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:

- **I two-faceted** (двусторонние), i.e., have meaning and form, and
- **П 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

<u>All living beings</u> <u>categorize</u>, 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 <u>only</u> 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 <u>arbitrary</u>: 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 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) com 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*).

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.).

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 'буκ' (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*"]

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.

ETYMOLOGY –

the study of the **origin of words** and the way in which their meanings have changed throughout history

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



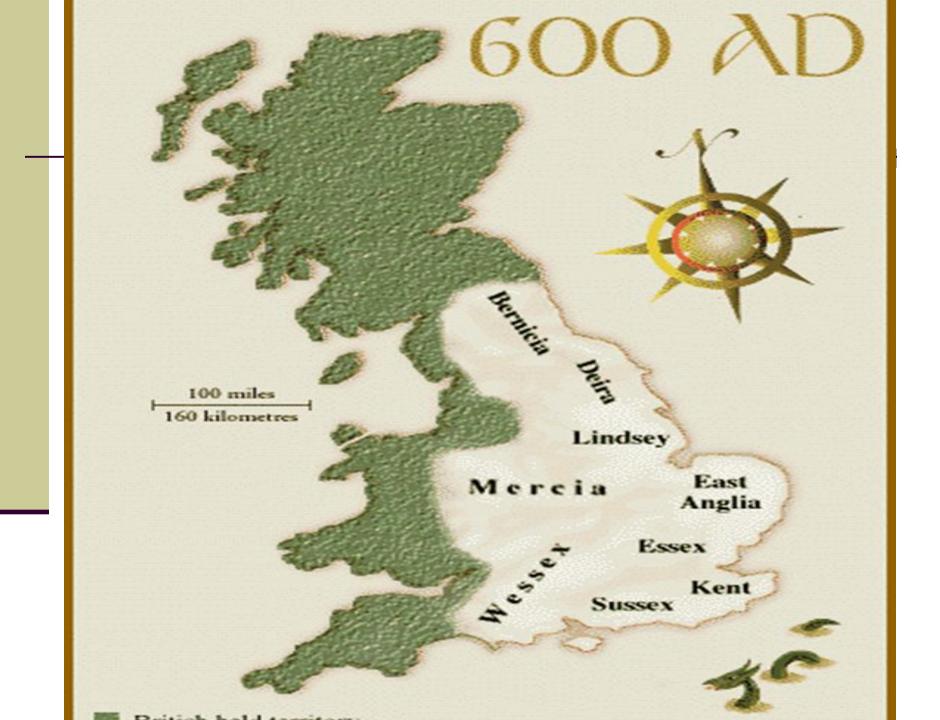
The *Dying Gaul*, a Roman marble copy of a <u>Hellenistic</u> work of the late 3rd century BC <u>Capitoline Museums</u>, Rome



The end of the Roman rule

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





<u>Native words in English (Englisck by 7th century)</u>

I. Anglo-Saxon words:

- <u>Common Indo-European</u>roots (father, mother, brother, son, daughter, birch, cat, cold, one, two, three, etc.).
- <u>Common Germanic</u> 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.);

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.).

<u>The main waves of later borrowings in</u> <u>English</u>

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

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.)



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 [sɑː(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 кавказскийinvalid is not a full equivalent to инвалидpublic is not only публичный (cf.: public house)policy is not only политикаconductor is not only кондукторcream 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:
 - Ostensive approach.
 - Ideational approach.

 - 1) 2) 3) 4) 5) 6) 7) Behaviouristic approach. Semiotic (Referential) approach.
 - Structural approach.
 - Functional approach.
 - 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:

- 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:

- <u>similarity</u> (metaphor):
 broadcast ['to cast seeds out'] → 'the transmission of audio and video signals'.
- <u>contiguity</u> '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:

foot1) лодыжка, ступняступня1) foot2) фут (единица измерения длины)3) подножие горы4) 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)

<u>Morphological naming is naming of a concept by</u> 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

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: <u>reason</u>- + -<u>able</u> <u>teach</u>- + -<u>er</u>

Derivational morphemes are identified by a combination of criteria:

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

Morphemic analysis <u>Semantic criterion:</u> A morpheme should have its own meaning.

Types of meaning in derivational morphemes:

<u>Like words:</u>

• 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 <u>part-of-speech</u> <u>meaning (govern-ment, teach-er)</u>.

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.

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 – pleas<u>ure</u> – pleas<u>ant</u>; 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.

Morphemic analysis:

How many meaningful constituents are there in the word?

Procedure of morphemic analysis:

The method of Immediate and Ultimate Constituents (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*.

Types of word-segmentability:

- 1. <u>Complete</u> segmentation into morphemes (*free* or *bound*) does not cause any doubt for structural or semantic reason: *teach-er*; *stud-ent*, and *nat-ive*.
- 2. <u>Conditional</u> 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. <u>Defective</u> 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, superlight-mindedness).

Morphemic analysis:

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

Derivational analysis: How is the word derived?

The morphological structure:



dress-maker

polyradical-suffixal words

The derivative structure:

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

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

The morphological structure:

unmanly discouragement

prefixal-radical-suffixal words

The derivative structure: unmanly $un-+(man+-ly) \longrightarrow Adj$

discouragement (dis-+courage)+-ment ____N

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 *simpl*e morphological stem as *father* in the verb *to father*;

-- a *derived* morphological stem as <u>computer</u>- in the word computerize;

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

This is the most numerous class of bases.

 bases that coincide with word-forms as the base <u>known</u> in unknown or <u>dancing</u> in a dancing- girl;

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

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 \rightarrow Adj (adj + n) + -ed \rightarrow 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:

 $re-+v \rightarrow V$ or $pref + read \rightarrow V$.

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* \rightarrow N; *to snow* – n + conversion \rightarrow V, and *student* (v+-*ent* \rightarrow N).

Degrees of derivation:

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

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 (un**employment, **un**dress, **in**correct, **in**equality, **dis**loyal, **dis**connect, **a**moral, **non**-scientific, **anti**freeze, **de**centralize);
- 2. sequence and order in time (pre-war, post-war, foresee, expresident, co-exist);
- 3. **space location (***inter-continental, trans-Atlantic, subway, super*structure);
- 4. repetition (reassert, rewrite, anabaptize 'to baptize again');
- 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



<u>Conversion</u> -- 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	Ν
com´pact	<i>´compact</i>
trans´port	<i>´transport</i>
im´port	<i>ímport</i>
in´sult	<i>´insult</i>
re´cord	<i>record</i>
pro´ject	<i>´project</i>
pro´gress,	´progress
prod´uce	<i>´produce</i>
pro´test	´protest
to re´cruit – a re´cruit	

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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.

Word compounding (word composition)

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)

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

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) (*P*unjab, 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 '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.
- 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.

5. Phraseological units. Classifications

Semantic classification of phraseological units by Acad. <u>V.V. Vinogradov:</u>

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

- phraseological <u>combinations</u> (<u>фразеологические</u> <u>сочетания</u>: to meet the demand/ necessity/requirement; a bosom friend);
- phraseological <u>unities</u> (<u>фразеологические</u> <u>единства</u>: to look a gift horse in the mouth);
- •phraseological
 <u>fusions</u> (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:

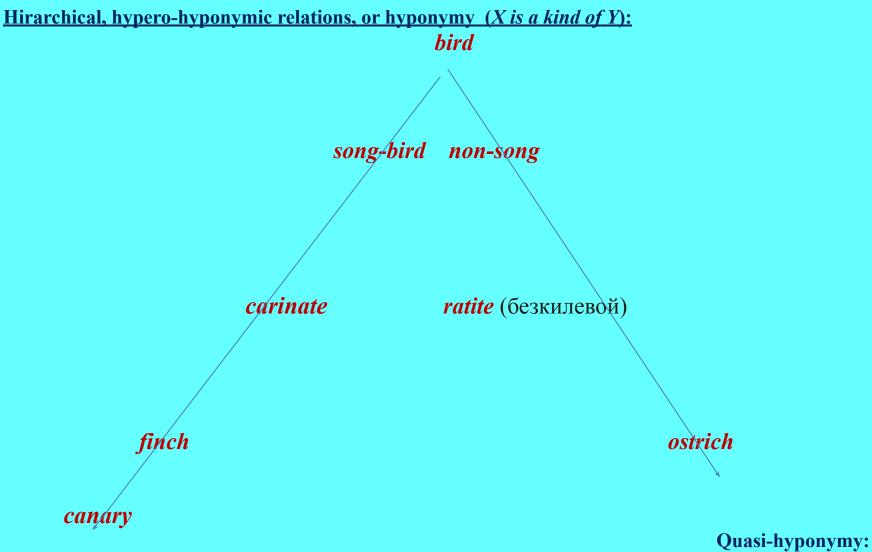
1. The relations of <u>inclusion:</u>

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

2. The relations of partial <u>compatibility:</u>

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

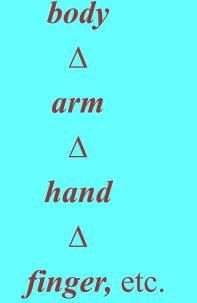
2. Major types of semantic relations of lexical units



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):



Quasi-meronymy:

France – Europe (*France – 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

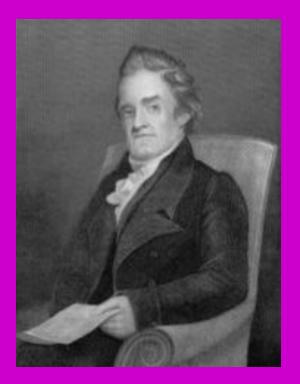
AE: 'covering of the street made of asphalt, stones or some other material'.

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



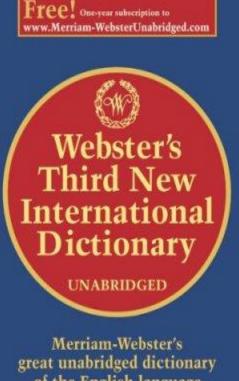
Samuel Johnson (<u>1709</u> –<u>1784</u>), often referred to simply as Dr Johnson.

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



Noah Webster (<u>1758</u> – <u>1843</u>)

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



Webster's Third New International Dictionary 450,000 entries

of the English language

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

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