

△

finger, etc.

Quasi-meronymy:

France – Europe

(*France is part of Europe* but not **Europe has France*).

Lecture 10. Variation of the English vocabulary.

Lexicography

Plan:

1. **Multidimensional nature of lexical variation**
(*historical, regional, cultural and social dimensions;*
the qualitative, quantitative, and structural dimensions).
2. **Lexicography.**

Language variation: language, dialect, idiolect; variant

Idiolect – the language use typical of an individual person.

Dialect - a *regional* or *social variety* of a language characterized by its own *phonological, syntactic, and lexical* properties.

A language –any specific example of human language. Usually it is associated with *a standard norm* of speaking *in a country: Japanese, Armenian*, yet the situation is much more complicated. Estimates of the number of languages in the world vary between 5,000 and 7,000.

There is no clear distinction between a language and a dialect.

The aphorism attributed to **Max Weinreich**: *“a language is a dialect with an army and navy.”*

Variant – *a regional variety* possessing a **literary form**: *American/ English/ Canadian/ Indian/ Australian/ South African variants of English; in Gr. Br. there are **Scottish English and Irish English**.*

British vs. American English
The 6 cases of vocabulary differences
between **AE** and **BE**:

1. no equivalents in British English:

dude ranch 'a sham ranch used as a summer residence for holiday-makers from the cities' = a guest ranch;

2. different words are used for the same denotatum:

candy, cookies, movies, suspenders, truck in **AE**, and
sweets, biscuits, pictures, braces, lorry in **BE**.

3. the same word for different denotata:

pavement

AE: 'covering of the street made of asphalt, stones or some other material'.

BE: 'the footway at the side of the road'. (The Americans use the noun *sidewalk* for this).



Samuel Johnson (1709 – 1784),
often referred to simply as
Dr Johnson.

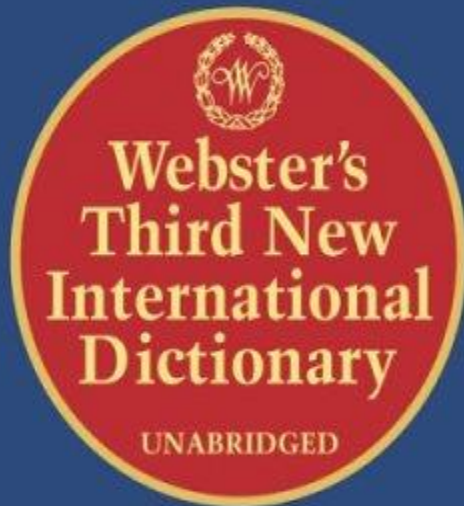
A portrait of Johnson from 1775
by **Joshua Reynolds** showing
Johnson's intense concentration
and the weakness of his eyes.



Noah Webster (1758 – 1843)

His name became synonymous with "dictionary," especially the modern Merriam-Webster dictionary which was first published in 1828 as *An American Dictionary of the English Language*.

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Learner's Type of English Dictionaries (in hard copy and online)

- the [Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary](#) by A.S. Hornby (f.1942)
- The [Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English](#) (f.1978)
- [Collins Cobuild](#) English Dictionary, first published in 1987
- [Cambridge](#) International Dictionary of English, 1995, now published as the **Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary**
- [Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners](#), 2002
- [Merriam-Webster](#)'s Advanced Learner's English Dictionary, 2008