## English Lexicology (digest)

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## Lecture 1. Introduction to ME Lexicology.

Plan

1. English Lexicology: general overview. 2. Lexical units.
2. Categorization and naming.
3. Universal ways of naming.
4. 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
Z 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 twofaceted 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 it 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.)

## 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 wordcombination (by syntactic means).

## 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 foul
2) the flesh of such a bird used for food
3) any of various similar birds, such as a prairie chicken 'луговой тетерев'
4) slang a cowardly person
5) slang a young inexperienced person

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

## 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 ${ }_{\perp}$ etc.).

## 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

## only $\mathbf{3 0 \%}$ 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 $5^{\text {th }}$ 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 4 th to the 7th centuries AD, and Davies* Annals and the Origin of Mercia

0


Anglia

Frankish
c. 450 ?


Britons


## Lecture 2. Borrowing

## Native words in English (Englisck by 7 ${ }^{\text {th }}$ 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 <br> 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, Cirenchester, 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.).


## 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

 ( $6^{\text {th }}-7^{\text {th }}$ 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.)


## 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.).

## Hastings 1066


[8\% 8\%
.

## 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 (ucтеu), 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 $\mathbf{8 5 \%}$ 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:(I)m], psyche, Psaki
il+legal, a/im+moral) [Gk; L]
but un+friendly, mis+understand [OE]

> Yet -- HYBRIDS:
> un-+reliable $[\mathrm{OE}+\mathrm{OFr}]$
> un-+interesting $\{\mathrm{OE}+[\mathrm{L}+\mathrm{OE}]\}$
> false+-hood $[\mathrm{L}+\mathrm{OE}]$
> love+-able $[\mathrm{OE}+\mathrm{OFr}-\mathrm{L}]$
etymological doublets - two or more words originated from the same source but having different form and meaning
more than 500 etymological doublets in English

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { canal }[\mathrm{L}] \text { - channel }[\mathrm{Fr}] \text {, } \\
\text { liquor }[\mathrm{L}] \text { - liqueur }[\mathrm{Fr}] \\
\text { major }[\mathrm{L}] \text { - mayor }[\mathrm{Fr}] \\
\text { senior }[\mathrm{L}] \text { - sir }[\mathrm{Fr}] \\
\text { discrete }[\mathrm{L}] \text { - discreet }[\mathrm{Fr}]
\end{gathered}
$$

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { disk [L] - dish [L] } \\
\text { circle }[\mathrm{L} \text { fr Gk] - cycle }[\mathrm{L} \mathrm{fr} \mathrm{Gk]} \\
\text { shirt [OE] - skirt [Sc] } \\
\text { shift [OE] - skip [Sc] }
\end{gathered}
$$

cattle-chattel-capital [fr. L caput 'head'].
host, hostel, hotel, hospital, hospice, hostile, hostage [fr. L. hospes 'stranger, onest']
'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 - 1.-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); freel bound
- structure: lexical / grammatical
- history: primary/ secondary
- frequency: central/ peripheral

3. Change of meaning. Causes, types and results.
4. Lexical-semantic naming. Polysemy. Lexical-Semantic Structure.
5. Semantic ambiguity. Polysemy versus homonymy.
6. Types of homonyms.
7. 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
2. 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.)

## Causes for change of meaning:

- extranlinguistic 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'] $\rightarrow$ 'the transmission of audio and video signals'.
- contiguity 'nearness in space or time, cause and reason' (metonymy): jaw ['Old French joe 'cheek'] $\rightarrow$ 'mandible' (the bone in the lower jaw of a person or animal нижняя челюсть).


## Results of change of meaning:

- In the denotational component:
restriction, or narrowing: mare 'a horse' $\rightarrow$ 'a female horse'; mete 'any food' $\rightarrow$ meat 'flesh of animal'; girl orig. 'a child’ $\rightarrow$ a female child; a hound orig. 'any dog' $\rightarrow$ 'a dog for hunting';
$\checkmark$ extension, or generalization:
hoover; cook; guy.
- In the connotational meaning:
$\checkmark$ elevation, upgrading: amelioration : minister - orig. 'servant'
$\checkmark$ 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.

## (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
3. 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:

$$
\frac{\text { reason- }+ \text {-able }}{\text { teach- }+ \text {-er }}
$$

1. Morphemic analysis

# Derivational morphemes are identified by a combination of criteria: 

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

# 1. Morphemic analysis <br> <br> Semantic criterion: <br> <br> Semantic criterion: <br> 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; womanly, 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

- donot 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.


## Classification of morphemes:

## In different contexts

a morpheme may also have different forms (allomorphs):
please - pleasure - pleasant;
price - precious;
fuse-fusion;
school-scholar

## 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 Immediate and Ultimate Constituents (the $I C$ and $U C$ 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 $U C$ method is:
The procedure IC analysis goes on until the word is broken into the smallest meaningful parts (ultimate constituents, $U C$ ):
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-graduatestudent),
polyradical prefixal-suffixal (super-headteacher, super-light- mindedness).


## 2. Derivational analysis

## Morphemic analysis: <br> 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 <br> dress-maker <br> polyradical-suffixal words 

## 2. Derivational analysis

## The derivative structure:

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

$$
\text { dress-maker: dress-+(make-+-er), or } \mathbf{n}+(\mathrm{v}+-\mathrm{er})
$$

2. Derivational analysis

## The morphological structure:

## unmanly discouragement

## prefixal-radical-suffixal words

2. Derivational analysis

The derivative structure:
unmanly

$$
u n-+(\text { man }+-l y) \Longrightarrow A d j
$$

## discouragement

$$
(\text { dis-+courage })+-m e n t ~ N
$$

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.
4) 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 hlue-eyed or second rate in second-rateness)
4) 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:

$$
\text { pref }+\mathbf{a d j} \rightarrow \mathbf{A d j} \quad(\mathbf{a d j}+\mathbf{n})+\text {-ed } \rightarrow \mathbf{A d j}
$$

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

$$
\text { pref }+\operatorname{adj} \quad(\mathbf{a d j}+\mathbf{n})+\text { suf }
$$

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

$$
r e_{-}+\mathbf{v} \rightarrow \mathbf{V} \quad \text { or pref }+ \text { read } \rightarrow \mathbf{V}
$$

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 $-\mathbf{v}+$-er $\rightarrow \mathbf{N}$; to snow $-\mathbf{n}+$ conversion $\rightarrow \mathbf{V}$, and student $(\mathbf{v}+$-ent $\rightarrow \mathbf{N})$.

2. Derivational analysis

## Degrees of derivation:

- derivatives of the first degree of derivation: reader $(\mathbf{v}+-e r \rightarrow \mathbf{N})$; reading $(\mathrm{v}+-\mathrm{ing} \rightarrow \mathrm{N})$; readable $(\mathbf{v}+-a b l e \rightarrow \mathbf{A d j})$; reread (prf-+v $\rightarrow \mathbf{V}$ );
- derivatives of the second degree of derivation: unpredictable un-+(v+-able) $\rightarrow$ Adj;
- derivatives of the third degree of derivation: aircraft-carrier $(\mathbf{n}+\mathbf{n})+(\mathrm{v}+-\mathbf{e r}) \rightarrow \mathbf{N}$.

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:

$\checkmark$ back-formation,
ح shortening,
$\checkmark$ blending,

- extension of proper names, and some others.

Lecture 6-7. Major and minor ways ot 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, expresident, 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

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { suffix [from L. sub-'under' }+ \text { fix 'to attach'] } \\
& \text { from } 130 \text { to } 64 \text { suffixes in English }
\end{aligned}
$$

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, $n, v, a d v$; 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 |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| com'pact | 'compact |
| trans'port | 'transport |
| im'port | 'import |
| in'sult | 'insult |
| re'cord | 'record |
| pro'ject | 'project |
| pro'gress, | 'progress |
| prod'uce | 'produce |
| pro'test | 'protest |

- 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. $\mathbf{n}+\mathrm{n} \rightarrow \mathbf{N}$ (ice-cream) and
2. adj+n $\rightarrow \mathbf{N}$ (software, a blackboard, a red-breast);
3. $(\mathrm{n}+\mathrm{adj} \rightarrow \mathrm{Adj}):($ 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');
$\checkmark$ both initial and final: flue (short for 'inFLUEnza', fridge (short for 'reFRIDGErator);
$\checkmark$ 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', Iaser 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 BaluchisTAN);
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 'BReakfast and
IUNCH', smog for 'SMoke + fOG',
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.

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

## Paradigmatic relations of lexical units:

1. The relations of inclusion:
2. hierarchical relations (hyponymy)
3. serial relations and
4. Meronymy (part-whole relations).
5. The relations of partial compatibility:
6. synonymy,
7. antonymy and
8. distant compatibility.
9. Major types of semantic relations of lexical units

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


Quasi-hyponymy: cutlery : knife, fork and spoon

## Meronymy, or meronymic relations ( $\mathbf{X}$ is part of $\mathbf{Y} ; \mathbf{Y}$ has $\mathbf{X}$ ):

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { body } \\
\Delta \\
\text { arm } \\
\Delta \\
\text { hand } \\
\Delta \\
\text { finger, etc. }
\end{gathered}
$$

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.

## 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.

Free! amem
Webster's Third New International Dictionary 450,000 entries

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

- the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary by A.S. Hornby (f.1942)
- The Lonaman Dictionary of Contemporary Enalish (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 Enalish Dictionary for Advanced Learners, 2002
- Merriam-Webster's Advanced Learner's English Dictionary, 2008

