English Lexicology

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Recommended Readings

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Lipka, Leonard. **Outline of English Lexicology. – Tubingen, Verlag: Max Niemeyer, 1992.**

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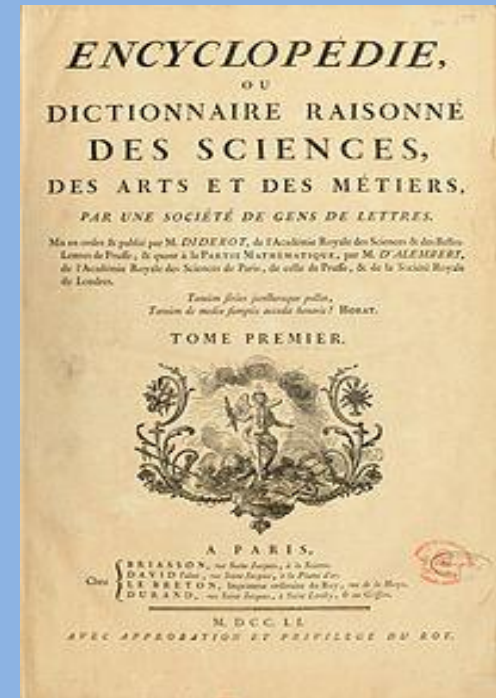
Lecture 1. Introduction to ME Lexicology

Plan

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

Lexicology was first mentioned by **Denis Diderot** and **Jean Le Rond D'Alembert** in **1765** in their *French encyclopedia.*

The term '**lexicology**' comes from two Greek words — *lexicos* 'relating to a word' and *logos* 'learning'.

The object of English lexicology is **lexicon,** or word-stock, or vocabulary in modern English.

Three major understandings of the term '*lexicon*':

- lexicographic,
- lexicological and
- cognitive.

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.

Lexical units :

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

4) **a lexical-semantic variant of a lexical unit?**

word vs. lexeme

Orthographic, morphological, conceptual definitions of **a word**.

run, *runs*, *ran* and *running* **are forms of the same lexeme**, conventionally written as a **lemma** RUN.

"**A lexeme** is a unit of lexical meaning, which exists regardless *of any inflectional endings it may have* or *the number of words it may contain.*

Thus, *fibrillate, rain cats and dogs*, and *come in* are all lexemes, as are *elephant, jog, cholesterol, happiness, put up with, face the music,* and hundreds of thousands of other meaningful items in English.

The *headwords* in a dictionary are all *lexemes.*"

(David Crystal, *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language*, 2nd ed. Cambridge University Press, 2003)

Lexicon is formed by both:

- *lexical units* and
- *rules* forming and organizing them.

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.*)

- *Ранен в руку*

- wounded in the hand

white green yellow grey
black red yellow blue brown purple
green yellow green orange
pink

<---->
Dani/Welsh

<---------->
Tiv

<------------------------------->
Navajo/Hununoo

<-->
English/Hebrew

The universal colour scale, according to Berlin and Kay

Vision in the retina depends on **rod cells**, which are sensitive to *dark* versus *light*, and on **three types of cone cells**, which are sensitive to **red, green** and **blue**. The first five colour terms on the scale are then hardly surprisingly *black*, *white*, *red*, *green*, *blue*.

Dani speakers with **a two term colour system** recognised the same focal colours as English speakers with **an eleven term system**.

Three-year-old American children, whose colour system is not yet complete, preferred *focal colours* to the others.

Factors contributing to cross-language vocabulary differences:

examples

1. Language communities may <u>choose</u> <u>different concepts</u> for naming.

(cf.: a *knuckle, a caboose, challenging, demanding, rewarding* in English

and the lack of their lexical equivalents in Russian, and vice versa: *сходить в баню, попариться веником, собрать сыроежек, малосольные огурцы = freshly salted?*)

Factors contributing to cross-language vocabulary differences:

examples

2. The boundaries of named categories and their *prototypes* are *subjective* and *arbitrary*

(cf.: ***пальцы*** *vs.* ***fingers, thumbs*** and ***toes***) and their **prototypes** (cf.: *house* *vs.* ***дом;***

Translate:

- ***Rivers are frozen,***
- ***the flowers are frosted,***
- ***I am freezing.***

4. UNIVERSAL WAYS OF NAMING

бинтуронг,

- **похожий на гибрид *медведя* (по манере передвижения по земле) и *кота* (сходство — в строении тела).**

- меньше метра в длину (от 61 до 96 см), весит от 9 до 14 кг (в отдельных случаях — до 20 кг). живет на деревьях и гуляет по ночам. Чаще всего ест фрукты, не брезгует насекомыми и даже рыбой.

- https://news.tut.by/culture/611343.html

Four major universal ways of naming:

1. **by borrowing from another language;**

2. **by secondary use of the existing name (by lexical-semantic means);**

3. **by a new word derivation (by morphological means);**

4. **by lexicalization of a free word-combination (by syntactic means).**

Factors contributing to cross-language vocabulary differences:

examples

- **3. Differences in the technique of naming**

- *foot* – подножие;
- *humming-bird* – колибри;
- *computer* – компьютер;
- *afford* – быть в состоянии   позволить себе.

5. Motivation and demotivation

Motivation:

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

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

Motivation:

The relation in meaning and / or form of one name to another more simple name
is called **motivation.**

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

Ferris wheel – ????????
nobleman – ????????
prairie dog – ????????
tensometer – ????????

5. Motivation and demotivation

- *tensometer - тензометр*;
- *prairie dog – луговая собачка*

- Though it may be misleading, motivation of a name usually helps to 'visualize' and better understand its meaning, and finally to remember the name better.

5. Motivation and demotivation

<u>Three types of motivation</u>:

1. **phonetic motivation** (*tit, owl*, *a cuckoo, buzz, clatter, crash, click, giggle, hum, titter, boom, sputter, gargle, chirp, clap, bang, gulp, whine, growl, mutter, 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:

blackboard, cupboard; cranberry; breakfast; pocket; hamlet; hornbeam 'граб'

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]

Folk motivation:

meerkat (n.)

5. Motivation and demotivation

Folk motivation:

meerkat (n.) late 15c., "monkey," from Dutch *meerkat* "monkey" (related to Old High German *mericazza*), apparently from *meer* "lake" + *kat* "cat."

But compare Hindi *markat*, Sanskrit *markata* "ape," which might serve as a source of a Teutonic folk-etymology, even though the word was in Germanic before any known direct contact with India. First applied to the small South African mammals in 1801.

5. Motivation and demotivation

Folk motivation:

impale

5. Motivation and demotivation

Folk motivation:

impale - v

to pierce or transfix with a sharp instrument :

his head was impaled on a pike and exhibited for all to see

[Origin: mid 16th cent. (in the sense 'enclose with *stakes* or *pales*'): from French *empaler* or medieval Latin *impalare*, from Latin in- 'in' + palus 'a stake']

Factors contributing to cross-language vocabulary differences:

examples

- **4. Motivation vs. demotivation**

fruit drink vs. *морс;*

computer vs. *компьютер;*

pavilion; pergola, belvedere vs. беседка

pillow vs. *подушка*

Factors contributing to cross-language vocabulary differences:

examples

- **4. The chosen motivating feature**

- *Ferris wheel* vs. **колесо обозрения**;
- *lightning-rod vs. громоотвод;*
- *thunder storm* vs. **гроза**;
- *public administrator* vs. **специалист в области государственного управления**;
- *public administration* vs. **государственное управление**

Summary:

1. There are <u>four universal ways</u> of lexical naming in human languages:

- *by borrowing;*
- *by creating a new name:*
  - *by new word derivation;*
  - *by secondary use of the existing name, and*
  - *by combining words and lexicalizing them.*

2. When a new name is created, it is *motivated,* and the name tends to keep this motivation as long as possible.

3. The number and character of names in different languages is different due to differences in:

- categorization (*the choice of categories for naming, their prototypes and semantic boundaries*) and
- peculiarities of naming processes (*the choice of the main motivating feature and the way of naming*).

Lecture 2

<u>**NAMING BY BORROWING**</u>

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**.

Map Gallia Tribes Towns (Gaul)

Celtic peoples

Celtic dagger found in Britain.

Nude Celtic warrior

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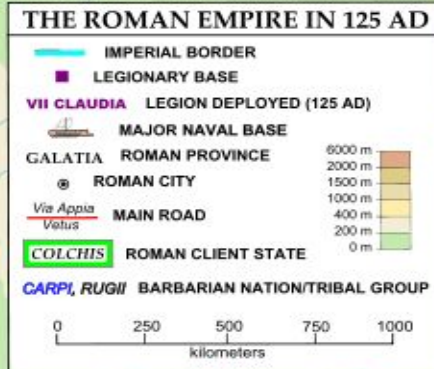of the late 3rd century BC Capitoline Museums, Rome

In 55BC - I came - I saw - I went away.
In 54BC - I came - I stayed a few days - I went back across the channel.

THE ROMAN EMPIRE IN 125 AD

Legend:
- ⎯⎯ IMPERIAL BORDER
- ■ LEGIONARY BASE
- *VII CLAUDIA* LEGION DEPLOYED (125 AD)
- ⛵ MAJOR NAVAL BASE
- GALATIA ROMAN PROVINCE
- ⊙ ROMAN CITY
- *Via Appia Vetus* MAIN ROAD
- COLCHIS ROMAN CLIENT STATE
- *CARPI, RUGII* BARBARIAN NATION/TRIBAL GROUP

Elevation scale: 6000 m / 2000 m / 1500 m / 1000 m / 400 m / 200 m / 0 m

Scale: 0 — 250 — 500 — 750 — 1000 kilometers

PROBABLE BARBARIAN LINGUISTIC GROUPS:
- GERMANIC
- BALTO-SLAVIC
- DACIAN
- IRANIC
- FINNO-UGRIC
- CELTIC
- HAMITO-SEMITIC

Au GOLD DEPOSITS
Ag SILVER DEPOSITS

1. ALPES GRAIAE
2. ALPES COTTIAE
3. ALPES MARITIMAE
4. GERMANIA INFERIOR

Seas and regions:
Oceanus Germanicus, Oceanus, Mare Suebicum, Mare Hibericum, MARE INTERNUM, Mare Tyrrhenum, Mare Hadriaticum, Mare Ionium, Mare Aegaeum, Mare Libycum, Pontus Euxinus, Syrtis Major, Maeotis Palus

Barbarian nations/tribes:
SITONES?, FENNI?, HIBERNI, CALEDONII, SUIONES, TEUTONES, ANGLII, HERULI, SAXONES, FRISII, CHAUCI, CHAMAVI, CHERUSCI, LANGOBARDI, RUGII, GEPIDAE, GOTHONES, VENEDI, AESTII, SUEBI, HERMUNDURI, MARCOMANNI, QUADI, BURI, NAHARVALI, LUGII (VANDILII), BURGUNDIONES, TENCTERI, CHATTI, ANTES?, SARMATAE, AORSI, SCYTHAE, BASTARNAE, IAZYGES, ROXOLANI, PEUCINI, CARPI, DACI, COTINI, SIRACI, ALANI, MAEOTAE, MAURI, GAETULI, MUSULAMII, GARAMANTES, ARABES NABATAEI

Provinces / regions:
BRITANNIA, LUGDUNENSIS, BELGICA, GERMANIA SUPERIOR, GERMANIA INFERIOR, AQUITANIA, NARBONENSIS, LUSITANIA, TARRACONENSIS, BAETICA, MAURETANIA TINGITANA, MAURETANIA CAESARIENSIS, AFRICA PROCONSULARIS, CYRENAICA ET CRETA, ITALIA, CORSICA, SARDINIA, SICILIA, RAETIA, NORICUM, PANNONIA SUPERIOR, PANNONIA INFERIOR, DALMATIA, DACIA, MOESIA SUPERIOR, MOESIA INFERIOR, MACEDONIA, EPIRUS, THRACIA, ACHAIA, BITHYNIA ET PONTUS, ASIA, GALATIA, CAPPADOCIA, LYCIA ET PAMPHILIA, CILICIA, CYPRUS, SYRIA, IUDAEA, ARABIA PETRAEA, AEGYPTUS, ARMENIA, REGNUM PARTHICUM, REGNUM BOSPORI, COLCHIS, BASILEI

Cities and legionary bases:
EBORACUM, DEVA VI VICTRIX, XX VALERIA, ISCA SILURUM, II AUGUSTA, ISCA DUMNONIORUM, LONDINIUM, GESORIACUM, NOVIOMAGUS, CASTRA VETERA IX HISPANA, XXX ULPIA, BONNA I MINERVIA, MOGONTIACUM, XXII PRIMIGENIA, ARGENTORATE VIII AUGUSTA, DUROCORTORUM, LUTETIA, PORTUS NAMNETUS, AUGUSTODUNUM, BURDIGALA, BRIGANTIUM, CASTRA LEGIONIS VII GEMINA, TOLOSA, CAESARAUGUSTA, NARBO, NEMAUSUS, MASSILIA, TARRACO, TOLETUM, AUGUSTA EMERITA, CORDUBA, GADES, NOVA CARTHAGO, VALENTIA, TINGIS, LIXUS, VOLUBILIS, CAESAREA, SALDAE, CIRTA, CARTHAGO, LAMBAESIS III AUGUSTA, THEVESTIS, THAPSUS, TACAPE, LEPTIS MAGNA, CYRENE, GORTYNA, LUGDUNUM, PLACENTIA, GENUA, PISAE, ARIMINUM, RAVENNA, AQUILEIA, ROMA, NEAPOLIS, BRUNDISIUM, CARALIS, SYRACUSAE, PANORMUS, RHEGIUM, VINDOBONA, CARNUNTUM XIV GEMINA, VINDOBONA X GEMINA, AUGUSTA VINDELICORUM, VIRUNUM, BRIGETIO, AQUINCUM II ADIUTRIX, I ADIUTRIX, APULUM XIII GEMINA, NAPOCA, SINGIDUNUM, VIMINACIUM IV FLAVIA FELIX, SIRMIUM, SALONA, NAISSUS, DUROSTORUM XI CLAUDIA, NOVAE I ITALICA, TROESMIS V MACEDONICA, TOMIS, DYRRACHIUM, THESSALONICA, PERINTHUS, BYZANTIUM, NICOMEDIA, PERGAMUM, EPHESUS, ATTALIA, ATHENAE, CORINTHUS, PATRAE, TRAPEZUS, SINOPE, ANCYRA, SATALA XV APOLLINARIS, MELITENE XII FULMINATA, SAMOSATA XVI FLAVIA FIRMA, ZEUGMA IV SCYTHICA, TARSUS, ANTIOCHIA, PALMYRA, RAPHANA III GALLICA VI FERRATA, BOSTRA III CYRENAICA, GERASA, JERUSALEM X FRETENSIS, PETRA, ALEXANDRIA II TRAIANA XXII DEIOTARIANA, MEMPHIS, HERACLEOPOLIS, CHERSONNESOS, TANAIS, PHASIS, PAPHUS

Main roads: Via Appia, Via Aquitania, Via Agrippa, Via Domitia, Via Hercula, Via Aurelia, Via Aemilia, Via Flaminia, Via Postumia, Via Claudia Augusta, Via Iulia, Via Popilia, Via Appia Nova, Via Appia Vetus, Via Egnatia, Via Militaris, Via Traiana Nova, Via Maris

Roman Roads in Britain

Hadrians Wall

Boudica

- (d. AD 60 or 61)

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 Saxons were invited by Vortigern to assist in fighting the Picts and Irish

Vortigern

The English language arrived in Britain
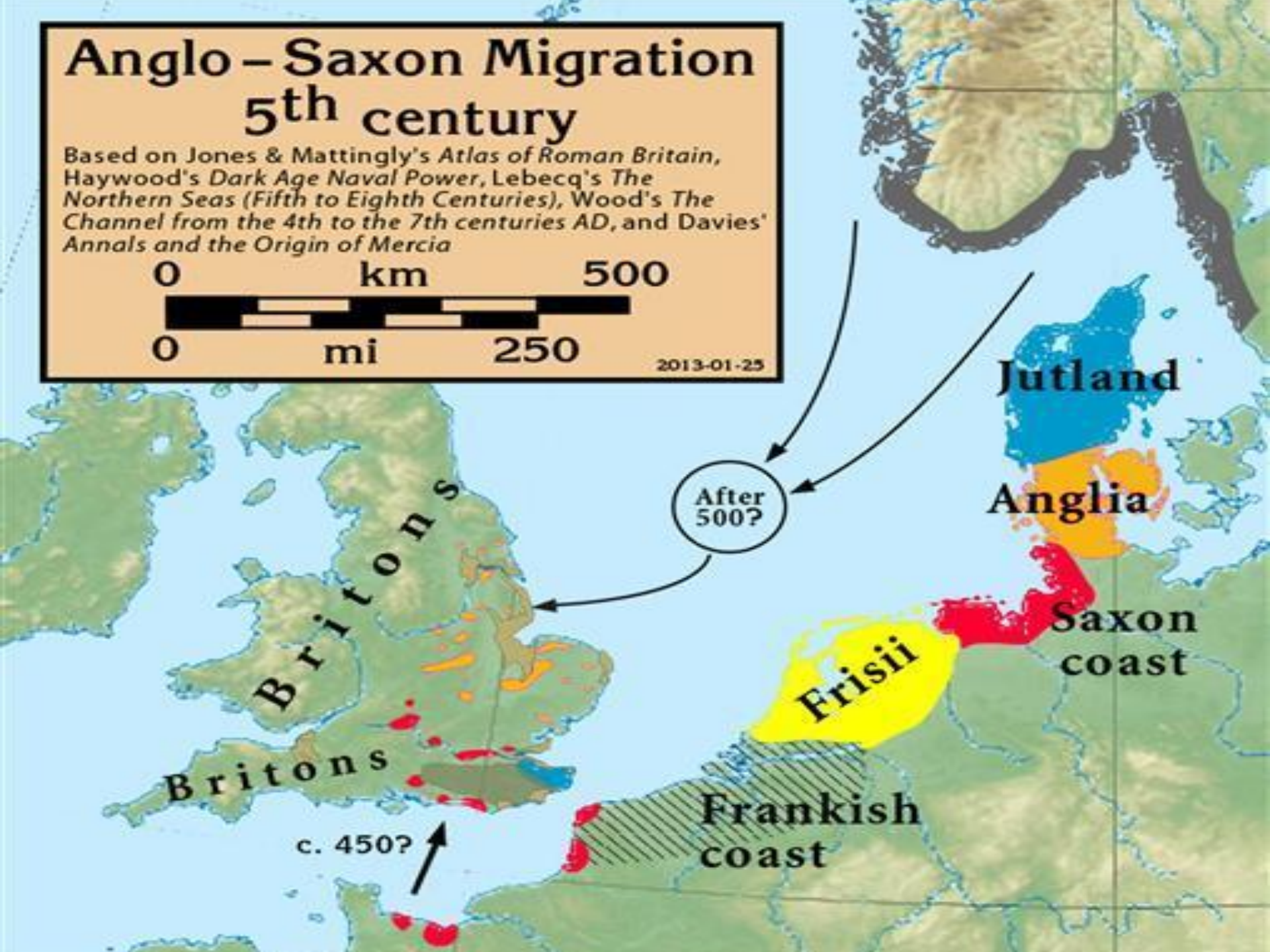# on the point of a Germanic sword.

Saxon Expansion

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*

0   km   500

0   mi   250

2013-01-25

Jutland

Anglia

Saxon coast

Frisii

Frankish coast

Britons

Britons

After 500?

c. 450?

Saxon Expansion

Ohthere sæde his hlaforde, Ælfrede cyninge, þæt he ealra Norðmonna norþmest bude.

Othere said to his lord, King Alfred, that he lived northernmost of all the Northmen (or Norwegians).

http://www.icaltefl.com/old-english-vs-modern-english

Lecture 2. Borrowing

Native words in English (Englisck 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** (*bog, glen, whiskey, bug, 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* (***Win****chester,* ***Ciren****chester,* ***Clou****chester,* ***Salis****bury,* ***Lich****field,* ***Ik****ley,* etc.) or the second elements in *many villages* (-***cumb*** meaning 'deep valley' still survives in *Dun****combe*** or *Winch****combe***);

■ **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**

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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)

Lecture 2. Borrowing

VIKING VOYAGE

Iceland ③

Homelands ①

Western Isles ②

⑦ Land of Legend

Danelaw

NPG D9368

DOMINIONS OF CNUT

DOMINIONS OF CNUT
(1014-1035)
Routes of Northmen and Danes
since the ninth century
Scale 1:20000000
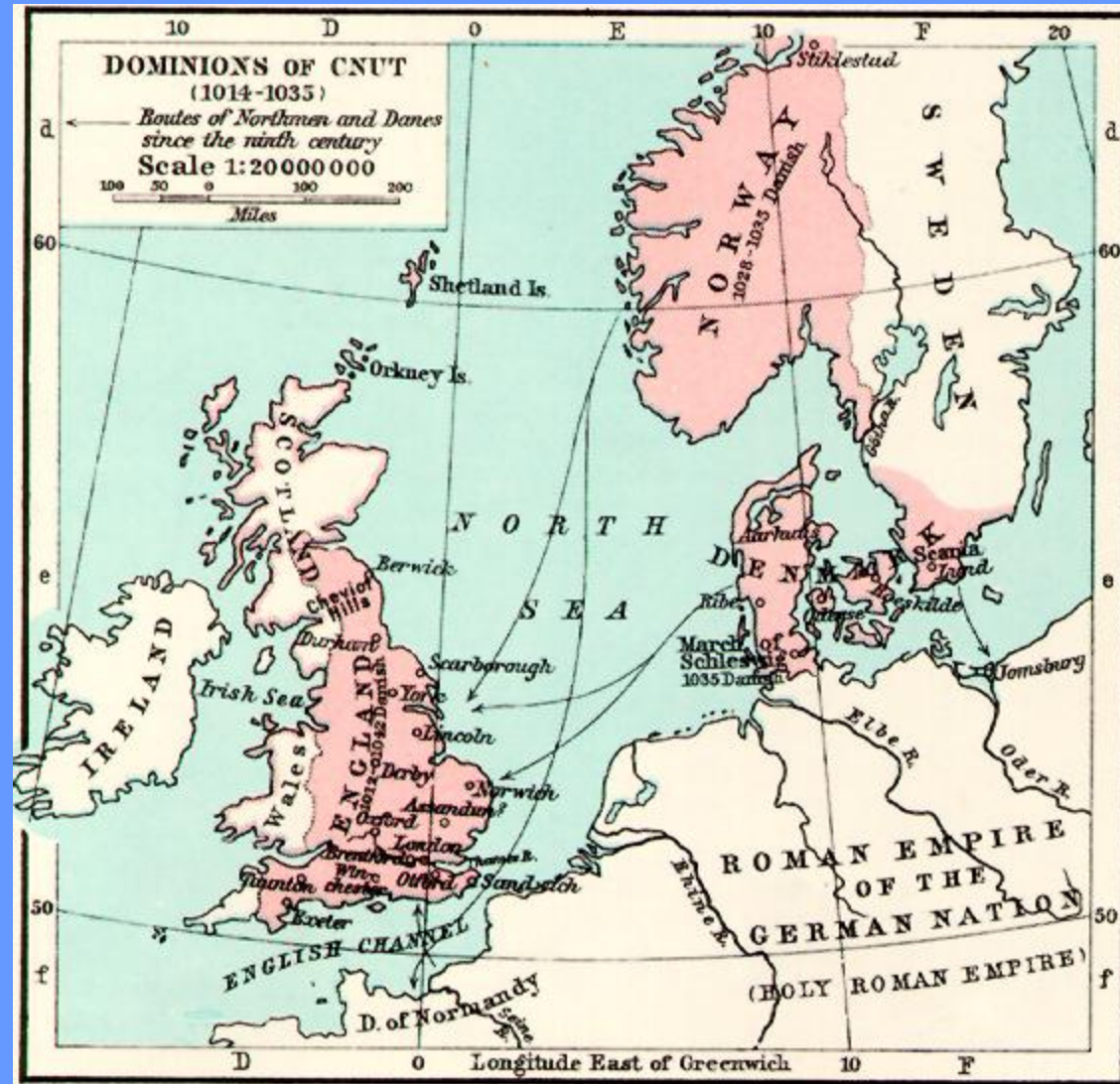
Old Norse Words

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.).

King Edward the Confessor, died on on 5 January 1066.

Westminster Abbey

William I (the Conqueror)

Hastings 1066

Possessions of William I

ENGLAND and the FRENCH POSSESSIONS of WILLIAM I. 1087
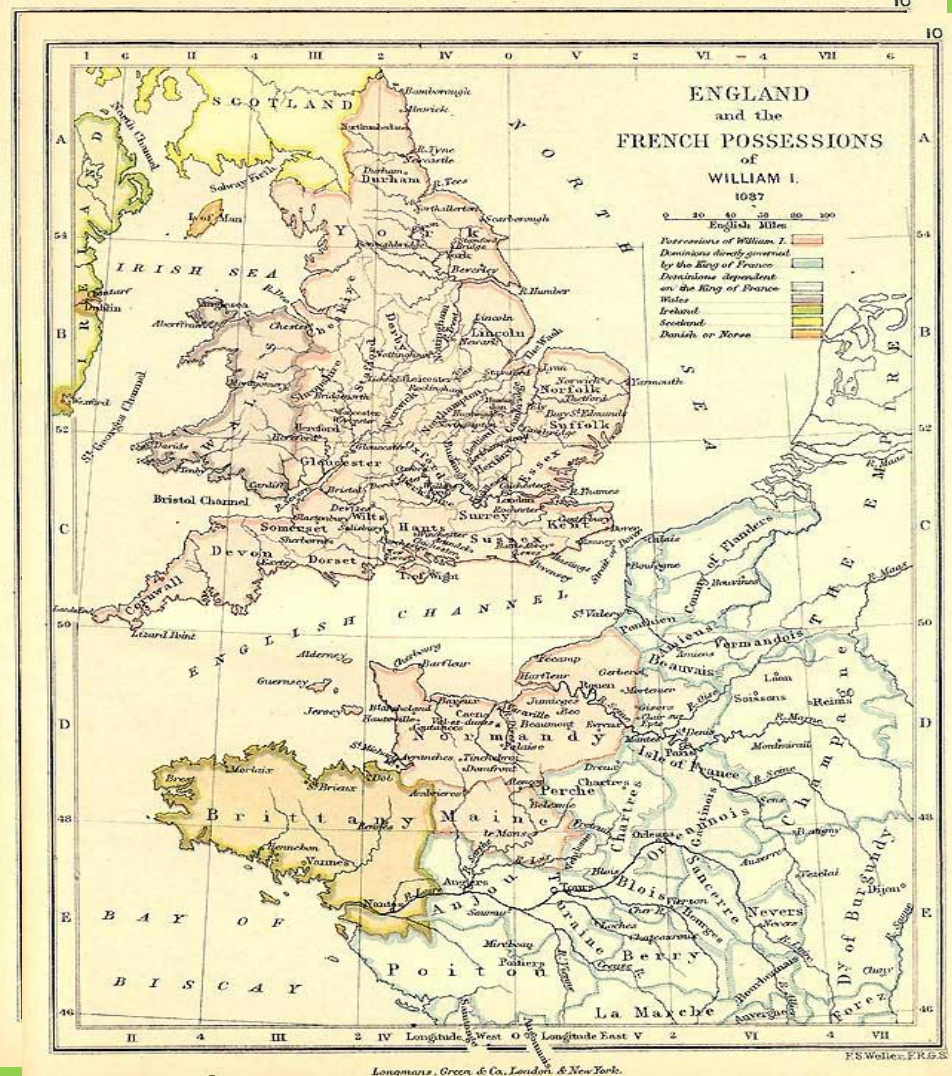
French borrowings

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, etc.).

NATIVE LEXICAL UNITS	BORROWED LEXICAL UNITS
1. Anglo-Saxon words: a) Indo-Europ. element b) Common-Germanic element c) continental borrowings	1. from Latin and Greek a) 7th c. A.D. due to Christianity; b) during Renaissance (15-17th c.)
2. Celtic borrowings (5-6th c. A.D.)	2. from Old Norse due to the Danish Invasion (8 –11th c.)
3. Latin borrowings via Celtic (due to the Roman Invasion 55-56 B.C. – the 5th century)	3. from French a) due to the Norman conquest (11-13th c.) b) during Renaissance (15-17th c.)
4. English proper element not traced to any other language (not earlier than 5th c. A.D)	4. from other modern languages due to cultural and economic contacts
5. Words created in English later on the basis of native elements	5. Words created in English later on the basis of borrowed elements

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.*

We shall fight on the beaches;

we shall fight on the landing grounds;

we shall fight in the fields and in the streets;

we shall fight in the hills;

we shall never surrender!

(*Winston Churchill*)

Loans and native words relations:

borrowings:

uncle [Old French oncle, from Latin avunculus "mother's brother," literally "little grandfather,"],

 nephew [1250–1300; Middle English neveu < Old French < Latin nepōtem, accusative of nepōs nephew, grandson],

skin, *face*, *take*,

breakfast [Vulgar Latin *disieiunare "to breakfast," from Latin dis- + ieiunare, jejunare "fast"] Old English had *morgenmete* "morning meal."],

vegetable, *fruit*,

money [mid-13c., "coinage, metal currency," from Old French monoie "money, coin, currency; change" (Modern French monnaie), from Latin moneta "place for coining money, mint]; *number*,

war [late Old English (c.1050), wyrre, werre, from Old North French *werre* "war" (Modern French guerre)], **touch, furniture --**

<u>Assimilation of borrowings:</u>

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

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

but

un+friendly, mis+understand [OE]

Yet -- **HYBRIDS:**

un-+reliable [OE+OFr]

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

false+-hood

love+-able

500 etymological doublets

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'

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.)

belligerence

***belliger**ence* —воинственность

[L. ***belliger***, *bell*um 'war' + *ger*ere 'to wage']

проводить (кампанию) , вести (войну) ; бороться (за что-л.)

*to **wage** a campaign against smoking* — проводить кампанию по борьбе с курением]

entrare – 'to go in'

ariver – 'arrive in/at'

Cretaceous --

Cretaceous -- *late 17th cent.:*

from Latin **cretaceus**

(from **creta** *'chalk'*) + *-ous*

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.**

What is meaning?

Different approaches:

1. *Ostensive approach: what you point at.*

2. *Ideational approach: the idea for the word symbol* (Aristotle distinguished
   objects,
   the **words** that refer to them, and
   the corresponding **experiences in the psyche – ideas for the words,** or
   meanings).

3.*Behaviouristic approach: the situation where there is a reaction to a stimulus.*

4. Semiotic approach:

   a) Referential:

 the relation between an object (referent), its concept and its symbol.

         Peirce,   Ogden, Richards: **Semantic Triangle**

THOUGHT OR REFERENCE

Symbolizes (a causal relation)

Refers to (other causal relations)

SYMBOL

Stands for (an imputed relation)
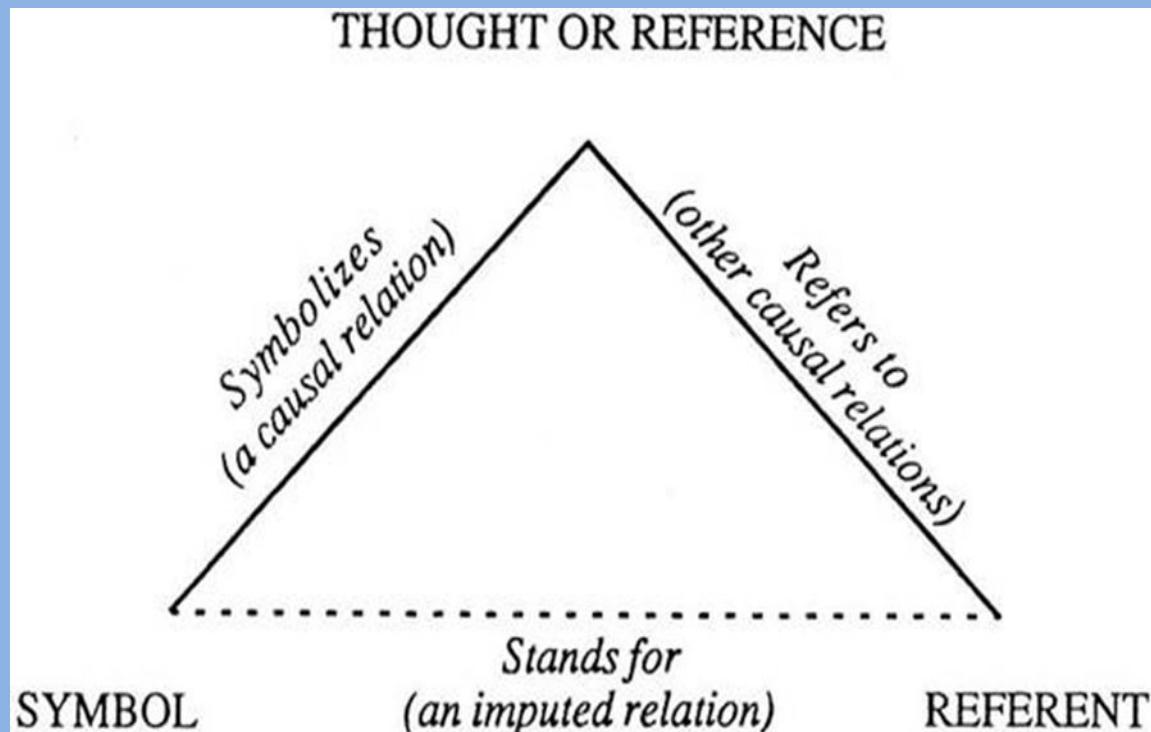
REFERENT

4b) Referential + Behavioristic

Charles Morris's development *of a behavioral theory of signs*:

Claims that **signs (symbols) have three types of relations**:

1.to the concept of the object (**semantics)**,
2.to other symbols (**syntactics)**, and
3.to persons **(pragmatics)**.

Semantics:

Structural approach;

Cognitive approach

Syntactics:

Functional approach

Pragmatics:

Discourse analysis

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 structur**e.

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].

5a. Structural Approach to meaning:

tulip:

a **bulbous spring-flowering** <u>plant</u> **of the** lily family**, with** boldly coloured cup-shaped flowers

plant

lily family

flower

cup-shaped; boldly coloured; bulbous; spring-flowering

5b. Cognitive approach:

Presentation of word meaning in mind: (**designatum** *(profile)* + **frame** *semantic potential, into which the word is embedded (base))*

J. Pustejovsky's 4-level lexical conceptual paradigm (LCP):

- QUALIA STR-RE: physical properties of an entity;
- EVENT STR-RE: (process, state, event);
- ARGUMENT STR-RE : (other entities, semantic arguments);
- LEXICAL INHERITANCE STRUCTURE : (how a given LCP relates to
- other LCPs).

Prototype structure:

category with multimodal sensory representations producing typical effects:

<u>*TULIP:*</u> *flower with 6 petals of a great range of colour and variety with subtle, fruity fragrance;*

grow from bulbs, one per 10-60 cm stem with 2 to 6 fleshy strap-shaped leaves;

presented as cut flower arrangement or as a pot flower;.

originated in Turkey; tulip mania in the Netherlands in the 17 century; nowadays grown throughout the world;

+ family resemblance *the elusive tulip glass*

Professor Nikitin's model:
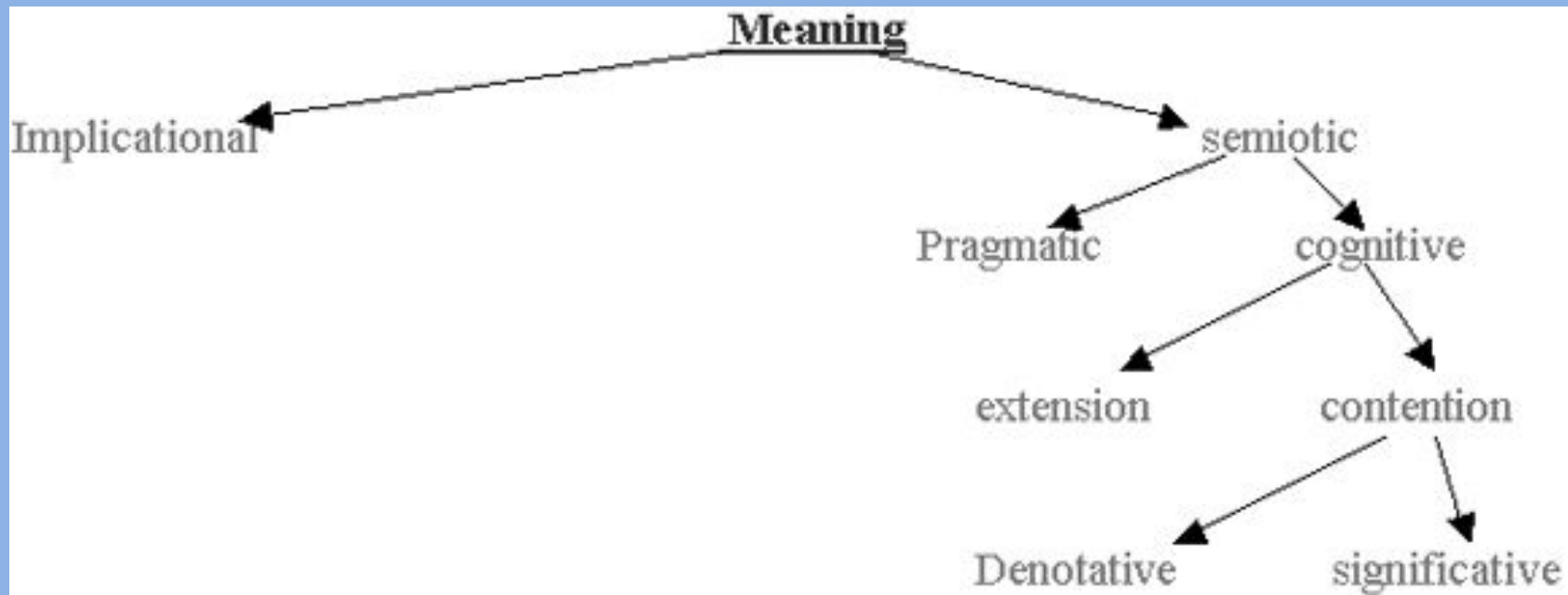
TYPES OF MEANING

Implicational meaning is based on natural linkage of objects in reality.
Winter – cold, snow, frost (implicational meaning) – associations connected with a name.
Implicational meaning is culture bound, territory bound

4 types of implicational meaning
1) Rigid implication (жесткий импликционал)
highly probable features of winter (for Russia – холод, мороз)
2) Strong implication
probable features of winter – frozen rivers
3) Weak implication
these are unlikely features of winter – rain, warm weather
4) Negative implication
features that can never be applied to this referent
green grass, hot weather – not winter

in stylistic it is called oxymoron

Semiotic meaning is arbitrary and conventional, especially established for the sake of communication. No link between the sign and the referent existing in reality
Ex.: winter (December - February); dog

Cognitive meaning represents the information about the world (the referent) **cognitive:**
•extension
•contention

Pragmatic component presents our subjunctive attitude towards the world and its elements (depends on our life experience)

Both of them or only one of them is represented in the structure of lexical meaning.

1) Most words are pragmatically neutral (only cognitive component in the structure of their meaning)
    chair, desk, pen – they are free from expressing subjunctive attitude to the referent.
2) "fascist" – cognitive and pragmatic components
3) sometimes cognitive components are switched off & pragmatic component plays the leading role
    (curse words)

The difference between extension & contention lies in the difference between the contents & the volume of the notion.

Contentional meaning reflects the structure of essential features of the notion.

Extension: a number of denotators to which its name refers: MOTHER - godmother, biological mother, mother-in-law.

Both components are variable.

1) They have got a parrot. This parrot has been with them for a long time. This parrot is a funny creature.

2) How long can a parrot live?

In this two examples the word PARROT changes its extensional.

    1 – a representative of a class (denotative – конкретный)

    2 – a name of a class (significative – усредненный)

the contentional is also different:

2) A bird living in some tropical countries, exotic bird, is able to speak

1) 2 + a concrete bird living with them

   (more features of contentional meaning)

Not all the words have ***extensional meaning.***

Names of properties (признаковые слова)

Verbs, adjectives, adverbs – don't have the extensional meaning, because they are **non-referential.**

(они не могут выступать в репрезантивной функции они могут только описывать то, что уже описано другим именем (существительным)

A name has **a denotative meaning** if it represents a representative of a class.

When it represents the class in general it has **significative meaning.**

1. This is the house that Jack built. (denotative)

2. A good laugh is sunshine in the house - general idea of the house (significative meaning)

All common nouns can represent both a representative of a class & some class in general. They can have either **denotative or significative** meanings.

Proper names can represent only a representative of a class. They can't represent a the class in general. They have no

Some linguists use the term "connotational meaning" instead of the term "pragmatic meaning"

dog

semiotic – (sign) – a domesticated carnivorous mammal that typically has a long snout, an acute sense of smell, non-retractile claws, and   a barking,   howling, or whining voice

           cognitive – an animal kept as a pet used for hunting and guarding
pragmatic – devoted, friend – positive; wicked, bites, evil – negative

implicational   –   1.   rigid   implication: *4   paws,   a   tail,   barks*
               2.   strong   implication: *runs   fast.   Bites*
                     3. weak implication: *can swim*

significative – *a dog is a man's friend*
                  How long can a dog live?
denotative – *I have a dog. This dog lives with me for a long time.*

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.*)

7. Measuring **pragmatic** meaning

the method of semantic referential (Osgood):

- study the reactions of subjects to a number of questions like *'Is it good or bad? Pleasant or unpleasant? Small or large? Wet or dry?'* and register the answers on *a seven point* scale, like:

good   – – – – – – –   **bad,**
pleasant   – – – – – – –   **unpleasant,**
small   – – – – – – –   **large,**
…

try to locate the concept of a word in semantic space.

Pragmatic meaning

good – – – – – – –   **bad,**
useful – – – – – – –   **useless,**
pleasant – – – – – – –   **unpleasant,**

Locate the concept of the word *Lexicology* in your semantic space and register the answers on *a seven point* scale, like:

Is it good or bad?
Useful or useless?
Interesting or uninteresting?
Pleasant or unpleasant?
Easy or difficult?
Long or short?
Cold or warm?

2. Typologies of word meaning

<u>1. Aspect of relation</u> of a word-sign: *denotational (referential)/
connotational (pragmatic)* **– emotive
charge + stylistic reference**;
functional (usage)– *free/ bound:
tulip tree* - вид сев. ам. магнолии

<u>2. Structure:</u> *part-of-speech; grammatical; lexical :
tulip –* <u>*n, sing, C*</u> *- a bulbous spring-flowering plant of the
lily family, with boldly colored cup-shaped flowers*

<u>3. History:</u> *etymological meaning*
tulip [New Latin *tulipa,* from Turkish *tülbent* turban

<u>4. Function:</u> *nominative* / *expressive:
tulip – 1) тюльпан
2.a) замечательный человек; дорогуша (в
обращении): my tulip*

<u>5. Frequency:</u> *Central/ peripheral:
tulip – 1) тюльпан
2) митра епископа*

<u>Causes for change of meaning:</u>

- **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…

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' *(metonymy):*
  jaw ['Old French *joe* 'cheek'] → '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' → 'a female horse';
  mete 'food' → 'meat';
  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:*

  ✔ amelioration : *minister – orig. 'servant'*
  ✔ pejoration: *silly – orig. 'happy'*

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

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.*

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

- The most common 121 nouns and 70 verbs according to the Wordnet dataset have:
  7.8 meanings (LSV) per **noun,** and
  12.0 (LSV) meanings per **verb.**
  (for the verb-form alone of "run" there
  are no fewer than 645 meanings

- the average number of meanings:
  in an *English* word ranges from **3 to 8,**
  in a *Russian* word it ranges from **2 to 5.**

The meanings (senses, lexical-semantic variants of a word - LSVs) of a polysemantic word make up its *semantic structure.*

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

Semantic structure of the word **black:**

1) чёрный
2) тёмный
3) = *Black* темнокожий, чернокожий, негритянский (политкорректное слово в 60-е гг. 20 в.) Afro-American , African-American , Negro - black awareness – *black college - Black is beautiful*
4) черноволосый
5) носящий чёрную или тёмную одежду (о монахах, солдатах СС)
6) без сливок, чёрный (о кофе)
7) мрачный, унылый; безнадёжный; предвещающий недоброе, зловещий *That's a black augury!* — Это дурное предзнаменование! - *things look black*
8) грозовой, обложенный тучами (о небе)
9) злой, сердитый - *black looks - look black*
10) дурной, злой; мерзкий, отвратительный; жестокий, бесчеловечный *I shall never be guilty of such black ingratitude*. — Никогда я не запятнаю себя такой чёрной неблагодарностью.
11) грязный (о руках, белье)
12) связанный с штрейкбрехерством, не поддерживаемый профсоюзами Syn: *blackleg* (в значении прилагательного)
13) нелегальный, чёрный - *black market*

Synchronic approach to the semantic structure of the word:
central /peripheral **(Англо-русский словарь):**

SWEET

1) а) <u>сладкий (о вкусе)</u> Syn: h*oneyed* , honied Ant: *bitter* 1., *sour* 1. б) слащавый, приторный; сентиментальный

2) а) приятный, милый, очаровательный (о внешности) Syn: *agreeable* 1., *delightful*, *charming* б) добрый, милостивый, милосердный *It was sweeter to him to help others than to be happy himself.* — Ему было приятнее помогать другим, чем заботиться о собственном счастье. Syn: amiable , kindly 1., gracious 1., benignant , benign в) ласковый; любимый, милый *She is sweet on him.* — Она в него влюблена. Syn: beloved 1., dear 1.

3) а) сладкозвучный, благозвучный, мелодичный *The sweet voice of a bird.* — Мелодичное пение птички. Syn: musical 1., melodious , harmonious б) исполняемый без импровизаций (особенно о джазовой музыке)

4) душистый, ароматный Syn: fragrant

5) а) свежий, неиспорченный (особенно о мясе) ; не прокисший, неиспорченный (о молоке) *In choosing a ham, ascertain that it is perfectly sweet.* — Выбирая ветчину, удостоверьтесь, что она свежая. б) пресный (о воде) ; несолёный (о масле) *sweet butter* — несолёное масло *sweet milk taken from the cow* — свежее парное молоко (молоко из-под коровы) в) не подверженный коррозии (о металлах) г) плодородный (о почве)

6) лёгкий, удобный в обращении *This engine is more responsive and sweet than its predecessor.* — Эта модель двигателя обладает большим быстродействием и легче в управлении, чем предыдущая.

7) готовый, находящийся в порядке *Everything's sweet again!* — И снова всё в порядке!

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

Synchronic approach to the semantic structure:
central /peripheral **(Collins):**

SWEET

1. Sweet food and drink contains a lot of sugar. *...a mug of sweet tea...* 2. A sweet smell is a pleasant one, for example the smell of a flower. *...the sweet smell of her shampoo...* Ant: foul

3. If you describe something such as air or water as sweet, you mean that it smells or tastes pleasantly fresh and clean. *I gulped a breath of sweet air. ...a stream of sweet water*. Ant: foul

4. A sweet sound is pleasant, smooth, and gentle.*...the sweet sounds o f Mozart*.

5. If you describe something as sweet, you mean that it gives you great pleasure and satisfaction. [WRITTEN] *There are few things quite as sweet as revenge*. Ant: bitter

6. If you describe someone as sweet, you mean that they are pleasant, kind, and gentle towards other people. *How sweet of you to think of me!*

7. If you describe a small person or thing as sweet, you mean that they are attractive in a simple or unsophisticated way. [INFORMAL] *...a sweet little baby girl...* . Syn: cute

8. You can address someone as sweet or my sweet if you are very fond of them. [OLD-FASHIONED] I am so proud of you, my sweet! Syn: darling

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

Diachronic *approach to the semantic structure:*
primary/ secondary

SWEET
1 **:** a) <u>pleasing to the taste</u>

   b) <u>being or inducing the one of the four basic taste sensations</u> — compare <u>bitter</u>,
     <u>salt</u>, <u>sour</u>

   c) *of a beverage* **:** containing a <u>sweetening</u> ingredient **:** not dry

    d) *of wine* **:** retaining a portion of natural sugar

2: *a* **:** <u>pleasing to the mind or feelings</u> **:** <u>agreeable</u>, <u>gratifying</u> —often used as a generalized term of approval <how *sweet* it is>

  b **:** marked by gentle good humor or kindliness <a *sweet* disposition>

  c **:** <u>fragrant</u> <a *sweet* aroma>

  d (1) **:** <u>delicately pleasing to the ear or eye</u> <a *sweet* melody> *(2)* **:** played in a straightforward melodic style <*sweet* jazz>

  f **:** <u>very good or appealing</u> <a *sweet* job offer> <a *sweet* sports car>

3: <u>much loved</u> **:** <u>dear</u>
4: *a* **:** not sour, rancid, decaying, or stale **:** <u>wholesome</u> <*sweet* milk>

  b **:** not salt or salted **:** <u>fresh</u> <*sweet* water> <*sweet* butter>

  c **:** free from excessive acidity —used especially of soil
5**:** <u>skillful</u>, <u>proficient</u> <a *sweet* golf swing>
6—used as an intensive <take your own *sweet* time>

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 …

**Minor /peripheral meanings of correlated words in different languages usually
<u>do not coincide</u>:**

*сумка кенгуру — a kangaroo **poach**,
шумы в сердце — heart **murmurs**,
eye of a needle — ушко иголки,
глухой как **пень** — as deaf as a **post pole**;*

*wet as a **fish** — мокрый как **курица***

Patterned polysemy of lexical units:

Model of polysemy:
animal

1. *some animal* (*cat* — **1.** 'a domesticated animal')

2. *some other animal* (*cat* — **2. '**a species of animals including a tiger, a panther, a lion, a domesticated cat'),

3. *its flesh* (*to eat* **chicken, goose, rabbit**), or **objects made of** *parts of their bodies* (to wear *fox* 'fur-coat made of fox'),

4. *quality of a person* (*cat* – **3**. 'a malicious woman');

5. *an instrument or appliance* (*cat* – **4**.'a strong tackle used to hoist an anchor to the cathead of a ship'),

6. *a sign in the Zodiac* (*Dog* 'either of the constellations Canis Major or Canis Minor').

Homonymy. Types of homonyms.

bay I '**a broad inlet of the sea where the land curves inwards' [late Middle English: from Old French *baie*, from Old Spanish *bahia*, of unknown origin]**

bay II 'a deep howl or growl' [from Old French *abaiier* 'to bark', of imitative origin];
(*Woof, ruff, arf, au au, bow-wow,* and, for small dogs, *yip*)

bay III 'sweet bay a small evergreen Mediterranean laurel, Laurus nobilis, with glossy aromatic leaves, used for flavouring in cooking' [from Old French *baie* 'laurel berry', from Latin *bāca* 'berry'];

bay IV '1) a) a moderate reddish-brown colour 2) an animal of this colour, esp. a horse [Middle English: from Old French *bai*, from Latin *badius*]

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.

Tongue twisters

- *Of all the saws I ever saw, I never saw a saw saw like that saw saws.*

- *A canner exceedingly canny
  One morning remarked to his granny:
  "A canner can can
  Any thing that he can
  But a canner can't can a can, can he?"*

Lecture 5-7. NAMING BY MORPHOLOGICAL MEANS (*WORD-FORMATION/ WORD-DERIVATION IN ENGLISH*)

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

It is the most obvious and prototypical way of naming.

Creation (derivation) of a new word has always been *the most 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* **(only 8 inflectional affixes in English:**

- -s   noun plural
- -'s   noun possessive
- -s   verb present tense third person singular
- - ing   verb present participle/gerund
- -ed   verb simple past tense
- -en   verb past perfect participle
- -er   adjective comparative
- -est   adjective superlative);

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

reason- + *-able*
teach- + *-er*

1. Morphemic analysis

What is a derivational morpheme?

Is *cat-* in *cattle (*cf.: *settle, nettle),* or *-able* in *table (*cf.: *stable, suitable, enable)* a morpheme?

Is there one and the same morpheme in the sequences
price – precious?

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 *pig**let*** and *hors**y***; *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

- **d o n o t 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:

As a sign, a morpheme
may also be *mono*- and *polysemantic*:
ex-president and *writer; Londoner*

It may also have different forms (allomorphs)

1. Morphemic analysis

Variants of forms in morphemes (*allomorphs*):

In different contexts **morphemes may have different phonemic shapes**:
please – pleasure – pleasant;
price – precious;
fuse – fusion;
school – scholar

[Old English **scōl**, *scolu*, via Latin from Greek *skholē'*, reinforced in Middle English by Old French **escole** –
The modern English word might be a Middle English borrowing from French (Old French **escole**r, French écolier).];
number – numerous;
compel – compulsory,
part – partial, etc.

These **differently sounding** parts are recognized (due to
semantic and distributional criteria)
as **morphophonemic variants of the same morphemes,**
and are called *allomorphs*.

Classification of morphemes:

Structural classification:

- **free** (coincide with a word-form, roots are usually free as *friend* in *friend*ship),

- **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** (*phono**logy**, tele**phone**, **tele**gram, **gramo**phone, phono**gram**) that have never existed in the language of borrowing.

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 *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, super-light- 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:

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)**

The morphological structure:

unmanly   *discouragement*

prefixal-radical-suffixal words

The **derivative structure:**

un-+(*man*+*-ly*) ⟶ Adj

(dis-+*courage*)+*-ment* ⟶ *N*

super-light-mindedness?

MA: *super- + light- + mind-+-ed + -ness = N*

DA:

1. *super- + {(light mind) +-ed] + -ness} = N*
2. *{[super- + (light- + mind-)]+-ed} + -ness = N*
3. *(super- + light)- + [mind-+(-ed + -ness)] = N ***
4. *[(super- + light) + (mind- + -ed)] + -ness = 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 <u>father-</u> in the verb *to father,*

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

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

This is the most numerous class of bases.

2) 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-eyed* or **second rate** in   *second-rateness*)

A *derivational base* in contrast to a morphological stem is *monosemantic:*

The derivational base **bed** of a compound word *a flower-bed*

is used here only in one meaning of the polysemantic word (and its morphological stem) *bed :*

'*a flat or level surface as in a plot of ground prepared for plants*' .

2) Derivative affixes (prefixes and suffixes)

The are *highly selective*

to the etymological, phonological, structural-semantic properties of derivational bases:

✔ the suffix **-ance/-ence,** for example, *never* occurs after **s** or **z** (cf.: *distur**b**-**ance*** but: *organi**z**-**ation***);

✔ they say in English **in**secure, **in**convenience but **non-***conformist*, **dis***obedience,* **a***moral,* **un***friendly*;

✔ even though the combining abilities of the adjectival suffix
-ish are vast (it is possible to say, for example, **boyish, bookish**, even **monkeyish** and **sevenish** for cocktails), you cannot say **enemish*.

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

The meaning of a derived word *is usually not a mere sum of meanings* of all the mentioned above constituents (only in some cases it is, as in *doer* 'one that does').

Derived words usually *have an additional idiomatic* component of their own **(word-formation meaning)** that is not observed in either of the constituent components :

   a builder is not just the 'one that builds' but also '*esp. one that contracts to build and supervises building operations'- 'подрядчик';*

   a teacher is not just the 'one that teachers' but *'esp. one whose occupation is to instruct';*

   a dancing girl '*a girl, esp. in the East, who dances to entertain esp. men'.*

Due to **this** *idiomatic component* the derived words enter the lexicon, both lexicographical and mental.

Derivational patterns may be **productive** and **nonproductive:**

to lexicalize concepts denoting *a doer of an action*:

- **v + -er → *N*** is *a highly productive derivational pattern* (***teach → teacher, build → builder, sing → singer***);

- **n + -ist →*N*** is *quite a productive pattern* (***piano → pianist, art → artist***), but

- **n + -ian → *N*** (***Christ → Christian; politics/policy → politian; comedy → comedian***) is *active though not a productive pattern* as quite a limited number of words are derived according to it.

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).

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.

Affixation

About 70% of all words in English are derived

Affixation [fr. L **a-+ fix** – 'to attach to']

  a) prefixation
  b) suffixation

Prefixation

prefixes (from L *pre-* 'before' + *fix* = **to attach before**)

from **50 to 80** prefixes in Modern English

Prefixation in English is mostly characteristic of **verbs:**

*re*write, *rein*force, *over*cook, *under*cook, *pre*cook, *be*head, *un*cover, *dis*agree, *de*centralize, *mis*calculate, *co*exist, *fore*see, etc.

Prefixation

1. **native** (only a quarter of all prefixes) *(under-, over-, out-, for-, fore-, un-* / **borrowed (***re-, ab-, il-, pre-, post-, dis-, non-, anti/ante-, by-, poly-, inter-, co-, trans-, hyper-, hypo-, super-,* etc.*);*

2. **noun-forming** *(**ex-***president),*
   adjective-forming *(**inter***national),*
   verb-forming *(**re***read),*
   universal *(**co-***pilot, **co-***operate, **co-*** educational);*

3. **derivational**, or **word-building** *(**in***credible);*
       non-derivational, or ***stem-building (per***sist, **in***sist)*

4. *changeable/ unchangeable*

Prefixation

The group of unchanged prefixes:

be- (*be*head)
mis- (*mis*understand)
over- (*over*flow)
un- (*un*intelligible)
out- (*out*come)

de- (*de*centralize)
ex- (*ex-*president)
non- (*non-*interference)
post- (*post*script)
super- (*super*structure)
trans- (*trans*action)
poly- (*poly*lingual)

Prefixation

The group of changeable prefixes:

ir-*/*il-*/*im- 'non' (***il***legal*, **im**pure*, **ir**regular*);

ad-*/*ac-*/*af-*/*ag-*/*al-*/*ap-*/*as-*/*at- 'to, toward' (***ad***minister*, **ac**custom*, **ap**pear*, **ag**glutinate*);

co-*/*com-*, *cor- '***with***' (***com***passion*, **co**equal*, **cor**respondence*);

dis-*/*dif- 'reverse' (***dis***arm*, **dif**ference*);

sub-*/*sup- 'under' (***sub***ordinate*, **sup**press*);

syn-*/*sym 'with' (***syn***chronical*, **sym**metrical*), etc.

Prefixation

Do not mix up changeable prefixes with a special group of prefixes are **alike in spelling and/or pronunciation but have different meanings:**

ante- 'before' (*ante*date)   *and*

　　　　anti- 'against' (*anti*freeze);

for- 'away, off' (*for*go*, for*sake) *and*

　　　　fore- 'ahead, before'(*fore*see)

en- 'to cover or surround with' (*en*circle*, en*danger),

　　　　in- 'in, toward' (*in*ject*, in*come) *and*

　　　　in- 'not, without' (*il*legal*, im*modest);

in-lil-lim-lir-lem-/en- 'into' (used in **verbs** *in*ject*, il*lustrate*, im*port*, ir*rigate*, en*courage*, em*brace) *and*

　　　　inlig-, il-, im-, ir- 'not' (used in **adjectives** *in*visible*,　ig*noble);

Prefixation

inter- 'between' (*inter*national)

intra-'inside' (*intra*venous*, intra*mural)

intro- 'in, into' (*intro*vert*, intro*duce);

hyper- 'over' (*hyper*active) — *hypo-* 'under, less than' (*hypo*active);

per- 'through' (*per*suade) — *pre*- 'before' (*pre*school) — *pro*- 'forward, in place of' (*pro*noun).

pref + v/adj/n: *dis*agree (v)**,** *dis*loyal (adj)**,** *dis*advantage (n)

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, *fore*see, *ex*-president, *co*-exist);

3. **space location** (*inter*-continental, *trans*-Atlantic, *su*bway, *super*structure);

4. **repetition** (*re*assert, *re*write, *ana*baptize '**to baptize again**');

5. **quantity** and **intensity** (*uni*sex, *bi*lingual, *poly*technical, *multi*lateral);

   ++

   • **pejoration** (*ab*normal, *mis*calculate, *mal*treat, *pseudo*-morpheme);

   • **amelioration** (*super*-reliable, *super*market, *ultra*modern).

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*.

<u>Classification of suffixes</u>

1. native (*-er, -ful, -less, -like, -y, -ling, -ness, -ish, -en, -some, -ed*) *I*
   borrowed (*-able/-ible, -ist, -ism, -ant/-ent, -ee, -ette, -ine, -ise, -ive, -ancy/-ency,* etc);

2. derivational, or **word-building** *(glorify) /* **non-derivational**, or **stem-building**
(incredible)

3. part-of-speech forming:

   <u>noun</u>-forming DENOTING **agent, feminine agent, endearment, abstract quality, result** (*worker, baroness, horsy, darkness*);
   <u>adjective</u>-forming DENOTING **similarity, ability, deprivation, possession, relatedness** (*bluish, eatable, legless, wonderful, Japanese*);
   <u>verb</u>-forming DENOTING **the act of initiating** (*originate*); **the act towards the quality** (*equalize, formalize*);
   <u>adverb-</u>forming (*domestically*).

Conversion

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

round *adj, n, v, adv*;
back *n, adj, adv, v*;
top adj, n, v;
idle, secure, select *adj, v*;
public, complex , **perspective** adj, n
up *prep, v*

water , **eye** , **jump** *(v, n)*

N → V

1) **action characteristic of the object** (*to monkey, to father, to fool*);

2) **action with the object** (*to whip, to water, to knife*);

3) **acquisition of the object** (*to fish, to milk, to mud*);

4) **deprivation of the object** (*to dust, to skin*).

Nouns as *the source* for converted verbs typically denote:

Instruments (*iron - to iron*), or **parts of body** that are viewed as instruments (*eye - to eye*) and

Substances (*water - to water*).

V → N

1) <u>**instance of the action**</u> (*a jump, a smile, a talk, a chat, a try*);

2) agent of the action (*a help*; *a hand*; *a cheat; a bore; a scold*);

3) place of the action (*a race, a run*);

4) object or result of the action (*a peel, help*).

Verbs used as *the source* for nouns derived by conversion typically denote:
- *movement* (*to jump - a jump*) and
- *speech activity* (*to talk - a talk*)

Stress-interchange

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

V	N
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*

Stress-interchange

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

V	ADJ
fre´quent	*´frequent*
abs´tract,	*´abstract*
mode´rate	*´moderate*

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:***

*Angl**o**-Saxon, soci**o**linguistics, hand**i**craft, sport**s**man*.

Some scholars:

- **Composition** (словосложение): *time bomb, time frame, time-saving, time-sharing*

- **Compounding** (слияние основ): *timetable, timesheet* (табель), *timeworn* (давнишний, устаревший), *timeline* (график), *timeout* (перерыв)

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*)

The second base

is semantically more important, cf.:

ring finger and *finger-ring*

piano-player and *player piano*

armchair and *chair-arm*

Word compounding (word composition)

How to differ compounds from word combinations:

Graphically **a compound is either:**

- **one word** *(Sunday, desktop, handbook, penman, schoolmaster)*
- spelled **with a hyphen (*grass-green, dog-biscuit, dog-collar);***
- or spelled **separately**, too: ***bus stop, post office.***

Phonetically compounds are different due to a specific stress-pattern:

> *a ´hot-house, a ´key-hole, a ´doorway, ´ice-cream, ´common-wealth;*
> or *a ´washing-ma,chine*; *a ´dancing-,girl,*

but they may also have two level stresses: ***grass-green, icy-cold.***

Semantically they are:

fully motivated as in ***girl-friend*** or ***icy-cold***

partially motivated as in ***handcuffs, a flower-bed, laughing-gas*** or

completely demotivated as in ***grass-widow, wet-blanket, fiddle-sticks***

"M[arcus] Agrippa L[ucii] f[ilius] co[n] s[ul] tertium fecit," meaning "Marcus Agrippa, son of Lucius, made [this building] when he was consul for the third time."

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 *MATH*ematic*S*)

Minor ways of word-formation

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

SMS for '*s*hort *m*essages *s*ervice',

DVD for '*d*igital *v*ideo *d*isk',

CD-ROM '*C*ompact *D*isk *R*ead *O*nly *M*emory',

hi-fi (short for '*Hi*gh *Fi*delity'),

UNO for '*U*nited *N*ations *O*rganization, **VIP** for '*V*ery *I*mportant *P*erson',

jeep for '*G*eneral *P*urpose vehicle', **laser** for '*L*ight *A*mplification by
  *S*timulated *E*mission of *R*adiation',

V-day for 'Victory day',

Pakistan (1933) (*P*unjab, *A*fghan Border States, *K*ashmir, *S*ind and the
end of the name of Baluchis*TAN*);

SMART (*S*elf-*M*onitoring, *A*nalysis and *R*eporting *T*echnology),
MAESTRO, **WASP**,

oink (*O*ne *I*ncome *N*o *K*ids), **dinky** (*D*ual *I*ncome *N*o *K*ids).

Minor ways of word-formation

2. Blending (telescoping) of two words

blog for 'we**b log**' (registration), **brunch** for '**BR**eakfast and l**UNCH**', **smog** for '**SM**oke + f**OG**', **electrocute** for 'to exe**CUTE** by **ELECTR**icity', **laundromat** for '**LAUNDR**y aut**OMAT**',

e-government

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

to edit from **an editor,**

to beg from **a beggar,**

homesick from **homesickness**

to stage-manage from **stage-manager**,

to house-keep from **house-keeper**

4. Reduplication

bye-bye

walkie-talkie

wishy-washy

ping-pong

Minor ways of word-formation

5. The extension of proper names

mercury; champagne, kleenex, 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;
Watergate — Irangate — zippergate — sexgate

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

hunting dog

toy dog

lazy dog

Newfoundland dog

spotty dog

there is life in the old dog yet

the dog in the yard

the dog in the manger

1. Free collocations vs. multi-word naming units

hunting dog – охотничья собака

toy dog –порода комнатных декоративных соб

lazy dog – Pangram: The quick brown fox jumps over the lazy dog.

Russ.: Съешь же ещё этих мягких французских булок, да выпей чаю

Newfoundland dog

Spotty dog (!) – a synonym for good, super, fantastic, and so on.

there is life in the old dog yet

dog in the manger - a person who has no need of, or ability to use, a possession that would be of use or value to others, but who prevents others from having it

1. Free collocations vs. multi-word naming units

administration

public administration

effective administration

good administration

1. Free collocations vs. multi-word naming units

public administration is
1) an interdisciplinary subject, an academic subfield of both political and administrative science;
2) Implementation of the government policy, the enactment and judicial interpretation of laws and regulations;

effective administration

good administration - **новая концепция государственного управления**, которая не имеет в русском языке точного эквивалента. Впервые теория была предложена в 1997 г. в документах Программы развития ООН.

Good administration by public bodies means:
- Being customer focused
- Being open and accountable
- Acting fairly and proportionally
- Putting things right
- Seeking continuous improvement

bank

   the World Bank

administration

   public administration

      comparative public administration

East

   the Middle East

scandal

   the Watergate scandal

2. Lexical and grammatical valency of words in word groups

Selection restrictions on word usage:

1) a **_question_** can be **urgent, delicate, disputable** or **serious**, but not***laughing, *soft*, or *blue*;

   a **_deep well_** but not *__a deep building__ or *__a deep tree__

2) **_a blond girl/ blond hair_** but not *__a blond sweater__

   *__Green ideas sleep furiously__

2. Lexical and grammatical valency of words in word groups

The **conventional mutual expectancy** of words in word groups may be described by their **valency** (Am. valence) – *the power of a word to combine with another one in speech.*

2 types of valency:

1) The aptness of a word to appear in a certain *grammatical (syntactic) pattern* may be termed as its *grammatical valency*:

propose + **infinitive**;

suggest+*that* **clause**, or *suggest*+*-ing* **form**

2) The aptness of a word to appear in certain *combinations with other lexemes* may be called its *lexical valency*:

propose a stroll but *to suggest a plan*

to lift/raise one's arms

BUT: **lift a flag,* you *raise it,* as you *raise a question* but do not **lift it*.

Cross-language differences in valency:

*to explain **to** somebody;   to smile **at** somebody* (**v+prep+n/pron**) in English

but

объяснять кому-то; улыбаться кому-то (**v+n/pron**) in Russian

комнатные цветы ≠ **room flowers*
pot flowers or *indoor/house plants*

R.: **украшать***????????*

E.: **decorate *?????***

Cross-language differences in valency:

1. **Due to differences of semantic boundaries of the categories named by correlated words:**

(Cf.: R.: украшать: стол, салат, торт, etc., and

   E.: decorate, dress, garnish:

       decorate 'to make more attractive by <u>adding ornament, colour, etc.</u>': *a room, one's Christmas tree,* even *a cake*

       dress '<u>to put finish on</u>': *the hair, the wound, trees and bushes, a table*

       garnish salads and other <u>food</u> in order <u>to improve its appearance and taste</u>

2. Due to differences in their semantic structures:

green:

'young' **years**   Cf.: молодо – зелено

But: * зеленые годы

heavy   what   ?????

heavy and *тяжелый* have different semantic structures and hence *different lexical valency*:

heavy beard but **'густая борода';**

heavy eater but '**любитель поесть';**

heavy cold but **'сильная простуда';**

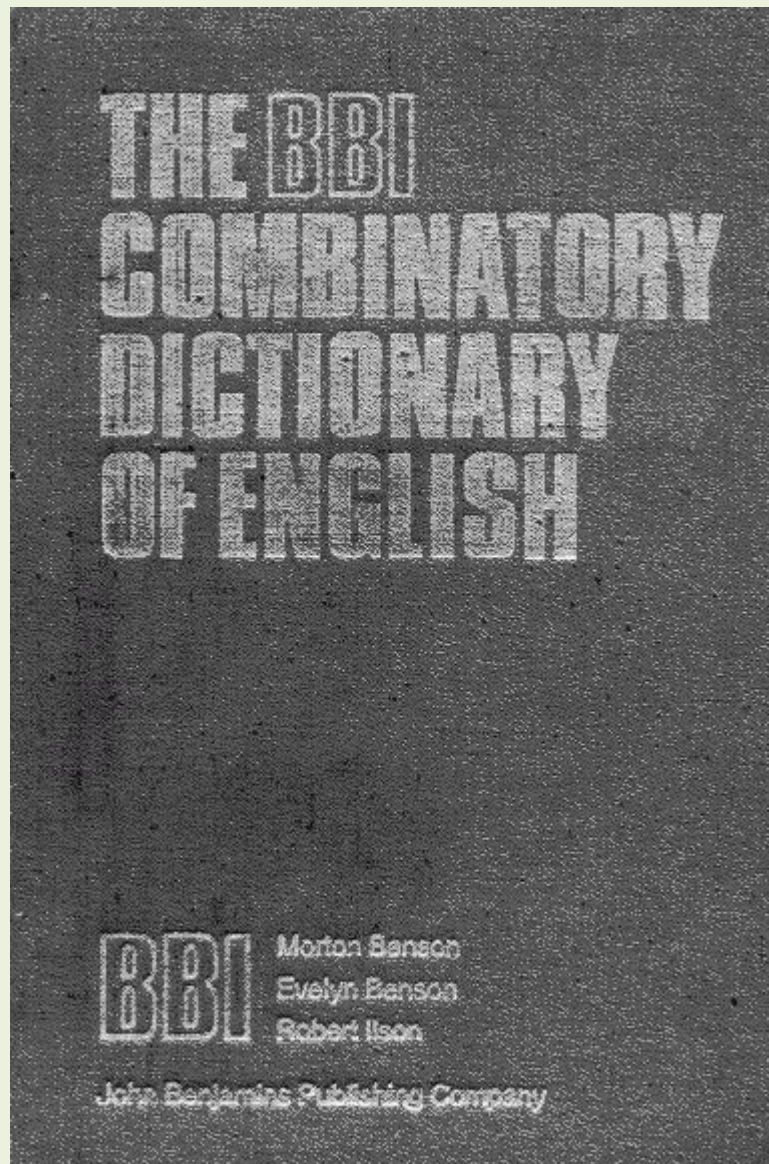*heavy bread* but **'плотный по структуре и обильный по калориям').**

heavy *'intensive'* *rain;*

heavy *'abnormal'* *drinker;*

heavy *'serious'* *responsibilities.*

Differences in valency of correlated words cause *difficulties in translation!!!*

Compiled by Morton Benson, Evelyn Benson and Robert F. Ilson

The British National Corpus (BNC) is a **100 million** word collection of samples of written and spoken language from a wide range of sources, designed to represent a wide cross-section of British English, both spoken and written, from the late twentieth century.

garnish

- **BPG** **1446** *Garnish with the lemon **wedges.***
- **BPG** **1579** *Garnish with **wedges of lemon.***
- **BPG** **1612** *Garnish with **lime wedges** and **serve with new potatoes and French beans.***
- **BPG** **1719** *Garnish with **wedges of lemon and, if desired, large prawns and mussels.***
- **C8A** **2172** *Garnish with **coriander leaves and serve with boiled rice and warm pitta bread.***

The Corpus of Contemporary American English (<u>COCA</u>)

450 MILLION WORDS, 1990-**2012**

This site contains **the largest and most accurate lists of collocates** of English –

up to **4.3 million <u>node/collocate pairs</u>.**

smo (u)lder − v - burn slowly with smoke but no flame; show or feel barely suppressed anger, hatred, or another powerful emotion ('*тлеть*')

nodeID	node	nodePoS	collocate	collPoS	freq	MutInfo	preNode	postNode	% preNode
15349	smolder	v	still	r	76	4.39	74	2	0.97
15349	smolder	v	fire	n	59	6.33	39	20	0.66
15349	smolder	v	eye	n	43	4.41	24	19	0.55
15349	smolder	v	cigarette	n	26	6.93	17	9	0.65
15349	smolder	v	ash	n	15	7.42	5	10	0.33
15349	smolder	v	ember	n	14	10.62	4	10	0.28
15349	smolder	v	resentment	n	14	8.26	2	12	0.14

The International Corpus of English (ICE) began in 1990 with the primary aim of collecting material for comparative studies of English worldwide.

Twenty-six research teams around the world are preparing electronic corpora of their own ***national or regional variety of English.***

Each ICE corpus consists of **one million words** of spoken and written English produced after 1989.

*Compleat **lextutor***

(http://www.lextutor.ca/concordancers/)

3. Classification of free word groups

1) **predication:** predicative (*he went*) and non-predicative :

- *subordinate* (***red flower***)
- *coordinate* (***women and men***);

2) **structure**:

- **verbal-nominal/pronominal** (v+n: ***to see a boy***; v+prn: ***to see him***);
- **verbal-prepositional-nominal/pronominal** (v+prep+n/prn: ***to see to somebody/something*** 'присматривать');
- **verbal-adverbial** (v+adv: ***to put aside***);
- **adjectival-nominal** (adj+n: ***a red pen***), and others.

3) **semantics:**

endocentric:

nominal (***a red flower***),
verbal (***to speak loud***) or
adjectival (***kind to people***).

exocentric:
side by side.

SEMINAR NO 1.

LEXICOGRAPHY

<u>Phraseological unit</u> –

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

Types:

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

Clichés

word-combinations which lost their novelty and become trite:

kind to people, wrong number, commit a suicide

ladies and gentlemen, Good morning!

The use of some of them may irritate people, so cliché may be a derogatory term.

Set-expressions

on the one hand, hand in hand, by the way, so far so good, How do you do?

4. Phraseology. Multi-word Latin and French set expressions

alter ego 'second self'; *id est* (**i.e**.)' that is'; *vice versa* 'with the order changed';
   Bon appetit! 'enjoy your meal'.

They are mostly **abbreviations** and their **reading** may follow **3 different patterns:**

■ *as full Latin expression.* Thus, *etc.* *et cetera* ('and the others',
'and other things', 'and the rest');

■ *as letters of the English alphabet:* *a.m.* – [*anter
meridiem*] 'before midday'; *p.m.* [*post meridiem*] 'after midday'] or *A.D.* [*anno
Domini*] 'in the year of the Lord'.

■ *as English expressions:* *e.g.* is usually read as 'for example',
'for instance' [*exempli gratia*] ;
   et al. is read as 'and others' [*et alia*] ;
   R.I.P. is read as 'rest in peace' [*requiescat in pace*] – a short prayer for a dead
person.

4. Phraseolohy. Word Groups as Idioms

Idiom implies *idiomaticity*, or lack of motivation of a construction, smth unexplained in its meaning that should be remembered despite its obvious formal complexity

to break the ice
to breath one's last
Hobson's choice
In cold blood

An old bird is not to be caught with chaff.
A cheerful wife is the joy of life.
A hungry man is an angry man.
He is the richest that has fewest wants.
If a man deceived me once, shame on him; if twice, shame on me.

Idiom definitions

Ray Jackendoff and *Charles Fillmore* offered a fairly broad definition of the **idiom**, which, in Fillmore's words, reads as follows:

«…*an idiomatic expression,* or construction, is something a language user could fail to know while knowing everything else in the language».

Uriel Weinreich expresses his view that an **idiom** is a complex phrase, the meaning of which cannot be derived from the meanings of its elements. He claims that an idiom is a subset of a *phraseological unit.*

Wallace Chafe also lists **four features** of idioms that make them anomalies in the traditional language unit paradigm, or individual morphemes:

non-compositionality (meaning is not deduced out of the form)

transformational defectiveness (there should be no or limited "movement rules" in the syntax, 5 levels of syntactic frozenness – Frazer 1970),

ungrammaticality and

*frequency asymmetry (*speakers can know the form of an idiom without necessarily knowing the meaning*)* .

Stefanie Wulff. **Rethinking Idiomaticity: A Usage-based Approach. 2008**

Other classifications of phraseological units:

- **word-like** (*side by side*=**adv**) and **sentence-like** **phraseological** **units** (or **phraseological expressions**) (*Life is not a bed of roses*);

- **etymological classification** (*The forbidden fruit is sweetest; to call a spade a spade; burden of proof*);

- **thematic** (*can't make head or tail of it; on the tip of the tongue; I haven't got the clue*).

Functional classification of phraseological units (PhUs) by I.V. Arnold:

- **a) noun equivalent PhUs:** denoting an object, a person, a living being, e.g. *bullet train, latch-key child, red-brick university;*
- **b) verb equivalent PhUs:** denoting an action, a state, a feeling, e.g. *to be on the beam, to nose out, to make headlines*;
- **c) adjective equivalent PhUs:** denoting a quality, e.g. *loose as a goose, thick as a brick;*
- **d) adverb equivalent PhUs:** *in the soup, like a dog with two tails;*
- **e) preposition equivalent PhUs:**. *in the course of, on the stroke of*;
- **f) interjection equivalent PhUs:** *«Catch me!», «Well, I never!»* etc.

Functional-structural classification of phraseological units by Prof. Smirnitsky :

He classifies them according to the **functional principle**. Two groups are distinguished: **phraseological units** and **idioms.**

- **Phraseological units** are neutral, non-metaphorical when compared to idioms: *get up, fall   asleep, to take to drinking*.
- **Idioms** are metaphoric, stylistically coloured: *to take the bull by the horns, to beat about the bush, to bark up the wrong tree.*

Structurally:

one-summit (one functionally leading member) and **many-summit** (two-member, three-member, etc.) **phraseological units,** depending on the number of notional words: *give up; bread and butter; lock, stock and barrel; to have all one's eggs in one basket*.

Among **two-summit phraseological units A.I. Smirnitsky points** out the types:
- **a) attributive-nominal** : *High road; first night; red tape*.
- **b) verb-nominal** : *to read between the lines, to speak BBC. to fall in love.*
   Very close to such units are word-groups of the type *to have a glance, to have a smoke*.   These units are not idiomatic and are treated in grammar   as a special syntactical combination, **a kind of aspect.**
- **c) phraseological repetitions:** *now or never, part and parcel, country and western* etc. Such units can be built on **antonyms**, e.g. *ups and downs, back and forth*; often they are formed by means of **alliteration**: *as busy as a bee*. Components in repetitions are joined by means of conjunctions. These units are equivalents of adverbs or adjectives and have no grammar centre.

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').

Prof. Amosova's classification

She classifies phraseological units according **to the type of context:** phraseological units are marked by fixed (permanent) context, which can't be changed: ***French leave.***

Two groups are singled out: *phrasemes* and *idioms*.

- ***1. Phrasemes*** consist of two components one of which is phraseologically bound, the second is literal and serves as the determining context:), ***green wound*** (незажившая рана), ***green eye*** (ревнивый взгляд), ***green hand*** (неопытный работник), ***green years*** (юные годы etc;

- ***2. Idioms*** are characterized by idiomaticity: their meaning is created *by the whole group* and is not a mere combination of the meanings of its components: ***red tape*** (бюрократическая волокита), ***mare's nest*** (неразбериха; нонсенс), ***to pin one's heart on one's sleeve*** (не скрывать своих чувств).

Classification of phraseological units by A.V.Kunin:

1) nominative (*to breath one's last* 'to die');

2) communicative (*A cheerful wife is the joy of life; A hungry man is an angry man; He is the richest that has fewest wants; Never say die!* and *If a man deceived me once, shame on him; if twice, shame on me*);

3) nominative-communicative (*to break the ice – the ice is broken*);

4) interjectional (*Well, I'll never! By George! It's a pretty kettle of fish!*).

In Great Britain as well as other Western European countries, phraseology has steadily been developed over the last twenty years

.

The activities of the European Society of Phraseology (EUROPHRAS) and the European Association for Lexicography (EURALEX) with their regular conventions and publications attest to the prolific European interest in phraseology.

European scholarship in phraseology is more active than in North America.

Bibliographies of recent studies on English and general phraseology are included in Welte (1990)[6] and specially collected in Cowie & Howarth (1996)[7] whose bibliography is reproduced and continued on the internet and provides a rich source of the most recent publications in the field.

Англо-русский фразеологический словарь (*English-Russian Phraseological Dictionary*) is by Prof. **A.V. Kunin.**

Russian-English Dictionary of Idioms by **Sophia Lubensky** (Random House in 1995)

Oxford Dictionary of Current Idiomatic English (1975, 1983) by **A.P. Cowie, R. Mackin** and **I.R. McCaig**.

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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.

1. Ways of classifying lexemes

Types of relations of lexical units (words):

1. **Letter relations** *(apple, apricot)*
2. **Phonetic relations** *(fanatic – phonetic; bank – bank)*
3. **Morphological relations** *(friend – friendly – unfriendly)*
4. **Part-of-speech meaning relations**
5. **Grammatical meaning relations** *(oxen; children; women; cases; phenomena;)*
6. **Etymological relations**

………….

N. **Semantic relations with other words**

2. Major types of semantic relations of lexical units

F. de Saussure : **two major types of word relations in language:**

- **<u>Syntagmatic (linear word relations in speech:</u>**
  He →feels →uncomfortable.

- **<u>Paradigmatic (associative) word relations in language:</u>**

  The person   *became*   *uncomfortable*
           ↕   ↕   ↕
      The boy   *turned*   *uneasy*
           ↕   ↕   ↕
       John   *grew*   *inconvenient*

Word-relations in the mental lexicon

Name your associations to the word:

dog

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

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

bird

song-bird   *non-song*

carinate   *ratite* (безкилевой)

finch   *ostrich*

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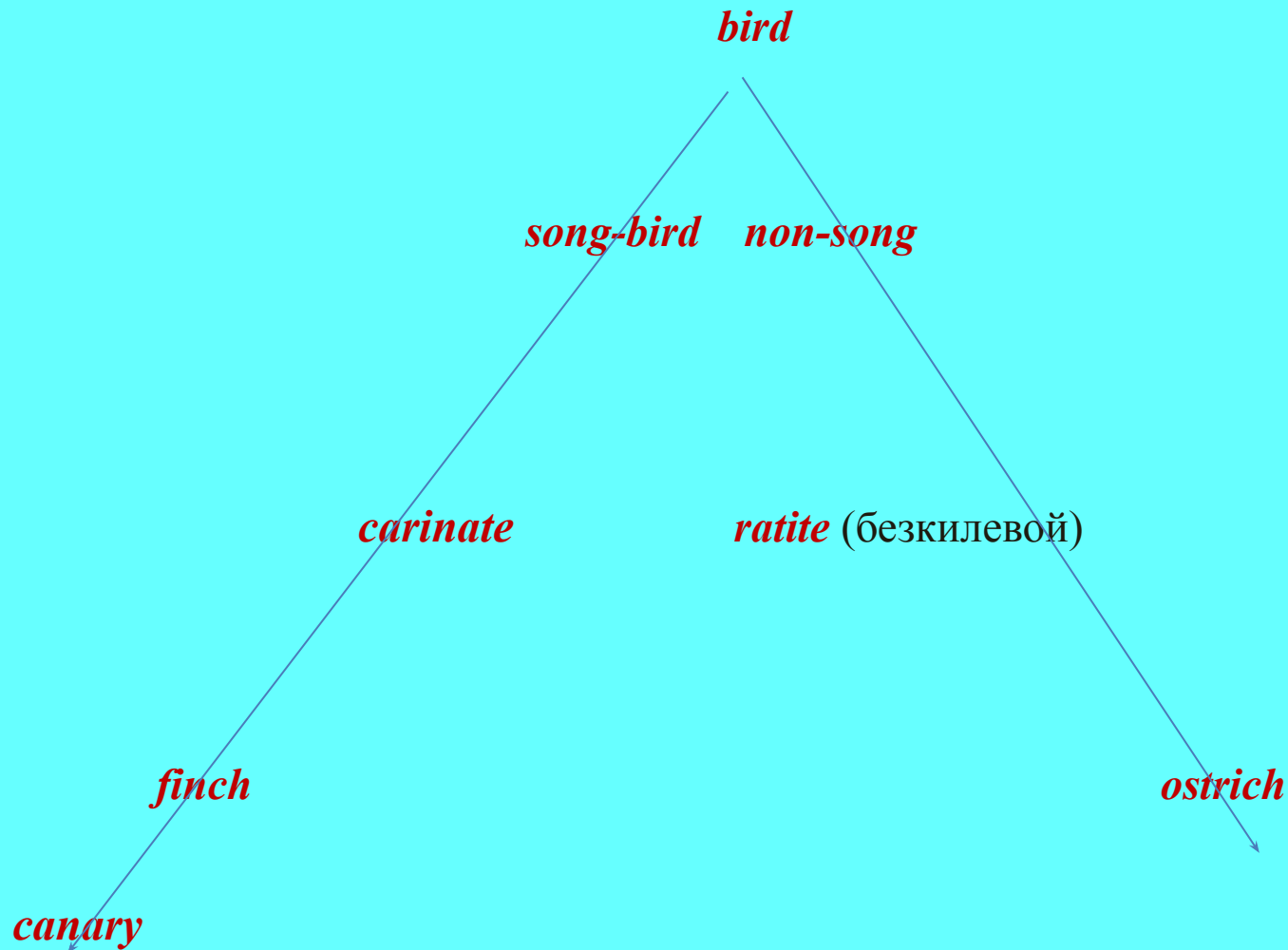
Quasi-hyponymy:
cutlery : *knife*, *fork* and *spoon*

Serial relations:

Graded series (chains):

RANKS:

Private
Lance corporal
Corporal
Sergeant
Warrant officer 2nd class
Warrant officer 1st class
Lieutenant
Captain
Major
etc.

Cyclical series:

SEASONS:

winter, spring, summer, autumn

<u>Meronymy, or meronymic relations </u>(X is part of Y; Y has X):

body

Δ

arm

Δ

hand

Δ

finger, etc.

Quasi-meronymy:

France – Europe

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

Relations of compatibility:

a) **Synonymy** : [Gk 'the same name'] *eyeglasses ≈ spectacles.*

b) **Antonymy**[Gk *anti* 'against', *onoma* 'a name'] *cold -- hot.*

c) **c) distant compatibility (co-equonyms, or co-hyponyms)** *cat≠dog≠lion≠elephant*

non-compatibility:

cat – house - grass

3. Structure of the English lexicon

I.   Inclusive:

- *hypero-hyponyms;*

- *meronyms;*

- *series (cycles; chains)*

II. Compatible:

- *synonyms;*

- *antonyms;*

- *co-hyponyms*

III. Complex:

- **Lexical-semantic groups (LSG):** e.g.: FEELINGS (*affection, calmness, contempt, excitement, indifference, relief, restlessness, thrill*) .

- **Lexical-semantic field:** e.g.: TEMPERATURE (*hot, hotly; cold, to cold, coldly; heat, to heat, heated,* etc.)

- **Thematic fields:** e.g.: *Cinema; Restaurant; Working day; Battle;* etc.

4. Lexicon structure in different languages

Differences:

1. **Quantitative:**

    Ru: *more words for:* the state of mind/ mushrooms/ colours;

    подавленный, как в воду опущенный,
    унылый, убитый, пришибленный, *удрученный;*
    голубой, синий

    En: *more words for:* commercial colours/ footwear

    En: *meal* : **Ru ??**

2. **Qualitative:**

    cottage vs. *коттедж*
    house / *дом*
    finger / *палец*
    honey agaric / *опенок*

    I am thirsty (**prn+v+<u>adj</u>**) in English and
    Я хочу пить (**prn+v+<u>v</u>**) in Russian

Russian speakers could isolate the blue hue differences better than English speakers.

- This logical conclusion is to support ***some degree of* linguistic relativism**.

Yet linguistic relativism does not seem to be as strong as the **Sepir-Whorf Hypothesis** once suggested.

Translate:

- **телефон-автомат**
- **концлагерь**
- **руководство**
- **смехотворный**
- **благотворительность**
- **студент-второкурсник**
- **паровоз**

Explain the difference in your translation:

- **телефон-автомат**

- **концлагерь**

- **руководство**

- **смехотворный**
  1.Служащий для развлечения, забавы. Преисполненный шутки, юмора. **2**. Такой, который может вызвать только смех.

- **благотворительность**

- **студент-второкурсник**

- **паровоз**

- 1) (аппарат) public telephone
  2) (будка) telephone box, (public)   call box ; (public) telephone booth

- **concentration camp**

- **1) leadership; 2) a guide; 3) a handbook**

- **ridiculous**
  deserving or inviting **derision** or **mockery**; **absurd** : *when you realize how ridiculous these scenarios are, you will have to laugh.*
  Origin: mid 16th cent.: from Latin ridiculosus, from ridiculus 'laughable' (see ridicule)

- **charity**

- **second-year student; sophomore** [from Greek "*sophos*", "wise", and "*moros*" "foolish"]

- **steam engine/locomotive [in loco moveri 'move by change of position']**

благотворительность

Оказание частными лицами материальной помощи нуждающимся, малообеспеченным гражданам, а также выделение пожертвований на общественные нужды. *Средства, полученные от благотворительности*

Синонимы: **филантропия** ('человеколюбие')

- **Этимология:**

Собственно русское слово. Употребляется с конца XVIII в., первоначально в форме *благотворительство* .

charity

noun (pl. charities)

1) **an organization** set up to provide help and raise money for those in need ■ [mass noun] the body of organizations viewed collectively as the object of fundraising or of donations: *the proceeds of the sale will go to charity*

2) 2) [mass noun] the voluntary giving of help, *typically in the form of money*, to those in need ■ help or money given to those in need: *an unemployed teacher living on charity*

3) 3) [mass noun] kindness and tolerance in judging other*s: she found it hard to look on her mother with much charit*y ■ love of humankind, typically in a Christian context faith, hope, and charity

• - **charity begins at home**

• late Old English (in the sense 'Christian love of one's fellows'): from Old French *charite*, from Latin ***caritas*, from *carus* 'dear**'

Translate:

- *role-type,*
- *policy-making,*
- *street-level bureaucrats,*
- *guideline,*
- *background,*
- *framework,*
- *desktop administrator*

Explain the difficulties in translation:

• *role-type*	• тип выполняемой роли в организации
• *policy-making*	• разработка / выработка стратегического курса
• *street-level bureaucrats*	• Гос. служащие, чиновники низкого звена, работающие на передовой линии – непосредственно с клиентами
• *guideline*	• 1) директива, руководящее указание 2) общий курс, направление, генеральная линия
• *background*	• задний план, фон
• *framework*	• 1) остов, корпус, каркас framework of the old arm-chair — каркас старого кресла Syn: frame, skeleton 2) структура, строение *framework of society* — общественный строй Syn: structure 3) система взглядов, точка отсчёта, рамки
• *desktop administrator*	• менеджер среднего звена

фрукт = ?

фрукт = fruit?

Ожегов:

фрукт - 'сочный *съедобный*
плод какого-нибудь
дерева'

плод – *1.* часть растения, развивающаяся из завязи цветка и содержащая семена;

2. зародыш детеныша;

3. перен., порождение, результат чего-н.: *плод размышлений.*

Semantic structure
(Webster's Collegiate Dictionary):

fruit –

1. **a)** a product of plant growth (as grain, vegetables, or cotton): *the fruits of the field*;
   b) the usu. Edible reproductive body of a seed plant: esp. One having a seet pulp associated with the seed (the ~ of the tree);
2. *a) **OFFSPRING, PROGENY*** ('отпрыск, потомок')***;***
   b) *fig.* result, product **(the fruits of his labour)** (cf.: **плод**)
3. *fig. derog.* **'homosexual'.**

   [L fructus, pp fr. frui – 'to enjoy']

The Russian correlated word **фрукты** does not have such meanings, though ***фрукт*** is used derogatively of a person in general *(ну и фрукт!).*

English-Russian Dictionary by Prof. Muller:

fruit   n   *1.* плод; *to bear* ~ плодоносить

2. собир. фрукты;

to grow ~ разводить плодовые деревья,

small ~ ягоды

3. (преим. pl.) плоды, результаты;

4. attrib. фруктовый

Большой англо-русский словарь:

young fruit — сельское хозяйство: завязь (плода); зеленец (огурца)

2) (fruits) плоды, результаты:
  the fruits of one's labour — плоды своего труда
  forbidden fruit — запретный плод

2. глагол
1) давать плоды, плодоносить
2) культивировать, разводить (с целью получить плоды, урожай)
    Например: *I have not fruited those sorts of strawberries.* — Я никогда не занимался разведением этих сортов клубники.

WordNet :

<u>hyponyms</u> for **fruit:**

apples, plums, pears, citrus fruit, pineapple, and melon, water-melon;

different berries;

different seeds (like sunflower seed) and nuts;

coffee bean;

dried fruit like raisins, figs, prunes;

some nonedible fruit like acorn;

some edible fruit may be eaten as vegetables but when fully ripe they are used as a dessert.

Morphological family :

fruit-machine (GB colloq.) coin-operated gambling machine

fruit-sugar – glucose

fruit-grower

fruit-piece – натюрморт с фруктами

fruit-fly

fruit-bat

fruit-cake

fruiter – fruit-bearing tree; fruit-carrying ship

fruiterer – one who sells fruit

frutarian – one who lives almost only on fruit

fruitful – producing fruit or good results
>*fruitfully*
>*fruitfullness*

fruitless – without fruit or good results
>*fruitlessly*
>*fruitlessness*

fruity – 1) resmbling fruit in taste or smell
>*2) full of rough humour*
>*3) (colloq) rich (a fruity voice)*

to fruit – to produce fruit

Collocations

fresh fruit

fresh picked fruit

home-grown fruit

organic fruit

tropical fruit

we need fruit

run out of fruit

to bear fruit

small fruit

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***.

Standard English. Geographical variants of Standard English

Most languages have a **standard variety** - some variety that is selected and promoted by legal authorities.

Standard varieties are more prestigious than nonstandard varieties, and are generally thought of as "correct" by speakers of the language. (However, standard varieties are only "correct" in the sense that they are highly valued within the society that uses the language, since this selection constitutes an arbitrary standard.)

As Ralph Harold Fasold puts it, "*The standard language may not even be the best possible constellation of linguistic features available. It is general social acceptance that gives us a workable arbitrary standard, not any inherent superiority of the characteristics it specifies*."

*American **vs.** British English **vs.** Canadian English **vs.** Australian English **vs.** Indian English **vs.** South African English,* etc.

British English. Geographical dialects of English English

Variants:

The English: *people from England*

The Welsh: *people from Wales:* Lush ' great'. *Butt* 'a friend'.
Shush your noise 'do be quiet'.

The Scottish: *people from Scotland:* Wee 'small'. *Haste ye back* 'come back soon'.

People speaking best known English dialects:

Cockneys: *people from the **East-End of London***
Brummies: *people from **Birmingham** (the middle of England)*
Scousers: *people from **Liverpool** (North-West England)*
Mancunians: *people from **Manchester** (North-West England)*
***Yorkshire** folk: people from **Yorkshire** (Northern England)*
Geordies: *people from **Newcastle** (North-East England)*

British English. Geographical dialects of English English

Examples of **regional slang** from different parts of England:

- ***Cockney****: Get up those apples and pears* 'go upstairs'. *Use the dog and bone* 'use the telephone'. *To have a bubble bath* 'to have a laugh'. *I don't Adam and Eve it* ' I don't believe it'.

- ***Brummie****: Me duck* 'my dear/love'. *Cheese cob* 'a cheese sandwich'.

- ***Scouse****: Any road* 'anyway.' *Yer wha* 'pardon'. *To bin-bag somebody* 'to break up with somebody'. *Ace* 'well done'. *To have a barney* 'to have an argument'.
  Manc*: To be mad keen* 'to be very enthusiastic'. *Ay-up* ' hello'. Nowt 'nothing.' *I'm 'avin that* 'I like that a lot'.
  Yorkshire*: Mardy* 'someone who is easily upset'. *To be blathered* 'to be very drunk'. *By eck* 'an exclamation of surprise'. *Eee by gum* 'an exclamation of surprise'. *Chow* 'food'.
  Geordie*: Wye aye* 'yes'. *Canny* 'good'. *Bonny* 'pretty'.

1. During the 20th century, more people moved into towns and cities, loosing their dialects and thus standardizing the English language.

2. Yet in recent years **regional dialects** have come to be seen as *fashionable commodities*.

In previous years, only comedians would attempt to speak in other dialects in order to gain a few more laughs when performing.

In modern Britain people like the way other people's accents sound. Therefore, many of the words above are used by people from all over the UK.

3. Since the late 1970s a gap has been growing between the north and the south of England.

The south has experienced economic growth while the north has seen a decline of its wealth.

While southerners realize that using a standard language can increase work opportunities, northerners, discouraged by the high unemployment rates, don't see why they should use the standard language promoted through education.

Thus we notice ***more dialect levelling towards standard English in the south*** than ***in the north*** of England.

British vs. American English

The American variant of the English language differs from British English in *pronunciation*, some minor features of *grammar*, but chiefly in *vocabulary* (including spelling).

British spelling   **American spelling**

- *cosy*   *cozy*

- *offence*   *offense*

- *jewellery*   *jewelry*

- *travelling*   *traveling*

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:

    can, candy, mailbox, movies, suspenders, truck in **AE**, and

    tin, sweets, pillar-box (or *letter-box), 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).

British vs. American English

4) equivalent words are different in distribution. The verb *ride* in **BE** is mostly combined with such nouns as *a horse, a bicycle;* seldom they say *ride <u>on a bus</u>*.

In *AE* combinations like *a ride <u>on the train</u>, ride <u>in a boat</u>* are quite usual;

5) the same word is used in BE and AE but with some difference in emotional and stylistic colouring. *Nasty,* for example, is a much milder expression of disapproval in England than in the States, where it was even considered obscene in the 19th century. *Politician* in England means 'someone in polities', and is derogatory in the USA;

6) there may be a marked difference in frequency characteristics. Thus, *time-table* which occurs in AE very rarely, yielded its place to *schedule.*

The trend to shorten words and to use initial abbreviations in AE is more pronounced than in the BE.

- Archaic Sumerian – 31st–26th century BC
- Old or Classical Sumerian – 26th–23rd century BC

- This proto-literate tablet (ca. 3100 – 2900 BC) records the transfer of a piece of land

First Dictionaries in the World

- **Dictionaries have existed in various forms for thousands of years.**

- The earliest known dictionary is linked to the period of Sumeria, The cuneiform tablets of the Akkadian Empire are considered the oldest dictionaries. The tablets contain a bilingual list of the Sumerian-Akkadian words and were discovered around **2300 BCE** in Elba, which is now modern day **Syria.**

- The oldest known monolingual dictionary is the **Chinese dictionary** which traces its origin in the 3rd century BCE. However, other sources have argued that the Shizhoupian dictionary produced in the **800 BCE** is the oldest monolingual dictionaries,

- The earliest known **Homeric lexicon** was produced by Apollonius the Sophist in, **the 1st century** .

- The *Amarakosa*, the work of the Amara Sinha in **the 4th century CE**, is considered **the first Sanskrit dictionary.** The Sanskrit dictionary has over 10,000 words written in verse form.

- The first dictionary in the **Japanese language** was produced around **850 BCE** as a list of written Chinese.

- The earliest dictionaries written in **the Arabic language** were created in the period between **8th and 14th century CE,** placing words in rhyming order or alphabetically.

- One of the earliest dictionaries known, and which still exists today in an abridged form, was written in Latin during. the reign of the emperor Augustus (63 BC - AD 14). It is known by the title De Significatu Verborum ("On the meaning of words") and was originally compiled by Verrius Flaccus.

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.

LE'WIS D'OR. n. f. [French.] A golden
value twelve livres, now settled at seventeen shillings. *Dict.*
LEXICO'GRAPHER. n. f. [λεξικὸν and γράφω; *lexicographe,*
French.] A writer of dictionaries; a harmless drudge, that
busies himself in tracing the original, and detailing the signi-
fication of words.

Commentators and *lexicographers* acquainted with the Sy-
riac language, have given these hints in their writings on
scripture. *Watts's Improvement of the Mind.*

LEXICO'GRAPHY. n. f. [λεξικὸν and γράφω] The art or prac-
tice of writing dictionaries.

LE'XICON. n. f. [λεξικόν.] A dictionary; a book teaching
the signification of words.

Lexicographer. A writer of dictionaries;
a harmless drudge, that busies himself
in tracing the original, and detailing the
signification of words.'

**Oxford English Dictionary** 1888-1928, **1933,** 1934, etc., **20 volumes** +
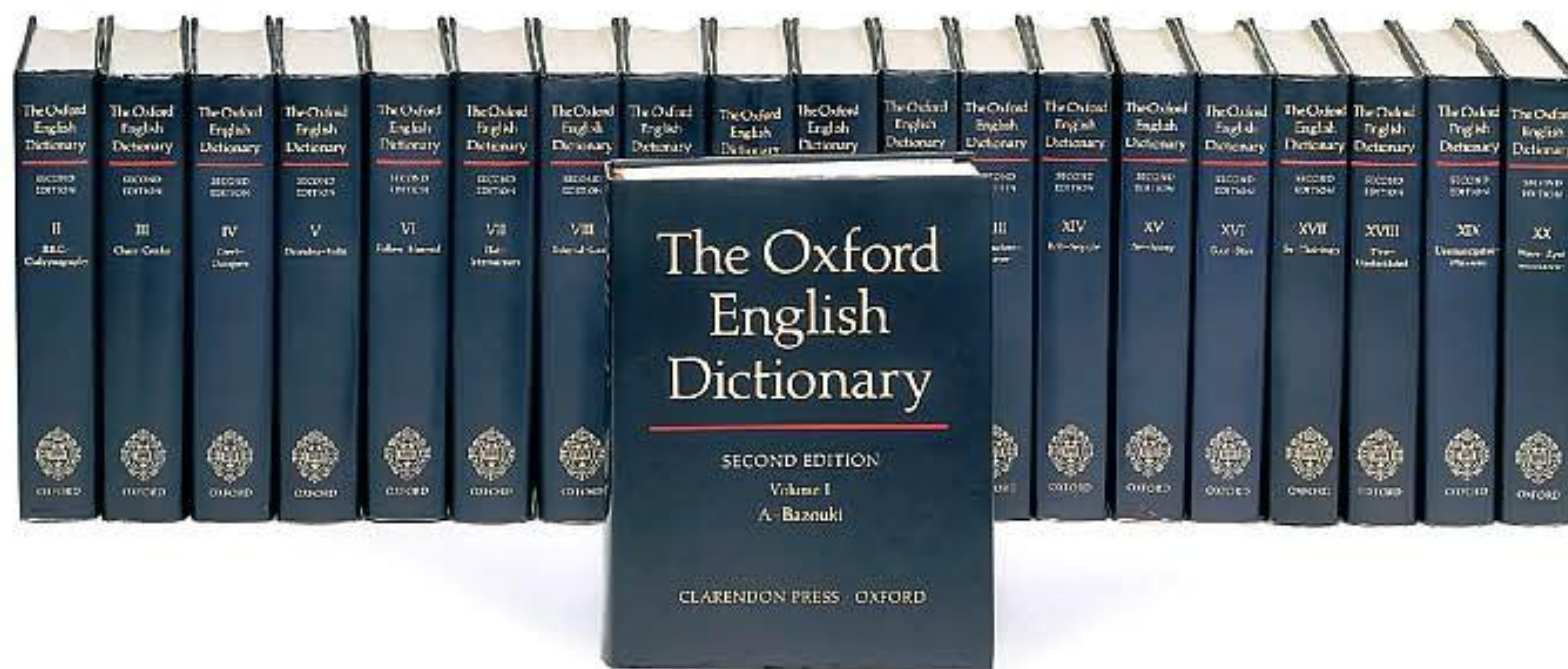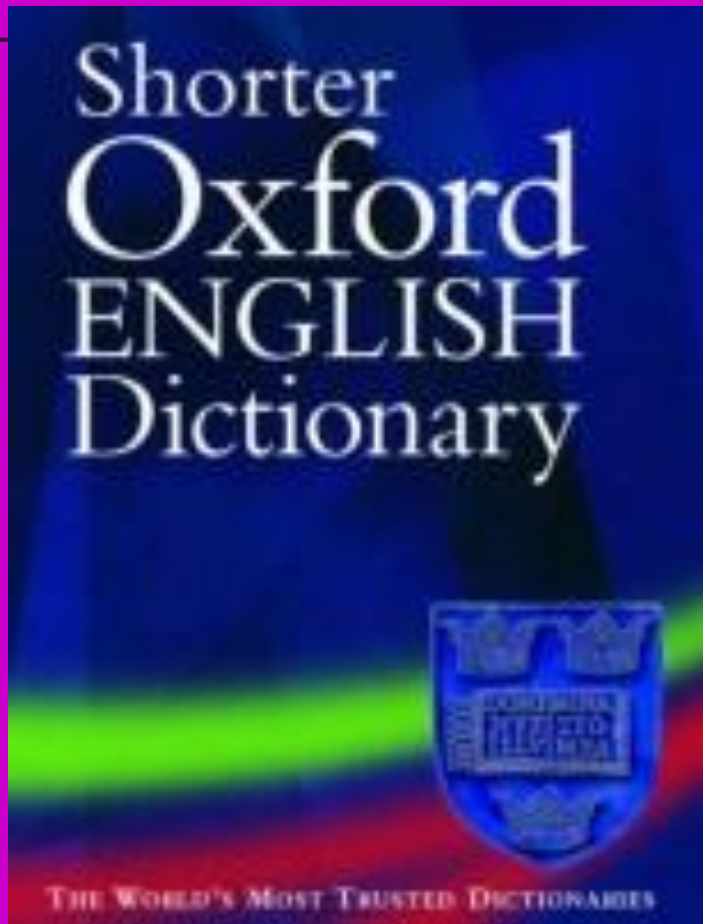
The **Shorter Oxford English Dictionary**, (SOED), is a scaled-down version of the "Oxford English Dictionary". It comprises two volumes rather than the twenty needed for the second edition of the "OED".

The book aims to include all English words which had substantial currency after 1700. As a historical dictionary, it includes obsolete words if they are used by major authors and earlier meanings where they explain the development of a word. Headwords are traced back to their earliest usage.

The latest (fifth) edition contains more than half a million definitions, with 83,500 illustrative quotations from 7,000 authors.
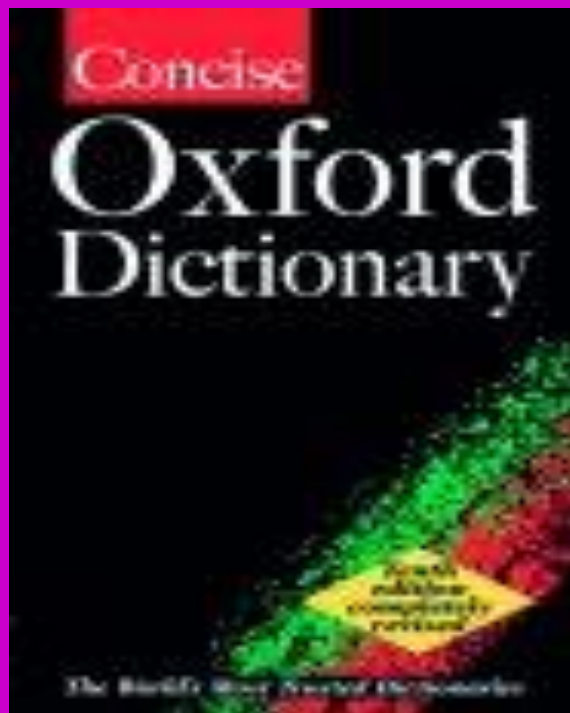
The *Concise Oxford Dictionary* saves space by not giving pronunciation guidance for standard English vocabulary (such as "cheese"). Instead it gives extra information on phrases. There is no major encyclopaedic element.

There is an appendix giving information on countries of the world, as well as others on weights and measures, different alphabets, abbreviations and an extensive guide to good English.

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*.
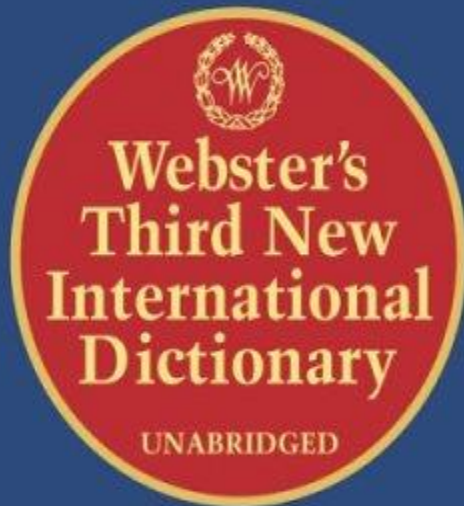
*Webster's Third New International Dictionary* **450,000 entries**

Some other explanatory dictionaries of the English language:

- ***Webster's*** *Ninth New* ***Collegiate Dictionary*** *(*160,000*)*.
- ***The Random House Dictionary of the English.***
- ***Language American Heritage Dictionary***.
- ***The New Century Dictionary***.

- Electronic versions of the well-known dictionaries
- New electronic dictionaries, like ***ABBYY*** or ***WordNet;*** or encyclopedias: ***wikipedia.org*** or ***britanica.org***

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
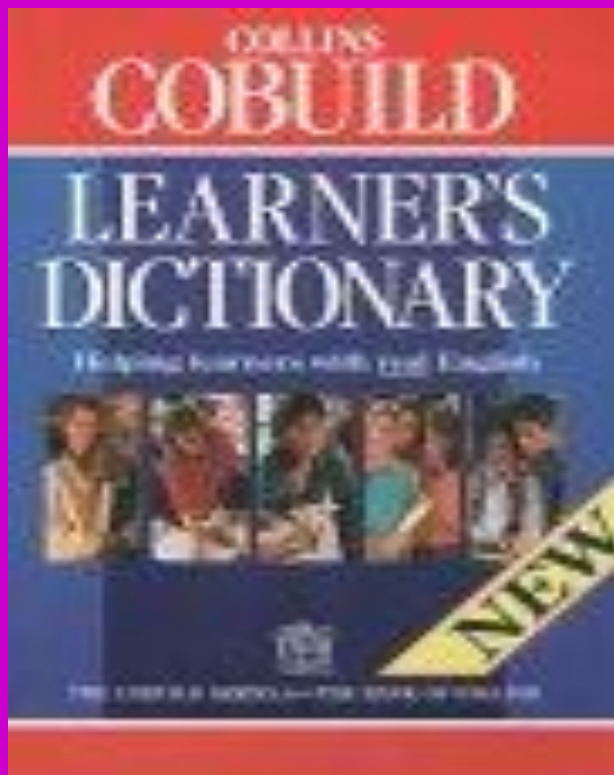
Collins Cobuild Learner's Dictionary

This dictionary serves as a reference book for all students from *intermediate level upwards*.

It offers extensive coverage of **phrasal verbs and idioms**, **information on world frequency**, and **a detailed treatment of modern English.**

English dictionaries for advanced learners available on CD/DVD

- *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (3rd edition, 2008)

- *Collins COBUILD Advanced Learner's English Dictionary* (5th edition, 2006)

- *Collins COBUILD Advanced Dictionary* (6th edition, 2009)

- *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (LDOCE)* (5th edition, 2009)

- *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (OALD)* (7th edition, 2005)

Online dictionaries

- **[Open Dictionary of English](),**
- **[Wordnik]() or [Wiktionary](),**

6,000 most frequently used English words - frequency rank

- **[http://www.insightin.com/esl/]()**

Learn the English vocabulary by **exploring** it and have **fun**!

learn v [OE, OHG 'to learn'; L *lira* ' furrow, track]

1. to get knowledge or understanding of or skill in by study, instruction, or experience

explore v [L from outcry of hunters on sighting game]

1. to seek for or after (*obsolete*);
2. to search into; to examine minutely

fun – n light-hearted pleasure, amusement [ME *fonne* 'fool']