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Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research
University of Mohamed Boudiaf - M'sila
Faculty of Letters and Languages
Department of English



Domain: Foreign Letters and Languages.

Cycle: Master One

Module: **Lexicology**

Specialty: Linguistics

Duration: 01 semester

An Introduction to English

Lexicology

Presented by

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Foreword

A booklet on Lexicology can serve the students in their module of Lexicology and Vocabulary Practice. The eight suggested lessons are just an introduction to Lexicology for Masters Students who need to discover and know the definition of lexicology, its role and function within the whole matters concerning language and its use. Students are supposed to go through the lessons, do the proposed practical activities and follow with their teachers' feedback.

Lexicology as a credit works with language mastery and analysis. They both consolidate learners' prior knowledge and the stock of vocabulary they possess. Learners need to update their notions of vocabulary function, use and practicality.

Wish you the best

The author

Dr Tayeb Bouazid

Aim of the course

The goal of this booklet on lexicology is

1. To offer students an insight into the origin and development of the English vocabulary.
2. To discuss the problems of word-structure and word-formation in English.
3. To deal with meanings of modern English words and their changes in the course of historical development
4. To study the use of English words, phrases and idioms and to enlarge the learners' mental scope with the English varieties of expressive words, common phrases and idiomatic expressions, idioms, phrasal verbs and prepositions and enable them to use them appropriately with the intention to help them avoid confusion
5. It tries try to answer What language family does English belong to?

Time Allocation

1.30 per week

14 weeks in the semester

Materials Needed

- **Dictionaries**
 - **PPT**
 - **Videos**

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Introduction

For sure, we cannot learn a dictionary by heart, but we can learn the etymology of words and see their development. We can stand on the word as word and see its formation. Thanks to Lexicology that learners can dissect words into prefixation, suffixation and affixation. The word can occur everywhere but the use of syntax can properly adjust its use. Syntactical relations between words can yield a semantic sense which can serve the register and the pragmatic situation. Lexicology is a vast domain for learners to imbue from; it helps them know the word, its inflection, derivation, plural and genre. The word is dominantly known through the dictionary which helps learners get the right meaning and the correct pronunciation. This is the booklet that enlightens learners' path in what concerns the domain of vocabulary and lexicology master students need.

The author has put in your hand a very beneficial booklet embracing lexical matters through simple lessons followed by practical activities. Learners need to get in touch with their teachers for more dimensional amplitude of activities.

Lesson 1. KEY ISSUES & FOUNDATIONS

Aims and Objectives:

1. English lexicology offers students an insight into the origin and development of the English vocabulary.
2. It discusses the problems of word-structure and word-formation in English.
3. It deals with meanings of modern English words and their changes in the course of historical development
4. It also studies the use of English words, phrases and idioms
5. It tries to answer What language family does English belong to?

Lexicology and Lexicography

Both lexicology and lexicography are derived from the Greek work lexiko (adjective from lexis meaning 'speech', or 'way of speaking' or 'word'). The common concern of both of them is 'word' or the lexical unit of a language. Lexicology is derived from lexico 'word' plus logos 'learning or science' i.e. the science of words.

Definition of Lexicology

Lexicology is therefore concerned with structures, not with a mere agglomeration of words (cf. **Jackson 1988: 222**). **Fillmore (1978:167f.)** in his article "On the Organization of Semantic Information in the Lexicon". Discussing the characteristics of the language of law, he points out: The difference between jail and prison in many states is determined by the duration of the incarceration ... less than one year, it's a jail; a year or more, it's a prison.

Definition of Lexicography

Lexicography is lexico 'word' plus graph 'writing' i.e. the writing of words. The etymological meaning of these words speaks for itself. Lexicology is the science of the study of the word whereas lexicography is the writing of the word in some concrete form i.e. in the form of dictionary.

The difference between Lexicology and Lexicography

Lexicography:

Lexicon: In her book *Modern English Structure*, Barbara Strang (*1968:215) makes the following remark: While grammar is the domain of systems, lexis is the domain of vast lists of formal items about which rather little generalization can be made.

Lexicon has two different meanings:

1. All the vocabulary of a language and
2. The dictionary

The English suffix -graphy means either "writing" or a "field of study". • Lexicography is used in two different senses: * Practical lexicography is the art or craft of writing dictionaries. Theoretical lexicography is the theory or scholarly discipline of analyzing and describing dictionaries. The term lexicology is variously used. Some use it as a synonym for theoretical lexicography, others use it for a branch of linguistics pertaining to the treasure of words in a particular language i.e. the study of forms, meanings and behaviors of words.

Lexicography is the science and art of compiling dictionary. The word 'dictionary' was first used as *Dictionarius* in this sense in the 13th century by an English man John Garland. The word *Dictionarium* was used in the 14th century. The first Dictionary was Latin-English by Sir Thomas Elyot (1538). For a medieval scholar a dictionary was a collection of diction or phrases put together for the use of pupils studying Latin. One of the purposes of dictionary in medieval times was studying texts and employing synonyms for them. Dictionaries are prepared to serve different practical needs of the people.

(1) as a reference book for different types of information on words e.g. pronunciation, etymology, usage etc. this may be called the store house function of the dictionary.

(2) as a reference point for distinguishing the good or proper usage from the bad or wrong usage. This is the legislative or the court house function of the dictionary².

What is a word?

As elemental as it may be, "the notion of word is not as simple as it seems at first sight" (Lipka 1992, 68). Finding a satisfactory definition for "word" is an elusive goal, and producing one applicable in several languages is an impossible mission. Most of the simple definitions

account for a word to be either “what native speakers think a word is” (Matthews 1972, 75), or “a unit of language as spoken, written or printed” (Hornby and Parnwell 1982, 609), or: “a sound or combination of sounds (or the written symbols) forming a unit expressing an object, action, idea, etc. in a language” (O. S. D. 1988, 720).

The term word denotes the basic unit of a language of a given language resulting from the association of a particular meaning with a particular group of sounds capable of a particular grammatical employment [Arnold 1986, 9].

4.1. What is vocabulary?

“Vocabulary” is a word of Latin origin which displays the following basic meanings:

- (1) a list or collection of words or of words and phrases usually alphabetically arranged and explained or defined: LEXICON
- (2) (a) a sum or stock of words employed by a language, group, individual, or work or in a field of knowledge; (b) a list or collection of terms or codes available for use (as in an indexing system)
- (3) a supply of expressive techniques or devices (W. E. U. D. 1996, 2129).

4.2. What is Lexis?

“lexis” is a word which is frequently used “especially in British linguistics for the vocabulary of a language or sublanguage, consisting especially of its stock of lexemes” (McArthur 1996, 555). Similarly to “vocabulary,” “lexicon” is a word borrowed from Greek and also has three meanings:

- (1) a book containing an alphabetical arrangement of the words in a language and their definitions: DICTIONARY
 - (2) (a) the vocabulary of a language, of an individual speaker or of a group of speakers or of a subject; (b): the total stock of morphemes in a language
 - (3) repertoire, inventory
 - (4) (a) the total inventory of morphemes in a given language; (b) the inventory of base morphemes plus their combinations with derivational morphemes
- (W. E. U. D. 1996, 1107).

A word is a minimal free form of a language that has a given sound, meaning and syntactic function. To sum up the definition of a word will cover the following points:

- A minimal free form of a language;
- A sound unity;
- A unit of meaning;

Compound words form a unit made up of two or more single words

e.g. time + keeper = timekeeper

4.3. Nature of Headwords

- What is a word ? are the following words? want, wanting, wanted, war crime, courthouse, half-baked
- Distinguish:

4.3.1. Orthographic words – different from each other by their spelling

written word surrounded by spaces; but what about compounds, hyphenated forms etc.

Distinguish •

4.3. 2. Phonological words – different from each other by their pronunciation – A sequence of sounds that forms phonological unit (determined by rules of syllable structure, stress, etc)

4.3.3. Lexeme – item of vocabulary that may occur as dictionary headword. Lexemes can be more than one orthographic word i.e. a word or several words that have a meaning that is not expressed by any of its separate parts

- Lexeme is an abstract concept – it is the set of word forms that comprise a paradigm of related words forms, eg. sing – sings –singing - sang – sung (cf. talk – talks – talking – talked – talked) – regular and irregular paradigms; • a lexeme can have many different forms.

* Word-form is inflectional variant of lexeme i.e. word forms have the same lexeme e.g. runs, ran, running are forms of the same lexeme (run). However, the derivative (runner) has a different lexeme.

• * A headword is typically a citation form of a lexeme i.e. represents a lexeme. The headword or lemma, often in bold or some other special font; lemma is the base form under which the word is entered and assigned its place: typically, the ‘stem’, or simplest form (singular noun, present \ infinitive verb, etc.).

Inflections

are these different words or the same word • E.g. sew – sewn – sewing – sewed – sewn (change of form). Grammatically, they are different words. They occur in different context. We may have words which are identical orthographically, but which are pronounced differently. We regard them as different words• e.g. refuse – /rifjuz/ declining, resisting (v.)• /refjus/ - rubbish (n.) (see Homographs)• We also have different spellings for the same pronunciation e.g. practice -_ practise – different words

Homographs

words which are spelt the same but have different pronunciation and meaning (e.g. refuse).• Another issue to consider is which vocabulary we want students to be able to use when they speak and write (their active or productive vocabulary) and which we want them to be able to recognize and understand but not necessarily produce (their passive or receptive vocabulary). [See Melka (1997).]

Homophones

words which are pronounced the same but have different spellings and meanings (e.g. practise – practice)7. Homonyms – words which are spelt and pronounced the same, but have clearly different meanings.e.g. bank **1.** financial institution **2.** side of river or stream **3.** a row of keys on a keyboard

Polysemy

Polysemy is the association of one word with two or more distinct meanings, and a polyseme is a word or phrase with multiple meanings. The word "polysemy" comes from the Greek for "many signs." The adjective forms of the word include polysemous or polysemic.

(Richard Nordquist September 09, 2019) Polysemy (Words and Meanings)

Glossary of Grammatical andRhetorical Terms

Polysemy– refers to one word having a number of senses or variants of a single meaning , e.g.

Grow 1.grow a beard 2.grow apples 3. children's feet grow quickly

Practical Part

Task One:

1. Examine the following definitions of 'lexicology'. What do they agree on as the scope of lexicology? And where do they disagree?
2. An area of language study concerned with the nature, meaning, history and use of words and word elements and often also with the critical description of lexicography. (McArthur, ed. 1992)
3. The study of the overall structure and history of the vocabulary of a language. (Collins English Dictionary 1998)
4. A branch of linguistics concerned with the meaning and use of words. (Longman Dictionary of the English Language 1991)
5. The study of the form, meaning, and behaviour of words. (New Oxford Dictionary of English 1998)

Task Two:

1. Using a desk or concise size general-purpose dictionary, read carefully the entries for the following words: face, narrow-minded, soap . Note for each item:
(a) how many entries (headwords) your dictionary has; (b) how your dictionary treats compound words.
2. Examine the following entry for discriminate, taken from CED (1998):
Discriminate vb (di'skrimi,neit). 1 (intr, usu. foll. by in favour of or against) to single out a particular person, group, etc., for special favour or, esp., disfavour, often because of a characteristic such as race, colour, sex, intelligence, etc. 2 (when intr, foll. by between or among) to recognize or understand the difference (between); distinguish: to discriminate right and wrong; to discriminate between right and wrong. 3 (intr) to constitute or mark a difference. 4 (intr) to be discerning in matters of taste. Adj (dI 'skrImInIt). 5. showing or marked by discrimination. [from Latin discriminare to divide, from discrimen a separation, from discernere to DISCERN] dis'criminateadv dis'crimi,nator n _What information does it give about: pronunciation, morphology, syntax?

(a) Would you expect the following words to be entered more than once in a dictionary (as homographs), or to be treated in a single entry (as a case of polysemy)? First make a guess, then consult a dictionary.

• Coach (bus, give training); cobble (stone for paving, mend shoes); fence (round a field, sport using a sword); mount (ascend, mountain); rook (bird, chess piece); stable (firmly fixed, place for horses); table (piece of furniture, of figures); whim (fancy, machine used in mining).

• (b) Find the following idioms in your dictionary. Which word are they under? Are they cross-referenced from the entries for any of the other words in the idiom? • fly off the handle; turn over a new leaf;

Task Three:

1. Analyse the following words into their constituent morphemes.

coagulative, deactivators, forbearingly, half-deafened, left-handedness, noncombatant, readability, temporarily, weed killer.

2. Give all the possible inflections for the following words:

Bring, cow, forget, guest, high, stop, tall, tooth, weary.

3. Identify the derivational affixes used in the following words. Give a meaning/function for each one, e.g. –ment: has the function of deriving a noun from a verb. enactable, ungracious, preconnection, depressive, incriminatory, declassify, troublesome.

4. Divide the following words into morphemes. For each morpheme identify the type (free or bound, prefix or suffix, inflectional or derivational): Restate, strongest, actively, precede.

What does the word ‘bull’ mean in each of the following sentences?

1. Beware of the bull!

2. I think the elephant is a bull.

3. Stop acting like a bull in a china shop!

4. There was a bull market on the stock exchange today.

5. Well done! You’ve hit the bull’s eye.

6. Don't give me all that bull.

7. I'm afraid that you'll just have to take the bull by the horns.en, -ify, -ize combine with nouns and adjectives to form verbs. Look at the following lists of adjectives and nouns.

Task Four:

Put the corresponding verb in the space provided.

ADJECTIVE > VERB NOUN > VERB

Hard	horror
Modern	memory
Deep	beauty
Intense	sympathy
False	apology
Fat	glory
Sterile	length

Match these abbreviations with their meanings.

1. BSc compact disc
2. FBI for example
3. Fr Federal Bureau of Investigation
4. ext. Personal identification number (usually on a bank card)
5. CD United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
6. asap Bachelor of Science
7. PIN extension
8. e.g. Father (title for a priest)
9. Unesco as soon as possible

Task Five: TOPIC: Talking about work 1

Choose the best (most logical) response to complete each of the following sentences:

1. This job is too (stressed-out/stressful).
2. There's a lot of work, but I can (deal/handle) it.
3. I was (hired/heard) last month.
4. They (fired/failed) two of my co-workers, and I'm afraid I might be next.
5. I work (at/in) sales.
6. My (commute/communion) (= the time it takes me to get to work) isn't so bad.
7. The company has a reputation for treating their (employees/employed) well.
8. I usually don't eat in the (lunchroom/lunch-zone). I go out to eat.

TOPIC: Talking about work 2

Choose the best (most logical) response to complete each of the following sentences:

1. I get along well with most of my(colleagues/employees)(= co-workers).
2. I got a(premonition/promotion) last year.
3. He's not very..... (producing/productive). He just chats to his friends on Facebook all day.
4. I'm pretty..... (content/contained) (= happy) with the way things are going.
5. Everyone seems to have gotten a (raise/boost) (= an increase in salary) except me.
6. We don't have (assess/access) to that information.
7. The (upper/up) management people are not very well liked by the rest of us.
8. I'm taking a week..... (off/of) to go on vacation.
9. The work load isn't too(dense/heavy).
10. They provide us with a good benefits (pack/package).

TOPIC: Describing people (physical traits) 1

Choose the best response to complete each of the following sentences:

1. Jim is (higher/taller) than I am.
2. My sister is (lower/shorter) than I am.
3. My brother isn't fat, he's (stocky/sticky).
4. The word "skinny" is slightly more negative than the word (thinning/thin).
5. He's completely (bold/bald). He lost all of his hair years ago.
6. My sister works out every day, so she's in very good..... (shaped/shape).
7. He's not fat, but he has a bit of a (belly/fat).
8. He's six feet (high/tall).
9. He walks with a (limp/lump).
10. My grandfather has..... (trouble/problem) walking fast. (= he can't walk fast easily)

TOPIC: Describing people (physical traits) 2

-Choose the best response to complete each of the following sentences:

1. My brother is (blind/blonde) in one eye. (= he can't see in one eye)
2. My sister used to(die/dye) her hair blonde.
3. My..... (complex/complexion) is much darker than my brother's.
4. Linda is always (tanned/tan) during the summer.
5. He's not bald, but he does have areducing/receding) hairline.
6. Paula is very good-(looking/viewing). (= attractive)
7. I'm out of shape. I ran for 5 minutes, and I'm already out of (breath/breathing).
8. She has shoulder-(length/long) hair.
9. Peter has a(razored/shaved) head.
10. He is a very(stylish/styling) man. (= he wears very fashionable clothes)

Task Six:

Homonyms are words that are pronounced or spelled the same way but have different meanings.

Which word fits the sentence?

1. I can't _____ your gift.
a. accept b. except
2. The _____ of our school is very tall.
a. principle b. principal
3. _____ not my fault.
a. It's b. Its
4. I _____ the food out.
a. threw b. through
5. The _____ is very good today.
a. whether b. weather
6. Everyone walks down this _____ please.
a. aisle b. isle
7. Which _____ are you taking this year?
a. course b. coarse
8. This is the _____ time that I've told you about this.
a. forth b. fourth
9. I love the _____ of fresh flowers.
a. sent b. scent
10. He hired a _____ to clean his room.
a. made b. maid

Let's Wrap it Up:

QUESTIONS

1. What is the meaning of 'Lexicology'?

.....
.....
.....
.....

2. What is the scope of Lexicology?

.....
.....
.....

3. What do you understand by the term 'word' ?

.....
.....
.....

4. What does 'vocabulary' mean to you?

.....
.....
.....

5. What are the various definitions of the term 'lexicon'?

.....
.....
.....

6. What branches of Linguistics is Lexicology closely connected with?

.....

**Lesson 2. PARTS OF SPEECH: The 8 “building blocks” of the English
language...**

Aims and Objectives:

- 1. help learners know and identify parts of speech**
- 2. Get learners to properly use parts of speech in their writings**
- 3. Familiarize learners with the function of each part of speech and enable them to use them in meaningful sentences.**

1.NOUN

- Person, place, thing or idea: “what or who”
- Nouns are concrete like dogs and cars.
- Or abstract like anger, liberty and friendship.
- Common like desks, puppies and mother.
- Or proper like Juanita, McAllen,

2.VERB

- A verb tells what the noun does or is...
- An action verb tells you that “She dances.”
- A linking or state of being verb tells you that “The monster is ugly.

3.PRONOUN

- A pronoun is a short word that takes the place of a noun.
- Pronouns can be:
 - Subjects : he or she
 - Objects: him or her
 - Possessive: his or hers
 - Indefinite: nobody or all

- Demonstrative: this or those

Important: Always be sure the pronoun has a clear referent!(If you use “they,” be sure the reader knows who “they” are.)

4.ADJECTIVE

- Adjectives are descriptive words used to “modify” or tell more about nouns and pronouns...
- Without colorful and precise adjectives, language would be pretty blah! Presenting a blue car, a red car and a light brown car...

5.ADVERB

- An adverb is a descriptive word that tells more about a verb, an adjective or another adverb.

- Adverbs tell how, where and when:

“Yesterday, she ran quickly downtown.”

- The most commonly used adverb in English is “very.”
- Many adverbs end in “ly”: quickly, carefully, & slowly...

6.PREPOSITION

- A preposition shows a position relationship between two or more nouns or pronouns. • “She walked through the door into the room.”

- The relationship can be spatial, as in the sentence above, or in time, as in the sentence below:

- “After the track meet, he was very tired.”

7.CONJUNCTION

- A conjunction is a short joining word, such as “and, or, but, for, so & yet.”

- The main function of a conjunction is to join words, phrases and clauses together:

- Slowly and carefully

- A red hat and a white shirt

- He had no ticket, but he went anyway.

8.INTERJECTION

- An interjection is a word (or words) of shock or surprise.
- It is usually used by itself and is followed by an exclamation point.
- Examples are: Wow!, Cool!, Awesome! and so on...

“Watch out! Where’d this rocket come from???”

Practical Part:

Task 1. To solve this exercise, you have to identify the noun, pronoun, verb, adverb, adjective, preposition, conjunction, interjection in the given sentences.

1. Tom went to market to buy **books** (_____).
2. He went to the market **but** (_____) did not buy new books.
3. I **liked** (_____) **him** (_____) better than he likes me.
4. A smart girl was dancing **quickly** (_____).
5. **She** (_____) eats apples in the morning daily.
6. When he was **sitting** (_____) on the grass, a snake bit him.
7. **You** (_____) caught him by his arm.
8. A **rich** (_____) lady bought a **beautiful** (_____) necklace.
9. **Hurrah!** (_____) I have passed the examination.
10. The cat is sitting **under** (_____) the chair.
11. **Alas!** (_____) I could not receive you.
12. The body of the cage is made of **iron**. (_____)
13. It is not **your** (_____) pen; it is hers.
14. There is still some milk **in** (_____) the jug.
15. Jimmy is **performing** (_____) his duties diligently.
16. The drawing made by you is **almost** (_____) perfect.
17. I shall not go **unless** (_____) you allow.
18. The road is **to** (_____) go by.
19. The flowers smell **sweet**. (_____)
20. He **frequently** (_____) goes to the beach.

Task 2: Make a list of the nouns in the following sentences and state whether each is a common, proper, collective, abstract or material noun. Fill in the blanks from the aforementioned nouns.

1. **Virtue** (_____) is its own reward.
2. The **committee** (_____) were divided in their opinion.
3. That wall is made of **stones** (_____).
4. Mr. Rachid went to Constantine to visit **Ibn Badis** Old Medersa (_____).

5. He gave me a **bunch** (_____) of **grapes** (_____).
6. This **chair** (_____) is made of **wood** (_____).
7. **London** (_____) is on the **river** (_____) of **Thames** (_____).

Task 3: Identify the type of pronoun

1. He met the **man** (_____) **whom** (_____) I saw yesterday.
2. We love those **persons** (_____) **who** (_____) are kind to us.
3. A tree is known by **its** (_____) fruit.
4. A **boy** (_____) **who** (_____) is attentive is sure to excel.
5. After the servants had done **their** (_____) work, the master sent **them** (_____) away.
6. Tom tried to lift **himself** (_____) out of poverty.
7. Nothing lasts **forever** (_____).

3. Lesson Three: ORIGIN OF ENGLISH WORDS –etymology, lexical borrowing, adding to the lexicon

Importance-Aims and Objectives:

1.To enable learners to have a view about the etymology of the different origins of English Vocabulary

2.To help learners trace out the different developmental phases of the English language

3.1. Etymology: Definition and scope:

Etymology is the branch of linguistic science that treats the history of words and their components, with the aim of determining their origin and their derivation. Distinguished from native words, imported words are classified by their origin and background as well as their form. Those adopted from other languages are known as borrowings if only the elements of imported words are translated, the resulting words are known as loan translations or calques; if only the meaning is taken over, as semantic loans; if elements of foreign words are paired with native elements, the results are known as hybrids.

Besides accounting for the development of native words and the origin of imported words, etymological study may provide information on the earlier grammar and lexicon of both source and target language, and on the social and cultural situation of these at the time of borrowing.

From Etymology by W.P. Lehmann, in International Encyclopedia of the Social & Behavioral Sciences, 2001

Etymology is important because by knowing it you can become a better wordsmith. If you understand where your words came from, you understand them better and may be able to use them more effectively, precisely and beautifully. Knowing etymology will also often help you know the meanings of words you have never seen before. If you look at two people who are related, you can see their similar features and their family tree becomes obvious. In the same way, if you are familiar with word roots and know the etymologies of some words, you can infer the meanings of other words. In this way, your vocabulary can begin to grow on its own.

(Literary Terms. (2015, June 1). Retrieved November 3, 2015, from <https://literaryterms.net/>)

3.2. Brief History of English Development

The root of 'English' is 'Engl' which came from the ancient Germanic tribe, the Angles, who spoke a language that later became English. The -ish is just a suffix, that means "language of" in this case.

There are 1,000's of word-roots in English (or any language). About half of English word-roots come from ancient Germanic languages, because those languages evolved into English, however the other half of English word-roots come from ancient Latin and French because England was conquered by the Norman French 1,000 years ago and English speakers had to learn most of their vocabulary, which became part of English. Contrary to what a lot of people think, though, English is not descended from Latin. It's just that most of our more educated-sounding words were borrowed from Norman French, Latin, or Greek, because they were high-status languages.

As they grow, words can change physically and they can change in meaning. They can also give birth to new words or be adopted from far places and foreign languages. In an etymology, you will find the origins of a word and see when, where and why these changes took place.

(Literary Terms. (2015, June 1). Retrieved November 3, 2015, from <https://literaryterms.net/>)

Examples of origin of English words

Source language	Original word (If the original meaning is different, then it is given in parenthesis)	English word
Chinese	<i>t'e</i>	tea
Dutch	<i>wagen</i>	wagon
Old Norse	<i>vanta</i>	want
Old Norse	<i>taka</i> (grasp)	take

Latin	<i>rapidus</i>	rapid
Latin	<i>plus</i> (more)	plus
Latin	<i>nervus</i> (strength)	nerve
Old French	<i>blanc</i> (white)	blank
Norwegian	<i>klover</i> (skillful)	clever
Italian	<i>spago</i> (small cord)	spaghetti
Arabic	<i>safar</i> (journey)	safari
Greek	<i>beugen</i> (to bend)	bagel

(Reference: *The Heron Derivation Dictionary*)

Important Dates:

- Old English (449-1066)
- 449 Saxons invade Britain
- 6th c Religious literature
- 8th c Beowulf
- 1066 Norman Conquest
- Middle English (1066-1500)
- 1387 Canterbury Tales
- 1476 Caxton's printing press
- 1500 Great Vowel Shift
- Modern English (1450- OR 1500-)
- 1564 Birth of Shakespeare
- Early (1450-1700); Late/Later (1700-1950); International (1950-)

Source: Fromkin, Victoria & Robert Rodman. 1998. An Introduction to Language, 6th edition. Forth Worth: Harcourt Brace College Publishers, p. 450. McArthur, Tom. editor. 1992. The Oxford Companion to the English Language. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

3.3.lexical borrowing

Lexical borrowing is used when a person takes a word from one language to replace an unknown word in a different language. Code-switching happens at the sentence level whereas lexical borrowing happens at the individual word level. Borrowing does not always happen because of a poor memory. Another reason for lexical borrowing is that some words do not translate into another language. This forces the speaker to borrow. For example, many languages do not have a word for computer or internet. Therefore, these words are borrowed when speaking. (in linguistics, October 6, 2017).

3.4.Mechanisms for creating new vocabulary

1.Coining :Word Coinage

Coinage is the word formation process in which a new word is created either deliberately or accidentally without using the other word formation processes and often from seemingly nothing. For example, the following list of words provides some common coinages found in everyday English: All new words are created by one of 13 mechanisms:

Source:(Fromkin, Victoria & Robert Rodman. 1998)

2. Derivation

The commonest method of creating a new word is to add a prefix or suffix to an existing one. Hence realisation (1610s), democratise (1798), detonator (1822), preteen (1926), hyperlink (1987) and monogamish (2011).

Some familiar examples are the elements un-, mis-, pre-, -ful, -less, -ish, -ism and -ness which appear in words like unhappy, misrepresent, prejudge, joyful, careless, boyish, terrorism and sadness. Affixation: Attaching prefix or suffix or both into the Root Word is called Affixation. For example, Un (prefix)- Unbound Ly (Suffix)- Lovely So, it is divided mainly into Prefix, Suffix and Infix. Prefixes and suffixes Looking more closely at the preceding group of words, we can see that some affixes have to be added to the beginning of the word (e.g. un-, mis-). These are called prefixes. Other affixes have to be added to the end of the word (e.g. -less, -ish) and are called suffixes.

All English words formed by this derivational process have either prefixes or suffixes, or both. Thus, *mislead* has a prefix, *disrespectful* has both a prefix and a suffix, and *foolishness* has two suffixes. Infixes There is a third type of affix, not normally used in English, but found in some other languages. This is called an infix and, as the term suggests, it is an affix that is incorporated inside another word. It is possible to see the general principle at work in certain expressions, occasionally used in fortuitous or aggravating circumstances by emotionally aroused English speakers: *Hallebloodylujah!*, *Absogoddamlutely!*.

In the film *Wish You Were Here*, the main character expresses her aggravation (at another character who keeps trying to contact her) by screaming *Tell him I've gone to Singabloodypore!*. The expletive may even have an infixed element, as in *godtripledammit!*.

3. Back formation

The inverse of the above: the creation of a new root word by the removal of a phantom affix. The noun *sleaze*, for example, was back-formed from “sleazy” in about 1967. A similar process brought about *pea*, *liaise*, *enthuse*, *aggress* and *donate*. Some linguists propose a separate category for lexicalisation, the turning of an affix into a word (*ism*, *ology*, *teen*), but it's really just a type of back formation. Other examples of words created by this process are: *Donate* from “donation” *Emote* from “emotion” *Enthuse* from “enthusiasm” *Liaise* from “liaison” *Babysit* from “babysitter” *Opt* from “option” *Lab* from “laboratory” *Gym* from “gymnasium”, etc.

4. Compounding

The juxtaposition of two existing words. Typically, compound words begin life as separate entities, then get hitched with a hyphen, and eventually become a single unit. It's mostly nouns that are formed this way (*fiddlestick*, *claptrap*, *carbon dating*, *bailout*), but words from other classes can be smooshed together too: *into* (preposition), *nobody* (pronoun), *daydream* (verb), *awe-inspiring*, *environmentally friendly* (adjectives).

Common English compounds are: *Book+case= bookcase* *Door+knob= doorknob*, *Finger+print= fingerprint*, *Sun+burn= sunburn* *Text+book= textbook* *Wall+paper=wallpaper* *Waste+basket=wastebasket* *Water+bed=waterbed* All these examples are nouns, but we can also create compound adjectives: *Good+looking= good-looking* *Low+paid= low-paid*) Compounds of adjective(fast) plus noun (food) as in a fast-food.

5. Calquing

Calquing is the word formation process in which a borrowed word or phrase is translated from one language to another. For example, the following common English words are calqued from foreign languages:

- free verse – French – vers libre
- loanword – German – Lehnwort

Calques are also referred to as root-for-root or word-for-word translations.

6. Conversion

Taking a word from one-word class and transplanting it to another. The word *giant* was for a long time just a noun, meaning a creature of enormous size, until the early 15th century, when people began using it as an adjective. Thanks to social media, a similar fate has recently befallen friend, which can now serve as a verb as well as a noun (“Why didn’t you friend me?”).

The word or its root is not modified in any way but is simply used as a different part of speech. For example Google (noun) – to google (verb) or email (noun) – email (verb). Conversion is, in fact, a way of derivation called zero derivation or null derivation.

Obviously, the noun – verb conversion seems to be the most prolific. • access – to access • bottle – to bottle • can – to can • closet – to closet • email – to email • eye – to eye • fiddle – to fiddle • fool – to fool • Google – to google • host – to host • knife – to knife • microwave – to microwave • name – to name • pocket – to pocket • salt – to salt • shape – to shape • ship – to ship • spear – to spear • torch – to torch • verb – to verb

7. Eponyms

Words named after a person or place. You may recognise Alzheimer’s, atlas, cheddar, alsatian, diesel, sandwich, mentor, svengali, wellington and boycott as eponyms – but did you know that gun, dunce, bigot, bugger, cretin, currant, hooligan, marmalade, maudlin, maverick, panic, silhouette, syphilis, tawdry, doggerel, doily and sideburns are too? (The issue of whether, and for how long, to retain the capital letters on eponyms is a thorny one.)

Eponyms are invented by adopting the real or imaginary name. For example: • atlas – Atlas • boycott – Charles C. Boycott • cardigan – James Thomas Brudnell, 7th Earl of Cardigan • cereal

– Ceres 8 • dunce – John Duns Scotus • guillotine – Joseph Ignace Guillotin • jacuzzi – Candido Jacuzzi • luddite – Ned Ludd • malapropism – Mrs. Malaprop • mesmerize – Franz Anton Mesmer • mirandize – Ernesto A. Miranda • narcissistic – Narcissus • nicotine – Jean Nicot • pasteurization – Louis Pasteur • poinsettia – Noel Roberts Poinsett • praline – César de Choiseul, Count Plessis–Praslin • sadistic – Marquis de Sade • salmonella – Daniel Elmer Salmon • sandwich – John Montagu, 4th Earl of Sandwich • volcano – Vulcan

8. Clippings:

There exist four types of clipping: 1) back clipping: dropping the end of the lexeme 2) fore-clipping: dropping the beginning 3) middle clipping: contains only the middle part 4) complex clipping: means cutting on more than one part of the original word.

An increasingly popular method. There are three main subtypes: clippings, acronyms and initialisms. Some words that you might not have known started out longer are pram (perambulator), taxi/cab (both from taximeter cabriolet), mob (mobile vulgus), goodbye (God be with you), berk (Berkshire Hunt), rifle (rifled pistol), canter (Canterbury gallop), curio (curiosity), van (caravan), sport (disport), wig (periwig), laser (light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation), scuba (self-contained underwater breathing apparatus), and trump (triumph. Although it's worth noting that there's another, unrelated sense of trump: to fabricate, as in "trumped-up charge").

9. Abbreviations:

The original expressions are shortened or only the main consonants. Frequently the first and the last consonant create the abbreviation. • Apr. – April • cm – centimetre (s) • d. – died, died in • dept. – department • Dr. – doctor • Jr. – Junior • Mr. – Mister • oz – ounce(s) • Sun. – Sunday • yd – yard(s)

10. Loanwords:

Foreign speakers often complain that their language is being overrun with borrowings from English. But the fact is, English itself is a voracious word thief; linguist David Crystal reckons it's half-inched words from at least 350 languages. Most words are borrowed from French, Latin and Greek; some of the more exotic provenances are Flemish (hunk), Romany (cushty), Portuguese (fetish), Nahuatl (tomato – via Spanish), Tahitian (tattoo), Russian (mammoth), Mayan (shark), Gaelic (slogan), Japanese (tycoon), West Turkic (horde), Walloon (rabbit) and Polynesian (taboo). Calques (flea market, brainwashing, loan word) are translations of

borrowings. Loanwords are the word formation process in which a word from one language is borrowed directly into another language. For example, the following common English words are borrowed from foreign languages:

- algebra – Arabic
- haiku – Japanese
- murder – French
- paprika – Hungarian
- pizza – Italian

11. Onomatopoeia:

The creation of a word by imitation of the sound it is supposed to make. Plop, ow, barf, cuckoo, bunch, bump and midge all originated this way.

12. Reduplication:

The repetition, or near-repetition, of a word or sound. To this method we owe the likes of flip-flop, goody-goody, boo-boo, helter-skelter, picnic, claptrap, hanky-panky, hurly-burly, lovey-dovey, higgledy-piggledy, tom-tom, hip hop and cray-cray. (Willy-nilly, though, came to us via a contraction of “Will he, nill he”.)

13.. Portmanteaus:

Compounding with a twist. Take one word, remove an arbitrary portion of it, then put in its place either a whole word, or a similarly clipped one. Thus, were born sitcom, paratroops, internet, gazunder and sexting. (Note: some linguists call this process blending and reserve the term portmanteau for a particular subtype of blend. But since Lewis Carroll, who devised this sense of portmanteau, specifically defined it as having the broader meaning, I’m going to use the terms willy-nilly.)

Some words came about via a combination of methods: yuppie is the result of initialism ((y)oung and (up)wardly mobile) plus derivation (+ -ie); berk is a clipped eponym (Berkshire hunt); cop, in the sense of police officer, is an abbreviation of a derivation (copper derives from the northern British dialect verb cop, meaning to catch); and snarl-up is a conversion (verb to noun) of a compound (snarl + up).

The popularity of the various methods has waxed and waned through the ages. For long periods (1100-1500 and 1650-1900), borrowings from French were *in vogue*. In the 19th century, loanwords from Indian languages (bangle, bungalow, cot, juggernaut, jungle, loot, shampoo, thug) were the cat's *pyjamas*. There was even a brief *onslaught* from Dutch and Flemish.

In the 20th century, quite a few newbies were generated by derivation, using the -ie (and -y) suffix: talkies, freebie, foodie, hippy, roomie, rookie, roofie, Munchie, Smartie, Crunchie, Furby, scrunchie. *Twitter: @AndyBodle*

This article was amended on 8 February 2016 to remove an incorrect reference to Oxford Dictionaries Online. **How new words are born** *Andy Bodle* 4 Feb 2016 09.00 Last modified on Fri 15 May 2020

14. Blending

The combination of two separate forms to produce a single new term is also present in the process called blending. However, blending is typically accomplished by taking only the beginning of one word and joining it to the end of the other word. Gasoline+alcohol=gasohol. Smoke+Fog=Smog. Smoke + haze= smaze Smoke + murk= smurk. Binary+digit=bit Breakfast+lunch= brunch Motor+hotel)= motel Television+broadcast= telecast Information+entertainment= infotainment, etc

Source: Landau, Sidney I. 2001. Dictionaries: The Art and Craft of Lexicography, second edition. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, p. 155. Adapted from C.K. Ogden & I.A. Richards' The Meaning of Meaning, 1923, p. 11.

Practical Part:

CLIPPING: give the entire word of the following clipped forms

lab

flu ads

Inc. rev

BLENDING: give the two words forming the following blends and translate them:

Sci-fihi-fi

stagflationbrunch

medicare

Teramo, December 18 th , 2009

Lesson Four: Sense Relations

Sense Relations 1

Synonymy / Antonymy

The synonym relation is a relation between two words that map to the same meaning (Murphy, 2003).

Examples: begin / commence leave / depart
 tell / inform kingly / royal / regal
 sofa / couch

Lyons (1977) defined antonyms as words opposite in meaning and antonymy as the oppositeness between words.

Lyons, J. (1977). Semantics. Cambridge University Press.

Examples: big / small (Adj) begin / end (V)
 top / bottom (N)

source: Jackson, Howard. 2002. Lexicography: An Introduction. London: Routledge, pp. 16-18.

Sense Relations 2

Hyponymy / Hypernymy

Hyponymy in semantics roughly illustrates 'the subordinate relation of a word'¹— but what does it mean in practice? To better understand it, let's examine these sentences:

- Your first task for today is to **sweep** the floor.
- Could you **wipe** the crumbs off the table?
- **Scrub** the vegetables clean before cutting them.

The three sentences have one thing in common: they all mean 'to clean something', but use different verbs (sweep, wipe, and scrub). If we put their relationship in a diagram, we get something like this: Clean is the superordinate

From this example we can say that:

- Sweep, wipe and scrub are hyponyms of clean
- Clean is the hypernym of sweep, wipe and scrub

- Sweep, wipe and scrub are co-hyponyms of each other

In other words, **homonymous relations refer to the super- and subordinate relationships** between words. Words on the superordinate level are called **hypernyms**, and words on the subordinate level are called **hyponyms**.

The hierarchical relationship is based on the definition of the word. The word meaning of a **hyponym** (eg sweep, wipe, and scrub) is included in its **hypernym** (clean). Hypernym is then the “broader term” of its hyponyms (a more “specific term” than the hypernym).

- to sweep: to clean a room using a broom
- to wipe: to clean dirt or liquid by rubbing something against a surface
- to scrub: to clean something by rubbing it hard.

source: <https://www.studysmarter.us/>

Examples: silverware [cutlery]: knife, fork, spoon

furniture: sofa, chair, table

Meronymy

Meronymy is a term used to describe a part-whole relationship between lexical items.

Thus *cover* and *page* are meronyms of *book*.

Meronyms vary . . . in how necessary the part is to the whole. Some are necessary for normal examples, for example, *nose* as a meronym of *face*; others are usual but not obligatory, like *collar* as a meronym of *shirt*; still, others are optional like *cellar* for *house*."

Source: (John I. Saeed, *Semantics*, 2nd ed. Wiley-Blackwell, 2003)

Examples:

wheel: hub, rim, spoke

house: foundation, roof, wall

Source: Jackson, Howard. 2002. *Lexicography: An Introduction*. London: Routledge, pp. 16-18.

Sense Relations for "Opposite" Adjectives Gradable More X is less Y; more Y is less X

Examples:

big / small

hot / cold

fast / slow

Complementary Not X = Y; not Y = X

Examples:

alive / dead present / absent awake / asleep

Relational Opposites If A is B's X, then B is A's Y

Examples

give / receive

buy / sell

teacher / pupil

Source: Fromkin, Victoria & Robert Rodman. 1998. An Introduction to Language, 6th edition. Forth Worth: Harcourt Brace College Publishers, pp. 166-168.

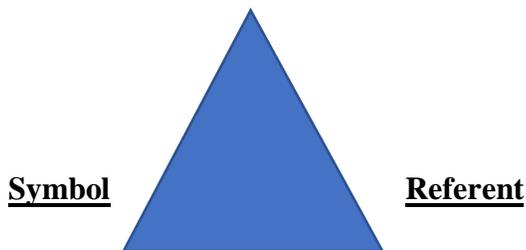
Denotation and Connotation

"While the **denotation** is the straightforward, neutral relation between a word and its referent, the **connotation** brings in the, often emotive, associations that a word may have for a speaker or a community of speakers."

1. **Denotation** refers to the literal meaning of a word, the "dictionary definition." For example, if you look up the word snake in a dictionary, you will discover that one of its denotative meanings is "any of numerous scaly, legless, sometimes venomous reptiles having a long, tapering, cylindrical body and found in most tropical and temperate regions."
2. **Connotation**, on the other hand, refers to the associations that are connected to a certain word or the emotional suggestions related to that word. The connotative meanings of a word exist together with the denotative meanings. The connotations for the word snake could include evil or danger.

source: <http://web.uvic.ca/wguide/Pages/UsConnotation.html>

THOUGHT OR REFERENCE



source: Jackson, Howard. 2002. Lexicography: An Introduction. London: Routledge, .

Collocation

A collocation is two or more words that often go together. These combinations just sound "right" to native English speakers, who use them all the time. On the other hand, other combinations may be unnatural and just sound "wrong". Look at these examples:

natural English...	unnatural English...(wrong to say it)
the fast train	the quick train
fast food	quick food
a quick shower	a fast shower
a quick meal	a fast meal

source: <https://www.englishclub.com/>

"The meaning of a word is also determined by its...collocation, the other words that typically accompany it in the structure of sentences and discourses."

source: Jackson, Howard. 2002. *Lexicography: An Introduction*. London: Routledge, pp. 18-20.

Practical Part:

1. Compare and discuss the following contents

Typical collocations	incorrect/untypical collocations
<i>heavy rain</i>	thick rain
<i>high temperature</i>	tall temperature
<i>scenic view</i>	scenic picture
<i>have an experience</i>	do/make an experience

She has blonde hair. **Not:**  She has **beige** hair.

She was discharged from hospital. **Not:**  She was **released** from hospital.

source: <https://dictionary.cambridge.org/fr/>

2. Choose the best answer to fill the gap in each of the following.

1. The meeting took almost five hours so it was impossible to..... attention all the time.

2 .The problem is difficult to under control.

3. It took us all day to clean up the office after the burglary .The thieves..... a terrible mess.

4. I don't think we should a decision yet; we should wait.

5. Only 31% of the students who the final exam passed it.

6. I think we should look for a new supplier – the one we have at the momentus too many problems.

7. Could you..... me a favour and post these letters on your way home?

8. I've told him ten times that he's got the wrong telephone number. I'll..... crazy if they call again.

9. The company offers its employees free language training but not many people advantage of it.

10. Our personnel assistant is leaving next month - she's..... a baby.

Lesson 5: The Dictionary

5. Dictionaries are books that list all the words in a language. With a Dictionary, you can learn:

- How to spell a word
- What a word means
- How to say a word
- What part of speech a word is
- How many syllables are in a word
- Whether or not to capitalize a word
- How to abbreviate a word (ex= USA)
- Meanings of prefixes and suffixes for a word

5.1. Definition of a dictionary:

Leech (2 1981:204) sees the dictionary as "a store of all the particular facts about a language" [his emphasis], stresses its "open-ended" nature, and distinguishes between "practical" and "theoretical" dictionaries. He uses the term lexicon in the sense of the "inbuilt dictionary", as part of the competence of the native speaker, and identifies it with the "theoretical dictionary" (1981: 207).

5.2. How is a Dictionary Organized?

According to the Oxford English Dictionary (OED), *dictionary* was used for the first time in 1225 by the poet and grammarian Joannes de Garlandia, or John of Garland(e) (1195–1272) as the title of his compilation of Latin vocables, sayings, and maxims arranged according to their subjects, with glosses in French and English, published in Paris, for the use of learners [Bejoint 2010; 6].

There is a big range of dictionaries that are aimed at the learners of English as a second or foreign language; the dictionaries aimed at a native speaker adult user might be termed the general-purpose dictionary and owned by quite many people [Jackson 2002, 24]. An electronic dictionary in the form of a databank can also be edited on a daily basis, allowing changes to be made,

neologisms to be added and obvious errors to be corrected. Such a dictionary is unmistakably dynamic [Piet van Sterkburg 2003, 5].

5.3. Using the dictionary

To make dictionaries easier to use, the words are organized in alphabetical order. This is your first key to remember when using dictionaries. Since there are so many words in a dictionary, **guide words** are used to help you locate a word quickly. Guide words are found at the top of each page. They tell you the first and last word that is found on that page. How do guide words help you find a word quickly?

- Look at the guide words •

Use what you know about alphabetizing to decide if your word falls between the two guide words. Let's pretend we are looking up the word, **science**. First, we would turn to the S section. Then we would use the guide words and what we know about alphabetizing to decide the correct page in the S section. We would look at the guide words at the top of each page and decide which ones our word would come between in alphabetical order.

Science Dictionary Definitions: What do they mean?

Your third key to remember when using dictionaries: Be careful what definition you choose. Have you ever looked up the definition for a word in the dictionary? If so, then you might have been confused by some of the parts of that definition. Today, we're going to learn what each part of a definition means.

- **Headword**- the word you are looking up. It is always in bold type.
- **Entry**- the information on the word you are looking up.
- **Pronunciation**- tells you how to say the word. Found in (parentheses).
- **Part of speech**- tells you how the word is used in a sentence (n=noun, v=verb, adj=adjective, adv=adverb).

5.4.VOCABULARY

- **Definition-** Vocabulary is all possible meanings for the word. Many words have more than one meaning.
- **Etymology-** this tells you the history of the word, and what language it came from. See the definition for flag: flag (flag)
 - **noun:** A piece of cloth with a pattern or symbol of a country, an organization, etc.
 - **verb** to stop, or to signal. We flagged down the police officer.

The word being defined is followed by the pronunciation in parenthesis. flag (flag)

The first word tells the word's part of speech **1. noun**

Finally, you might see a sentence showing how the word is used, especially if the use is not the most common for the word. How do I decide which Definition to use?

- Decide how the word is used.
- Read all meanings of the word given to you.
- Imagine a blank space in the sentence where the word appears.
- Substitute the meaning you feel is correct into that sentence.
- If the sentence still makes sense, then you have the correct definition.

Activity1

- Choose a word to look up in the dictionary. Write that word and dictionary entry on a piece of white paper. Label the parts of the entry.

Activity 2:

Look for a partner. The following words are not in alphabetical order. Put them in order as quickly as you can:

- Ballot, poll, caucus, incumbent, vote, president, nominee, constituency, debate, elect, campaign, office, candidate, federal, electoral college, democrat, republican, whig, referendum.

Lesson Six: Lexical Relations/Structural Semantics/Word Associations /

Classification of Words

Two basic principles of grouping words:

1. to classify words proceeding from the basic types of semantic relations;
2. to group words together starting off with associations connecting the given words with other vocabulary units.

SEMANTIC CLASSES (CATEGORIES):

1.SYNONYMS

- Synonyms** - words belonging to one part of speech, close in meaning and interchangeable at least in some contexts.
- Characteristics:** the semantic relations of equivalence or by semantic relations of proximity.

1.1. Types of synonyms:

Full (total) synonyms characterized by semantic equivalence, are extremely rare.

Examples:

1. "I have always liked you very much, I admire your talent, but, forgive me, - I could never love you as a wife should love her husband."
2. - Was she a pretty girl? - I would certainly have called her attractive.
3. "...his glare suddenly softened into a gaze as he turned his eyes on the little girl.
4. "Neighbours were apt to smile at the long-legged bare-headed young man leisurely strolling along the street and his small companion demurely trotting by his side".
4. "Think you can play Romeo? Romeo should smile, not grin, walk, not swagger, speak his lines, not mumble them".

The degree of semantic proximity is estimated in terms of aspect of meaning: 1. the denotational; 2. the connotational; 3. the pragmatic.

a. The difference in connotation:

Example: famous: -‘known widely, having fame’ and notorious. Thus, famous has a positive emotive evaluation

b. The difference in the pragmatic value: cf.: brotherly – fraternal. Bodily – corporal .In a few cases these synonymic values are reversed, e.g. deed – action (foe – enemy)

1.2. Classification of Synonyms

1.2.1. Stylistic synonymy implies no interchangeability in context because the underlying situations are different, e.g. children – infants, dad – father

1.2.2. Ideographic synonymy presents a still lower degree of semantic proximity and is observed when the connotational and pragmatic aspects are similar, but there are certain differences in the denotational aspect of meaning of two words, e.g. forest –wood, apartment – flat, shape – form

1.2.3. Ideographic-stylistic synonymy is characterized by the lowest degree of semantic proximity. e.g. ask – inquire, expect –anticipate.

1.3. SYNONYMIC DOMINANT -

A dominant element, which is the most general term potentially containing the specific features rendered by all the other members of the synonymic group. In the series leave – depart – quit – retire –clear out -the **verb leave** is a synonymic dominant.

Examples:

- To surprise** — to astonish — to amaze — to astound.
- To shout** — to yell — to bellow — to roar.
- To shine** — to flash — to blaze — to gleam — to glisten — to sparkle — to glitter — to shimmer — to glimmer.
- To tremble** — to shiver — to shudder — to shake.
- To make** — to produce — to create — to fabricate — to manufacture.

1.4. Characteristic features of the dominant synonym

1. High frequency of usage.
2. Broad combinability, i. e. ability to be used in combinations with various classes of words.
3. Broad general meaning.

2.EUPHEMISM -

Euphemism is a substitution of words of mild or vague connotations for expressions-

eg. rough, unpleasant.

- The word **to die** has the following euphemisms: to expire, to pass away, to depart, to join the majority, to kick the bucket, etc;
- The word **lavatory** :□ powder room, □ washroom, □ restroom, □ retiring room, □ (public) comfort station, □ ladies' (room), □ gentlemen's (room), □ water-closet, w.c. □ public conveniences, □ Windsor castle pregnant:
- **pregnant – in the family way**, □ in an interesting condition, □ in a delicate condition, □ with a baby coming, □ (big) with child,

"Euphemisms are words or expressions that speakers substitute for **taboo words** in order to avoid a direct confrontation with topics that are embarrassing, frightening, or uncomfortable:

Examples: God, the devil, sex, death, money, war, crime, or religion. These topics seem to be cross-cultural. A linguistic consequence of cultural taboos is the creation of euphemisms. The euphemism as a linguistic phenomenon shows no signs of disappearing.

3.ANTONYMY

Antonyms – are a class of words grouped together on the basis of the **semantic relations of opposition**. Antonyms are words belonging to one part of speech sharing certain common semantic characteristics and in this respect they are similar to such semantic classes as synonyms, lexical sets, lexico-semantic groups

□ We use the term antonyms to indicate words of the same category of parts of speech which have contrasting meanings, such as

- hot — cold
- light — dark
- happiness — sorrow
- to accept — to reject
- up — down
- cold – warm
- sorrow – gaiety

A polysemantic word may have an antonym (or several antonyms) for each of its mean meanings

Dull – interesting, amusing, entertaining for its meaning of "deficient in interest",

Most antonyms are **adjectives**: high — low, wide — narrow, strong — weak, old — young, friendly — hostile.

- **Verbs** take second place: to lose — to find, to live — to die, to open — to close, to weep to laugh.
- **Nouns** are not rich in antonyms: friend — enemy, joy — grief, good — evil, heaven, — earth, love — hatred.
- **adverbs** derived from adjectives: warmly — coldly, merrily — sadly, loudly — softly;
- adverbs proper: now — then, here — there, ever — never, up — down, in — out

3.1. CLASSIFICATION OF ANTONYMS

Structurally, antonyms can be divided into **antonyms of the same root**, e.g. to do – to undo; cheerful – cheerless; and **antonyms of different roots**, e.g. day – night, rich – poor.

Semantically Antonyms are classified into:

1. Contradictories represent the type of semantic relations that exist between pairs like, e.g. dead – alive, single – married.

2. Contraries (gradable antonyms) are antonyms that can be arranged into a series according to the increasing difference in one of their qualities: in

cold – hot **cool – warm** are intermediate members.

3. Incompatibles - antonyms which are characterized by the relations of exclusion:

morning, afternoon, evening - night

3.2. Interchangeability of Antonyms:

- **Polysemy** may be analyzed through synonymy: handsome can be singled out by means of synonymic substitution a handsome man—a beautiful man; but a handsome reward—a generous reward.
- Polysemy may be also analysed through antonymy: a handsome man—an ugly man, a handsome reward—an insufficient etc.).

3.3. Lexical and Terminological Sets

Lexical sets are words denoting things correlated on extralinguistic groups form: lion, tiger, leopard, puma, cat refer to the lexical set of ‘the animal of the cat family’.

Terminological sets are lexical sets, which acquire a more specialized character:

e.g. 1. names of ‘musical instruments’: piano, organ, violin, drum;

2. names of ‘parts of the car mechanism’: radiator, motor, handbrake, wheels

3.4. Lexico-semantic group:

Verbs of ‘destruction’: to ruin, to destroy, to explore, to kill, etc.

- The word **saleswoman** may be analysed into the semantic components: ‘**human**’, ‘**female**’, ‘**professional**’. Consequently, the word **saleswoman** may be included into a lexico-semantic group under the heading of **human** together with the words man, woman, boy, girl, etc. and under the heading **female** with the words girl, wife, woman and also together with the words teacher, pilot, butcher, etc., as **professionals**.

Different meanings of polysemantic words make it possible to refer to the same word to different lexico-semantic groups:

The verb ‘take’-can mean

- **Make** in the meaning of ‘construct’ is naturally a member of the same lexico-semantic group as the verbs produce, manufacture, etc., whereas in the meaning of ‘compel’ it is regarded as a member of a different lexico-semantic group made up by the verbs force, induce, etc.

The verb ‘take’

- In combination with any member of the lexical group denoting means of transportation is synonymous with the verb go (take the tram, the bus, etc.).
- When combined with members of another lexical group the same verb is synonymous with to drink (to take tea, coffee, etc.).

3.5. SEMANTIC FIELDS

A semantic field - is a large group of words of different parts of speech in which the underlying notion is broad enough to include almost all-embracing sections of vocabulary. The main feature of a semantic field is its national specifics.

□ E.g., (n), cosmonaut (adj.), spacious

to orbit: (v) to orbit, belong to the semantic field of ‘space’.

1. of colours: blue, red, yellow, black, etc.

2. of kinship terms: mother, father, brother, cousin, etc.

3. of pleasurable emotions: joy, happiness, gaiety, enjoyment, etc.

Look at the word ‘captain’

This word cannot be properly understood until we know the semantic field in which this term operates — **the army, the navy, or the merchant service**. Thus, captain is determined by the place it occupies among the terms of the relevant rank system. What captain means we know whether his subordinate is called mate or first officer (merchant service), commander (‘navy’) or lieutenant (‘army’).

See the following Examples:

1. nouns: expanse, extent, surface, etc.;

2. verbs: extend, spread, span, etc.;

3. adjectives: spacious, roomy, vast, broad, etc.

The correlation between the semantic classes may be graphically presented by means of concentric circles (diagram).

- The term antonyms is to be applied to words different in sound-form characterised by different types of semantic contrast of the denotational meaning and interchangeable at least in some contexts.

Lesson Seven: MORPHOLOGY : THE STRUCTURE OF WORDS

7.1. MORPHOLOGY

7.1.1. Free and Bound Morphemes

Analysis at a morphological level is concerned with structural elements of meaning called **morphemes**. Morphemes are classified into two types:

Free Morphemes: girl, boy, mother, etc. These are words with a complete meaning, so they can stand alone as an *independent word* in a sentence.

Bound Morphemes: These are lexical items incorporated into a word as a *dependent part*. They cannot stand alone, but must be connected to another morpheme. Bound morphemes operate in the connection processes by means of **derivation, inflection, and compounding**.

7.1.2. DERIVATIONAL MORPHOLOGY

Derivation is concerned with the way morphemes are connected to existing lexical forms as **affixes**. We distinguish affixes in two principal types:

1. **Prefixes** - attached at the beginning of a lexical item or base-morpheme – ex: un-, pre-, post-, dis, im-, etc.

2. **Suffixes** – attached at the end of a lexical item ex: -age, -ing, -ful, -able, -ness, -hood, -ly, etc.

EXAMPLES OF MORPHOLOGICAL DERIVATION

a. Lexical item (free morpheme): **like** (verb)+ prefix (bound morpheme) **dis-**= dislike (verb) b.

Lexical item: **like** + suffix **-able** = likeable

+ prefix **un-** =unlikeable + suffix **-ness** = unlikeableness

- Lexical item: **like** + prefix **un-** = unlike + suffix **-ness** = unlikeness
- Lexical item: **like** + suffix **-ly** = likely + suffix **-hood** =likelihood + prefix **un-** =unlikelihood
- **Derivational affixes can cause semantic change**

Prefix **pre-** means *before*; **post-** means *after*; **un-** means *not*, **re-** means *again*. Prefix = fixed *before*; Unhappy = *not* happy = sad; Retell = tell *again*.

Prefix **de-** added to a verb conveys a sense of subtraction; **dis-** and **un-** have a sense of negativity. To decompose; to defame; to uncover; to discover

- **Derivational affixes can mark category change**

The derivational suffix **-able** derives an adjective from a verb, implying an ability with a passive relation with its stem: **Eatable** means able to be eaten; edible

Suffix **-er** derives a noun from a verb, indicating a human agent or an inanimate instrument:

Speaker ; Baker

The suffixes **-ful** and **-less** derives an adjective from a noun.

- **-ful** indicates addition, abundance;
- **-less** indicates subtraction, reduction:

careful = full of care whereas **careless** = with no care

The suffixes **-ure** and **-age** derive a noun from a verb: To fail – failure

To marry – marriage The suffix **-hood** derives an abstract noun from a concrete noun, the suffix **-ness** derives an abstract noun from an adjective. Child – childhood

Good – goodness

- The suffix **-ly** derives an adverb from an adjective (but also adjs can end in **-ly**):

Quick – quickly Easy – easily but: lonely (adjective)-The suffix **-ing** derives a noun from a verb: To write – writing.

7.1.3. INFLECTIONAL MORPHOLOGY

Inflection is a morphological process that adapts existing words so that they function effectively in sentences without changing the category of the base morpheme. English has the following inflectional suffixes:

7.1.4. VERB INFLECTIONAL SUFFIXES

- 1. The suffix **-s** functions in the Present Simple as the third person marking of the verb : to work – he work-s
- 2. The suffix **-ed** functions in the past simple as the past tense marker in regular verbs: to love – lov-ed
- 3. The suffixes **-ed** (regular verbs) and **-en** (for some regular verbs) function in the marking of the past participle and, in general, in the marking of the perfect aspect: To study studied / To eat ate eaten
- 4. The suffix **-ing** functions in the marking of the present participle, the gerund and in the marking of the continuous aspect: To eat – eating / To study - studying

7.1.5. NOUN INFLECTIONAL SUFFIXES

- 1.The suffix –s functions in the marking of the plural of nouns: dog – dogs
- 2.The suffix –s functions as a possessive marker (saxon genitive): Laura – Laura’s book.

7.1.6. ADJECTIVE INFLECTIONAL SUFFIXES

The suffix –er functions as comparative marker: quick – quicker

The suffix –est functions as superlative marker: quick - quickest

Practical Part:

Morphology

1. Divide the following words into morphemes (From An Introduction to Language (Fromkin et al., 2011, p.):

Example: replaces = re|place|s

retroactive, befriended, televise, margin, endearment, psychology, unpalatable, holiday, grandmother, morphemic, mistreatment, deactivation, airsickness, predestined

2. Identify the bound & free morphemes in these words (From Yule, 2014, p.73):

fearlessly, happier, misleads, previewer, shortening, unreconstructed

3. Identify the prefixes, suffixes and stems in these words:

Additional question: The prefix in has two meanings. What are they?

uncover, hopeless, heroism, freedom, changeable, preheat, postscript, cohabit, eventful, induce, agreement, poetic, disagree, replace, sleeper, inapt

4. Identify the prefixes, suffixes and stems in these words. Do the affixes change the word class of the stem? (From Yule, 2014, p.59)

misfortune, terrorism, carelessness, disagreement, ineffective, unfaithful, prepackaged, biodegradable, reincarnation, decentralization

5. Which of these words has a bound stem (From Yule, 2014, p.73):

construct, deceive, introduce, repeat

6. Using each of the following suffixes, give four examples of words to illustrate what word class they form. In general, what is the word class of the stem that each suffix is added to?

(From Denning & Leben, English Vocabulary Elements, p. 44)

a. -ish b. -ity c. -ize

7. What are the functional morphemes in the following sentences? (Yule, 2014, p.73)

When she walked into the room, the doctor asked me if I had a sore throat or an annoying cough.

8. Divide the following English words into morphemes and show which are stems, which are derivational affixes and which are inflectional affixes (The Structure of Language – An Introduction to Grammatical Analysis (Pavey, 2011, p.39-40)):

- a. scissors (as in ‘Don’t run with scissors, they’ll slow you down.’)
- b. gameplans (as in ‘I have several gameplans for a situation like this.’)
- c. polysyllabic (as in ‘The word ambiguous is polysyllabic.’)
- d. undercooks (as in ‘Uncle Jim always undercooks the carrots.’)
- e. unlockable (as in ‘This door is totally unlockable.’)
- f. globalization (as in ‘Globalization leads to a loss of identity.’)
- g. procrastinating (as in ‘Have you started to work or are you still procrastinating?’)
- h. forgiveness (as in ‘You should ask for forgiveness from her.’)

9. Which of these words contains an allomorph of the morpheme “past tense” (Yule, 2011, p.75)?

are, have, must, sitting, waits

10. What are the allomorphs of the morpheme “plural” in these words (Yule, 2014, p.73)?

criteria, dogs, oxen, deer, stimuli, judges

11. For each of the words, identify:

- its word class
- all the morphemes
- the stem
- the root – is it free or bound?
- which morphemes are inflectional

- which morphemes are derivational – do these morphemes change the word class?

speakers, consumption, decorating, transmitted, childishness, disloyalty, uncivilized, breakfast, previewing, ex-husbands, spoonfuls, neo-classical, falsities, receives, independence, misunderstandings

Lesson 8: -Collective Nouns-

1. A flight of steps or stairs.
2. A tribe of Indians.
3. A series of events.
4. A heap or a mass of ruins.
5. A heap of sand and stones.
6. A clump of trees.
7. A cluster or a galaxy of stars.
8. A brood of chickens.
9. A nest of ants.
10. A staff of teachers.
11. A crew of sailors.
12. A crowd of people.
13. A procession of people marching as soldiers.
14. An audience in a theatre, a concert or a meeting.
15. A Congregation in a mosque or a church.
16. A pack of cards or hounds.
17. A flock of sheep, birds, lambs or swines.
18. A herd of cows or horses.
19. A gang of thieves and criminals.
20. A committee of representatives.
21. A group of figures and islands.
22. A brace of pigeons.
23. A bevy of ladies.
24. A fell of hair.
25. A nursery of plants.
26. A part of people.
27. A fleet of cars or ships.

28. A council of advisors.
29. A packet of cigarettes.
30. An assembly of people.
31. Museums of art.
32. A squad of soldiers.
33. Genus of plants.
34. a mob of people at a mess.
35. A board of directors.
36. A litter of puppies, baby animals.
37. A swarm of insects.
38. A team of players.
39. A choir of singers.
40. A bunch of flowers, keys or grapes.
41. A suite of rooms, furniture and musical compositions.
42. A Posse of detectives.
43. A shower of rain, drizzle.
44. A fall of snow.
45. A regiment of soldiers, firemen.
46. A range of mountains.
47. A shoal of whales, fish.
48. A stack of logs, wood.
49. A Convoy of partridge, soldiers.
50. A multitude of concourse of people.
51. A pair of shoes.
52. A bundle of hay.
53. A string of camels. 54. A box of cigars.
55. A Posy of flowers.

NOUNS Denoting Sounds

1. Apes gibber 2. Bees hum 3. Camels grunt 4. cocks crow 5. doves coo 6. elephants trump .7. frogs croak 8. hawks scream 9. hounds bay 10. lambs bleat .11. monkeys chatter 12. owls hoot 13. puppies yelp or bark 14. serpents hiss. 15.-turkeys gobble 16. chatter of teeth 17. beating of drums 18. sound of footsteps .19. clatter of hoofs 20. jingling of coins 21. asses bray, 22. cats mew or purr - 23. crows crow 24. ducks quack 25. flies buzz -26 geese gable 27. hens clucks/cackle 28. jackals howl 29. larks warble 30. mice squeak. 31. parrots talk 32. ravens croak 33. tigers growl 34. vultures scream -35. whistling of engines 36. blare of trumpets 37. creaking of shoes 38. sighing of woods 39. rippling of water. 40. bears growl 41. bulls below. 42. cattle low 43. eagles scream 44. goats bleat .45. horses snort or neigh. 46. kittens mew 47. lions roar 48. nightingales sing .49. pigs grunt 50. seagulls scream 51. swans cry 52. wolves howl 53. clank of chains .54. jingling of bells 55. slamming of doors 56. rustling of leaves. 57.birds twitter

Idiomatic Comparisons

As bald as a badger	as cheerful as a lark	as brittle as glass
As cold as ice/as a stone	as cold as charity	as cunning as a fox
As deep as a well	as dry as dust	as dumb as a statute
• As fat as butter	as firm as a lock/rock	as fleet as a deer
• As gay as a lark	as gaudy as a butterfly	as graceful as a swan
As greedy as a wolf	as grasping as a miser	as green as cabbage
As hard as marble	as harmless as a dove	as hoarse as a crow
As hot as pepper	as innocent as a dove	as light as air
• As like as two beans	as fair as a rose	as fresh as a daisy
As like as twins	as loose as a rope of sand -	As merry as a cricket
As mute as a fish	as nimble as a bee	as old as the hills –
As playful as kitten -	As plentiful as blackberries	as poor as a church mouse

As proud as a Lucifer as quick as thought - As quiet as a mouse
 As red as blood/as a rose - As regular as a clock work as ripe as a cherry
 As round as an apple as salty as herring - As silent as the dead
 As silent as the stars - As silly as a sheep as slender as thread
 -As smooth as butter as smooth as oil -As cold as marble
 As cool as cucumber - As dark as midnight as dead as a doornail –
 As dry as a bone/stick as drunk as a lord - As easy as water sift
 As pale as a ghost as fierce as wind - As flat as a board •
 As gaudy as a peacock as gentle as a lamb • As good as a play –
 As grave as a judge as greedy as a dog - As happy as a king
 As hard as a stone - As heavy as lead • As hot as fire
 As hungry as a horse - As light as a feather/butterfly - As loud as a thunder
 • As mad as a hatter - As mute as mice - As pale as a dead person -
 As plump as a partridge as quick as lightning - As round as a ball -
 As sharp as a razor/needle - As smooth as velvet to spread like wild fire
 -To shake like an aspen leaf as soft as butter/wax - As sour as crab
 As stiff as a post - As still as a statue • As straight as an arrow
 As free as air as fresh as a rose as stupid as a donkey •
 As sweet as sugar - as swift as an arrow • as sure as death –
 As tall as poplar/steeple -• As tame as a hare - as thick as a hailstone -•
 As tough as leather- As tricky as a monkey -• as ugly as a scarecrow/toad
 As unstable as water • as warm as wool - as weak as a baby /cat/ kitten
 • As watchful as a hawk - As wet as a drowned rat • As white as snow/wool –
 As wise as a serpent • As wise as Solomon - As yellow as saffron • She wept as a flood of tears
 - As merry as the day long -• As changeable as a moon As busy as a bee • As black as coal/as
 ink - As blind as a mole or a bat • As bold as a lion -As bright as a day or as light • As brown

as a berry - As clear as crystal -• As black as a crow/as midnight - As bitter as gall • As bold as brass - As blind as a beetle ---• As bright as silver

Diminutives-

1. Diminutives are short, (pithy and terse forms) of any word used to express smallness in shape and contents.

- | | | | |
|---------------|------------|---------|----------|
| 2. • Ankle - | Anklet | Arm- | Armlet |
| 3. • Book - | Booklet | Bull - | Bullock |
| 4. • Crown - | Coronet | Duck - | Duckling |
| 5. • Eye - | Eyelet | Lamb - | Lambkin |
| 6. • Man - | Manikin | Owl - | Owlet |
| 7. • Poet - | Poetaster | River- | Rivulet |
| 8. • Stream | -Streamlet | Brook - | Brooklet |
| 9. • Cat - | Kitten | Dear - | Darling |
| 10. • Eagle- | Eaglet | Hill - | Hillock |
| 11. • Leaf - | Leaflet | Nest - | Nesting |
| 12. • Part - | Particle | Ring - | Ringlet |
| 13. • Shade - | shadow | Tower - | Turret |

FOREIGN WORDS AND THEIR PLURALS

- | <u>SINGULAR</u> | <u>PLURAL</u> |
|------------------------|----------------------|
| • Addendum | Addenda |
| • Appendix | Appendices |
| • Basis | Bases |
| • Criterion | Criteria |
| • Formula | Formulas or Formulae |
| • Genus | Genera |

• Index	Indices
• Memorandum	Memoranda
• Oasis	Oases
• Radius	Radii
• Erratum	errata
• Genius	Geniuses/Genii
• Hypothesis	Hypotheses
• Index	Indexes (books)
• Nucleus	Nuclei
• Phenomenon	Phenomena
• Series	Series
• Stimulus	Stimuli
• Species	Species
• Stratum	Strata
• Analysis	Analyses
• Axis	Axes
• Crisis	Crises
• Terminus	Terminuses or Termini

Practical Part

1. Make a list of Foreign Words and their meanings

2. Make a list of other diminutives other than those seen in the lessons

3. Research ten idiomatic comparisons

4. See your dictionary and find out other new Words denoting sounds

Lesson 9: Multi-word lexemes (MWL)

1. Phrasal Verbs

Phrasal verbs –**How do Phrasal Verbs work?**

A phrasal verb consists of the following:

VERB + PARTICLE(S), a second or third word

Example: I eat (verb) + up (particle) I fell (verb) + off (particle)

I put (verb) + on (particle)

The ‘PARTICLE’ is the MOST important word. The particle can affect, increment, enhance, reduce and/or change drastically the meaning of the base verb.

Why do phrasal verbs exist?

Phrasal verbs (separable verbs) are prevalent in Germanic languages: German, Dutch, Danish, Swedish, Norwegian, and English.

Phrasal verbs are not very prevalent in Latin languages:

Castilian, Portuguese, Italian, French, Catalan, Romanian, etc.

What are Phrasal Verbs?

Two-word and 3-word verbs

<u>2-word verbs</u>	_cut up	cut off
	turn on	turn off
	put up	put off
<u>3-word verbs:</u>	look up to	put up with
	come up with	catch up with

Separable vs Non-separable 2- Word Verbs

Separable phrasal verbs have an OBJECT:

Example: I will pick **up** the children.

I will pick the children **up**.

I will pick them **up**.

He puts **on** his shirt.

He puts his shirt **on**.

He puts it **on**.

Some Two word verbs with objects are NOT separable...

Examples:

Correct: I am looking **for** my keys.

Incorrect: I am looking my keys **for**.

Correct: The water wears **through** the wall.

Incorrect: The water wears the wall **through**.

There are 30 to 35 particles that can be used, we are going to look at the 9 MOST important

Examples:

UP	BACK OFF	OVER	OUT
AWAY	IN	DOWN	ON

1) UP:

To complete or finish an action, totally, to increase and to enhance

speak	cut	drink
eat	get	go

turn

look

2) OFF

To separate, finish, stop, disconnect, reduce, decrease

call

cut

get

turn

fall

go

put

take

3.OUT

To remove or exclude, to leave, to terminate

cut

put

get

take

throw

go

check

look

2.Compounds

1.Compound Words

- A compound word is made up of two words. Each word is able to stand by itself with its own meaning. The compound word creates a new meaning.
- example: sawdust = saw + dust
- **VERB + NOUN**

SWEARWORD = offensive word

PICKPOCKET = a person who steals money from other people's pockets

- **PREPOSITIONS + NOUN**

OVERDOSE = too much of a drug taken at one time

- **NOUN + NOUN**

TROUBLEMAKER = someone who makes trouble

WORKPLACE = place where people work

- **ADJECTIVE + NOUN**

BLACKBOARD = board with a black surface

- **PREPOSITION + VERB**

UPROOT = to pull a plant out of the ground, or to leave a place where you have lived for a long time.

2.Compound Adjectives

Compound adjectives are formed of two or three words that work together to modify a noun.

Generally they are hyphenated to avoid misinterpretation.

Examples:

That fifty-minutes class was so comprehensive!

That three-hundred-page book made me sleep! It's very boring!

Look at that hand-made bag! I'll buy one to my mother.

Compound Adjectives can be formed of:

Noun+past participle	<i>a hand-made bag</i>
Noun+participle -ing	<i>a hard-working boy</i>
Adjective (-ed)	<i>a blue-eyed girl</i>
Adverb+past participle	<i>a well-known girl</i>

Fill in the missing parts with the suitable Compound Adjectives

- Michelangelo used to paint with his left hand.
He was a _____ painter
- Kyle works hard to get good grades in medical school.
He is a _____ student.
- People from all over the world know Madonna.
She is a _____ singer.

3. Idiomatic phrases

Idioms

- An **idiom** is a phrase where the words together have a meaning that is different from the dictionary definitions of the individual words.
- That is, they have a meaning that is different from the dictionary definitions of the individual words

Common Idiomatic Phrases & Expressions

Examples:

1. A penny for your thoughts

1. **This idiom is used as a way of asking someone what he is thinking about.**

2. Add insult to an injury

To make a bad situation even worse.

3. Once in a blue moon

When something happens very rarely.

4. See eye to eye

This idiom is used to say that two (or more people) agree on something.

5. Hear it on the grapevine

This means 'to hear a rumor' about something or someone.

6. Miss the boat

This idiom is used to say that someone missed his or her chance at something.

Practical Part:

Activity One: Match List A with List B

List A

1. Kill two birds with one stone
2. On the ball
3. Cut corners
4. To hear something straight from the horse's mouth
5. Costs an arm and a leg
6. The last straw
7. Speak of the devil!
8. Feeling a bit under the weather

List B

- a. This means 'to do two things at the same time'.
- b. When someone understands the situation well.
- c. When something is done badly to save money.
- d. To hear something from the authoritative source.
- e. When something is very expensive.
- f. The final problem in a series of problems
- g. This expression is used when the person you have just been talking about arrives.
- h. Feeling ill.

Activity Two: Explain the following idiomatic expressions

1. the sting is in the tail
2. All asses wag their ears
3. Time hangs heavy on one's hands
4. To wrangle over an asses's shadow
5. A bird of ill-omen
6. A thorn in one's side

7. To hunt with the hounds and run with the hares
8. To be an old hand art
9. To be like a fish out of water
10. To pay an eye for an eye
11. To dog someone
12. every dog has his day
13. A broken reed
14. To lie at anchor
15. To be hand in glove with
16. To know something on one's fingers' tip
17. To keep one's hands above water
18. To set one's shoulder to the wheel
19. To see eye to eye with someone
20. By word of mouth
21. Two heads are better than one
22. To make an investment
23. To help a lame dog over a stile
24. To settle an account
25. To act like a snake on the grass
26. To do something in a twinkle of an eye
27. To have one's time up
28. To step in another's shoes
29. To number one's days.

Activity Three: Complete the following proverbs-

1. Early to bed and early to rise.....
2. Waste not.....
3. A stitch in time.....
4. When poverty comes in.....
5. prosperity makes friends.....
6. Nothing succeeds.....
7. Short reckonings.....

8. First come.....
9. there are wheels.....
10. It is not the cowl.....
11. You can't judge
12. To move heaven.....
13. To let the cat.....
14. To make a mountain.....
15. To call a spade.....
16. To bell.....
17. Better late.....
18. Don't send good.....
19. An apple a day.....
20. What can't be cured.....
21. Don't be penny wise.....
22. Contentment is.....
23. A good beginning is.....
24. As you make your bed.....
25. Too many cooks
26. Don't count your chickens.....
27. Beggars can't be.....
28. There are friends and.....

Activity Four: Explain the following expressions

1. From hand to mouth
2. From mouth to mouth
3. To come to the point
4. to be short of something
5. To touch the bottom
6. to cross to mind
7. Life is full of ups and downs
8. To thank one's stars
9. to devote oneself to a cause

10. to take heart
11. to lay heads together
12. to be under a person's thumb
13. to work shoulder to shoulder
14. to persuade someone
15. to leave the beaten track
16. to be at sea
17. few and far between
18. to go to the red
19. to turn over a new leaf
20. to be on tenterhooks
21. to rest on one's oars
22. to see eye to eye with
23. to get wind
24. to harp on the same string
25. to be at issues
26. to throw off the mask
27. To rob peter to pay Paul

Activity Five: Idioms, proverbs and expressive words

1. Complete the following expressions

1. Be up and.....
2. It is Greek.....
3. to spread like.....
4. to be true.....
5. To rob Peter to.....
6. Few and far.....
7. To burn the candle.....
8. To make a mountain.....
9. to pay off.....
10. To end in.....

2. Explain the following expressions

1. To bell the cat
2. to be in hot water
3. to go to the wall
4. to tremble in the balance
5. to leave no stone unturned
6. to draw oneself up
7. to draw in one's horns
8. to fall down on a job
9. to fly off the handle

3. Use the following expressions in meaningful sentences

1. To draw someone out of his shell
2. To keep a good table
3. to give countenance to
4. to feather one's nest
5. to be ignorant
6. to cut off in the bloom
7. to be in tune
8. to harp on the same string
9. to make amends for.

4. Explain the following expressive words

1. A drunken quarrel
2. A brass farthing
3. a bosom friend
4. crocodile tears
5. a dying prayer
6. an iron hand

7. A chicken-hearted fellow
8. a jack tar
9. a black sheep
10. the upper ten
11. A queer fish
12. A bed of thorns
13. A red-letter day

5. Use the following in meaningful sentences

1. forty winks
2. a hen-pecked husband
3. a field pieces
4. a fast man
5. a small talk
6. the lion's share
7. a bird of passage
8. to have cold feet.

6. Place the following items in their correct places

A gang, herd, choir, bundle, staff, brace, nursery, squad, posy, convoy, brood, pack

1. A.....of cards
2. A.....of thieves
3. A.....of birds
4. A.....of flowers
5. A.....of plants
6. A..... of teachers
7. A..... of singers
8. A.....of hay
9. A.....of chickens
10. A..... of sheep
11. A..... of soldiers

12. A..... of pigeons

7. Say whether the following are TRUE or FALSE

1. A crew of sailors
2. A committee of teachers
3. A herd of pupils
4. a staff of directors
5. A colony of players
6. A flock of pilgrims
7. A team of runners
8. A swarm of insects
9. A group of keys
10. a party of researchers
11. A council of Advisers
12. A flock of birds
13. A crowd of dogs
14. A suite of clothes
15. A stack of trees
16. A clump of trees
17. A crowd of Indians
18. a string of camels
19. A string of hair
- 20.** a box of cigars

8.Fill in the blanks below with the words given (sound effect)

Hum, hiss, growls, rippling, creaking, roar, hoot, howl, quack, croak, bleat, chatter, clank, scream, low, warble, grunt, crow, talk, clatter.

- | | |
|-----------------|----------------|
| 1.Lions..... | 2. Owls..... |
| 3. Parrots..... | 4. Camels..... |
| 5. Hoofs..... | 6. Bees..... |

- | | |
|------------------|-----------------------|
| 7. Chains..... | 8.Ducks..... |
| 9. Lambs..... | 10. Hawk..... |
| 11. Pigs..... | 12. Nightingales..... |
| 13. Jackals..... | 14.Monkeys..... |
| 15. Bears..... | 16..... of water |
| 17. Cocks..... | 18. Shoes..... |
| 19. Frogs..... | 20. Cattle..... |

9. Complete the following with the appropriate comparatives

1. As dry as a.....
2. As quick as.....
3. as brave as.....
4. as free as.....
5. as tame as.....
6. as cheerful as.....
7. as tender as.....
8. as quiet as a
9. as hungry as a.....
10. as tall as a.....
11. as mute as a.....
12. As slippery as.....
13. As steady as a
14. As cold as.....

10.Say whether the following are TRUE or FALSE

- | | |
|----------------------------|-------|
| 1. As heavy as iron | (T/F) |
| 2. as green as pepper | (T/F) |
| 3. As cold as water | (T/F) |
| 4. As playful as butterfly | (T/F) |
| 5. As sweet as honey | (T/F) |
| 6. As bold as a soldier | (T/F) |
| 7. As old as the hills | (T/F) |

- 8. As nimble as a tree (T/F)
- 9. As dumb as a statue (T/F)
- 10. As red as a cherry (T/F)
- 11. As warm as summer (T/F)
- 12. As warm as wool (T/F)
- 13. As tricky as a monkey (T/F)
- 14. As timid as a girl (T/F)

11. Give synonyms to the following words

- 1. Displeasure =.....
- 2. Gallant=.....
- 3. To prohibit=.....
- 4. Disaster =.....
- 5. Labour =.....
- 6. Impressive=.....
- 7. Blissful=.....
- 8. Latent=.....
- 9. To elude =.....
- 10. Amazed=.....
- 11. Humble =.....
- 12. Relieve =.....

Conclusion

Now, we have come to the end of this booklet on *Lexicology* and its general terminology and notions, we expect learners to go through the contents of the eight suggested lessons with a great tenacity to review their prior-knowledge, enrich their lots and delve deep into the word through its different facets. Lexicology is the core of language use and the basis for written expression. Indeed, we write in vocabulary and form our words from its patterns. Hence, mastering lexicology is mastering syntax and semantics. Grammar also has its interrelationship with lexicology and can help in the analysis of syntactic features.

Lexicology is dictionaries in use, the word is at the core, the sentence, a permanent representation. Learners need to know the origin of words they use; they need also to see the synchronic and diachronic development of the written word and neologisms. Morphology is also important to consider when forming words using prefixation and suffixation, derivation, free/ bound morphemes. Everything is needed in lexicology, collective nouns, animal sounds, diminutives, idiomatic expressions, maxims, proverbs add another spice to the written word.

Lexicology helps find the appropriate registers and the pragmatic use of expression. Learners, before they write, need to weigh their words and make every word count to avoid wordiness. They need to equip themselves with good dictionaries to refer to in case of need. The world of lexicology is broad and demands diligence and flexibility. Practical activities can wrap understanding- Learners need to go through the practical realm displayed in this booklet for more understanding.

GLOSSARY OF BASIC LEXICOLOGICAL NOTIONS AND TERMS

General overview of Lexicology as a science.

Lexicology is a branch of Linguistics which studies the vocabulary of the language. The term Lexicology is composed of two Greek morphemes: *'lexis'* meaning 'word, phrase' and *'logos'* which denotes 'learning, science'. Thus, the literal meaning of the term Lexicology is 'the science of the word'.

Lexicology deals with words, word-forming morphemes (derivational affixes) and word-groups or phrases.

The word is the basic unit of language system used for the purpose of human communication, materially representing a group of sounds, possessing a meaning, susceptible to grammatical employment and characterized by formal and semantic unity.

The **word** is the largest on the morphologic and the smallest on the syntactic plane of linguistic analysis. The **word** as well as any linguistic sign is a two-facet unit possessing both form and content or, to be more exact, sound-form and meaning. Neither can exist without the other.

Types of Lexicology:

General Lexicology is part of General Linguistics; it is concerned with the study of vocabulary irrespective of the specific features of any particular language.

Special Lexicology is the Lexicology of a particular language (e.g. English, Russian, etc.), i.e. the study and description of its vocabulary and vocabulary units, primarily words as the main units of the language.

Descriptive Lexicology deals with the vocabulary and vocabulary units of a particular language at a certain time.

Historical Lexicology deals with evolution of the vocabulary units of a language as time goes by.

Contrastive and Comparative Lexicology deal with the study of the correlation between the vocabularies of two or more languages, finding out the correspondences and differences between the vocabulary units of the languages under comparison.

Morphology is the branch of Lexicology studying the structure of a word, types of morphemes and stems.

Phraseology is the branch of Lexicology specializing in the phraseological subsystem of language and is concerned with all types of set expressions.

Lexicography is the science of dictionary-compiling dealing with the problems of the presentation of the number, forms, meaning, usage and origin of vocabulary units.

Etymology is the science studying the origin of the words, native and borrowed lexical units, ways of the assimilation of borrowed words, external replenishment of the vocabulary.

Morphological structure of the word

Morpheme is the smallest two-facet unit (it has sound form and meaning) to be found within the word which is studied on the morphological level of analysis. All morphemes are subdivided into two large classes:

root (free) morphemes and non-root (bound) morphemes. Bound morphemes are represented by grammatical (inflections) and derivational (affixes) morphemes. Affixes include suffixes, prefixes, infixes and semi-affixes.

Semantic features – root morphemes (have individual lexical meaning) and non-root morphemes (have generalized meaning).

Root-morphemes are the semantic centre of the words and the basic constituent part without which the word is inconceivable.

Non-root morphemes include grammatical morphemes (inflections) and derivational

morphemes (affixes).

Inflections carry only grammatical meaning reflecting grammatical categories (tense, number, person, degree, etc.).

Affixes are relevant for building various types of stems – the part of a word that remains unchanged throughout its paradigm. Lexicology is concerned only with affixational morphemes, but not with inflectional ones, unless they are important for word building. Affixes are classified into **prefixes** and **suffixes**: **a prefix precedes the root-morpheme, a suffix follows it**. Besides, we also distinguish infixes (a few) and semi-affixes.

A free morpheme coincides with the stem or a word-form. A great many root-morphemes are free morphemes, for example, the root-morpheme **friend** of the noun **friendship** is naturally qualified as a free morpheme because it coincides with the noun **friend**.

A bound morpheme occurs only as a constituent part of a word. Affixes are, naturally, bound morphemes, for they always make a part of a word, e.g. the suffixes **-ness, -ship, -ise (-ize), etc., the prefixes un-, dis-, de-, etc.** (e.g. **readiness, comradeship, to activise; unnatural, to displease**) and cannot be used separately.

Semi-bound (semi-free) morphemes are morphemes that can function in a morphemic sequence both as an affix and as a free morpheme (a word). For example, the morpheme **well** and **half**, on the one hand, occur as free morphemes that coincide with the stem and the word-form in utterances like sleep **well, half** an hour, on the other hand, they occur as bound morphemes in words like **well-known, half-eaten, half-done**.

Simple words are words which derivationally cannot be segmented into ICs, e.g. **hand, come, blue, etc.**

Derivatives are words which are made up of two ICs, i.e. binary units, e.g. friendly + ness, un+wifely, school- master + ish, etc. All derivatives are marked by the fixed order of their ICs.

Stem is the part of a word that remains unchanged throughout its paradigm. Structurally the **stems** may be:

a) **simple**, which consist of only one, semantically non-motivated constituent. It is phonetically and graphically identical with the root-morpheme and the word-form that habitually represents the word as a whole;

b) **derived**, which are the results of the application of word-formation rules;

c) **compound**, which are always binary, but unlike the derived stems both ICs of compound stems are stems themselves. The derivative structure and morphemic composition of each IC may be of different degree of complexity, for example, the compound stem of the noun **match-box** consists of two simple stems, the stem of the noun **letter-writer** — of one simple and one derived stem, and the stem **aircraft-carrier** — of a compound and derived stem.

Paradigm is a system of forms of one word it reveals the differences and relationships between them; in abstraction from concrete words it is treated as a pattern on which every word of one part of speech models its forms, thus serving to distinguish one part of speech from another. Cf. the noun paradigm – boy (□), boy (-s), boy (-'s), boy (-s') as distinct from that of the regular verb – to work (□), work (-s), work (-ed), work (-ing), etc.

Word formation and its types and patterns

Word formation is the branch of Lexicology which studies the derivative structure of the words and the structural and semantic formulas and patterns after which the new words are created in a language.

Neologism is a word that is formed according to productive word formation pattern or borrowed from another language in recent times and felt as new. Terms 'occasionalism', 'nonce-word' and 'ad hoc word' are used to describe words made for special occasion and not necessarily entering the dictionary

Affixation is generally defined as the formation of words by adding derivational affixes to different types of bases. Affixation is subdivided into suffixation and prefixation.

Prefixation is the formation of words with the help of prefixes.

Suffixation is the formation of words with the help of suffixes. In terms of productivity distinction is usually made between dead and living affixes.

Dead affixes are described as those which are no longer felt in Modern English as component parts of words (as in health, admit, etc).

Living affixes may be easily singled out from a word, e.g. the noun-forming suffixes **-ness, -dom, -hood, -age, -ance**, as in darkness, freedom, childhood, marriage, assistance, etc. or the adjective-forming suffixes **-en, -ous, -ive, -ful, -y** as in wooden, poisonous, active, hopeful, stony, etc.

Compounding or word-composition is one of the productive types of word-formation in Modern English which creates new words by means of joining two derivational bases (stems).

Compounds may be subordinative (second element is semantic nucleus) or coordinative (both components semantically relevant).

Reduplicative compounds are based on onomatopoeic repetition: *hush-hush, blah-blah*.

Conversion is a highly productive way of word-formation by means of transferring one part of speech to another by changing its paradigm, but without altering its initial form (neither phonetic nor graphical changes within the paradigm), e.g. cf. my work— I work; (the) dog's bark — he dogs his girlfriend, etc.

Shortening is the process of word-formation by means of dropping some part of the words. It includes abbreviation and clipping.

(Letter) abbreviation is the process of replacement of longer phrases (names of well-known

organisations, agencies and institutions, political parties, famous people, official offices) to the initial letters the whole group stands for. They are normally pronounced letter by letter, e.g. JFK = John Fitzgerald Kennedy; CBW = chemical and biological warfare, DOD = Department of Defence (of the USA), SST = supersonic transport, etc.

Acronyms are the vocabulary units spoken as words and made by means of abbreviation, e.g. NATO ['neitou] = North Atlantic Treaty Organisation; laser ['leizə] = light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation; radar ['reidə] = radio detection and ranging; Interpol = international police.

Clipping refers to the creation of new words by shortening a word of two or more syllables (usually nouns and adjectives) without changing its class membership.

Clippings are traditionally classified according to the part of the word that is clipped:

1) **Apocope** – when words have been shortened at the end, e.g. ad (from advertisement), lab (from laboratory), mike (from microphone), etc.

2) **Aphaeresis** – when words have been shortened at the beginning, e.g. car (from motor-car), phone (from telephone), copter (from helicopter), etc.

3) **Syncope** – when some syllables or sounds have been omitted from the middle, e.g. maths (from mathematics), pants (from pantaloons), specs (from spectacles), etc.

4) Combined clipping also occur – words that have been clipped both at the beginning and at the end, e.g. flu (from 'influenza'), tec (from 'detective'), fridge (from 'refrigerator').

Blending is the process of creating words by means of merging irregular fragments of several words together, e.g. medicare (from 'medical care'), politician (from 'pollute' and 'politician'), brunch (from 'breakfast' and 'lunch'), smog (from 'smoke' and 'fog'), etc.

Blending (or **fusion**, or **portmanteau**) is a specific type of shortenings, which implies “packing” of two meanings into one word. The process is also called **telescoping** because the words slide into one another like sections of a telescope.

Sound- interchange is a non-productive type of word formation when two words usually connected semantically and etymologically have different sounds (vowels or consonants or both) in their phonetic structure, like speak-speech, blood-bleed, food-feed, etc.

Stress- interchange is one of the ways of word-building, based on a shift of stress, e.g. ‘object – to ob’ject; ‘present – to pre’sent, etc.

Lexicalisation is the process of the vocabulary replenishment when the plural form of nouns (grammatical inflection) loses its grammatical meaning and becomes isolated from the paradigm, as e.g. arm+s = arms= ‘weapons’, custom+s= customs=‘institution controlling import duties’.

Two main types of **word meaning** are **the grammatical** and the **lexical meanings** can be distinguished in words and word-forms.

The grammatical meaning is the formal meaning of the word and may be defined as the component of meaning recurrent in identical sets of individual forms of different words, as, e.g., the tense meaning in the word-forms of verbs (ask**ed**, thought, walk**ed**, etc.) or the case meaning in the word-forms of various nouns (girl’s, boy’s, night’s, etc.).

The lexical meaning of the word may be described as the component of meaning proper to the word as a linguistic unit, i.e. recurrent in all the forms of this word and reflecting features and characteristics of objects and phenomena.

The lexical meaning is a complex phenomenon and may be analyzed as including **denotational** and **connotational** components.

The denotational meaning is the component of the lexical meaning which makes communication possible because the knowledge people have about things is ultimately embodied

in words which have essentially the same meaning for all speakers of that language.

The connotational meaning reflects the stylistic reference and the emotive and/or evaluative charge proper to the word.

Stylistic reference is the belonging of any word to a particular functional style. Stylistically words can be roughly subdivided into literary, neutral and colloquial layers, but not only.

Pragmatic meaning is a component of connotational meaning bound to the circumstances of the communication and reflecting the choice of the word depending on the conditions and participants of the intercourse.

Changes of lexical meaning occur in the course of the historical development of language.

Semantic structure is the arranged set of all the meanings of a word, represented by lexico-semantic variants.

There are two kinds of association involved in semantic changes, namely: a) **similarity of meanings**, and b) **contiguity of meanings**.

Similarity of meanings or **metaphor** may be described as a semantic process of associating two referents, one of which in some way resembles the other, e.g. hand of a clock, warm voice, soft look.

Contiguity of meanings or **metonymy** may be described as the semantic process of associating two referents one of which makes part of the other or is closely connected with it, e.g. hand of a master, the audience (spectators, students, etc.), to eat the loaf of a soup.

Restriction of meaning is the process of change of meaning when a word which before represented broader meaning, now has more restricted one, e.g. hound (OE. hund) which used to denote 'a dog of any breed' now denotes only 'a dog used in the chase'; fowl (OE. fuzol, fuzel) which in old English denoted 'any bird', in Modern English denotes 'a domestic hen or cock'.

Pejorative development of the meaning is the acquisition by the word of some derogatory emotive charge, e.g. ‘boor’ originally denoted ‘a villager, a peasant’ and then acquired a derogatory, contemptuous meaning ‘a clumsy or ill-bred fellow’.

Ameliorative development of the meaning is the improvement of the connotational component of meaning, e.g. ‘minister’ originally denoted ‘a servant, an attendant’, but now – ‘a civil servant of higher rank, a person administering a department of state’.

Polysemy is the linguistic phenomenon when a word has more than one meaning, resulting in semantic structure consisting of a number of lexico-semantic variants.

Lexico-semantic variant of the word is every meaning of a polysemantic word with reference to what it denotes in the extra-linguistic world (referential meaning) and with respect to the other meanings with which it is contrasted in the semantic structure (differential meaning).

Homonyms are words identical in sound-form or spelling but different in meaning.

Cases of **full homonymy** are generally observed in words belonging to the same part of speech, where we observe the coincidences in their paradigms, e.g. ‘a seal¹ (n.)’ and ‘a seal² (n.)’.

Partial homonymy is usually to be found in word-forms of different parts of speech, e.g. ‘a seal¹ (n.)’ and ‘to seal (v.)’

Homographs are words identical in spelling, but different both in their sound-form and meaning, e.g. **bow** (n) [bou] — ‘a piece of wood curved by a string and used for shooting arrows’ and **bow** (n) [bau] — ‘the bending of the head or body’; **tear** (n) [tia] — ‘a drop of water that comes from the eye’ and **tear** (v) [tea] — ‘to pull apart by force’.

Homophones are words identical in sound-form but different both in spelling and in meaning, e.g. sea (n) and see (v); son (n) and sun (n).

Perfect homonyms are words identical both in spelling and in sound-form but different in

meaning, e.g. case¹ (n) — 'something that has happened' and case² (n) — 'a box, a container'.

Hyponymy is a semantic relationship of inclusion. Thus, e.g. vehicle includes car, bus, taxi and so on; oak implies tree; horse entails animal; table entails furniture. The more general term is called **the hyperonym** or **the classifier**, the more specific term is called **the hyponym** of the more general term.

Synonymy is the semantic phenomenon of closeness in the meanings and the same part-of-speech reference of two or more lexical units.

Synonyms are words different in sound-form but similar in their denotational meaning or meanings and interchangeable at least in some contexts. Synonyms are classified as **stylistic**, **contextual**, **occasional**, etc.

Synonymic dominant is the most frequently used neutral word within a synonymic group (as *look* in the row *look, watch, gaze, stare, glance*).

Antonyms are two words belonging to the same part of speech and their denotational meanings express contrary or contradictory notions (opposite meanings).

Contradictories are antonyms that represent the type of semantic relations that exist between pairs like '*dead*' and '*alive*', '*single*' and '*married*', '*perfect*' and '*imperfect*', etc. We can easily distinguish this group of antonyms from the other groups by means of using 'not' before one of the member of the pair to make them semantically equivalent to each other, e.g. cf. not dead = alive, not single = married. '

Contraries are antonyms which admit such possibilities. This may be observed in 'cold — hot', because we have 'cool' and 'warm' as intermediate members.

Obsolete words are words which drop out of the language due to disappearance of the objects of phenomena they denote, e.g. 'yeoman' — 'a man holding and cultivating a small landed estate; a freeholder'.

Archaisms are words felt as outdated and replaced by newer forms and lexemes.

Antroponymes - proper names of people: Ann, Mary, John Smith, the Browns.

Toponymes - proper names of places, e.g. countries, cities, rivers, seas, etc: England, New York, the Volga, the Atlantic ocean, the Elbrus.

Idiom is a set expression which is fully non-motivated as its meaning can not be deduced from the meanings of the words which are its structural components.

Etymology and its notions and terms

Native word is a word which belongs to the original English stock (Anglo-Saxon) as known from the earliest available manuscripts of the old English period.

Borrowed word is a word taken from another language and modified in phonemic shape, spelling, paradigm or meaning according to the standards of English.

Borrowing is the process of adopting words (or word-building affixes) from other languages and also the result of this process, the language material itself, e.g. -able, -ment, -ity, coup d'état, vis-à-vis.

The English proper element – words that don't have similar representatives in other Indo-European or Germanic languages. E.g. bird, boy, lord, lady, woman, daisy, always.

Assimilation of borrowings is a partial or complete adaptation to the phonetic(al), grammatical, semantic, morphological and graphical systems of the receiving language. The degree of assimilation depends on the importance, frequency and length of use of borrowings.

Translation-loans (or loan-translations) are words and expressions formed after the patterns characteristic of the receiving language, but under the influence of the foreign words and expressions. E. g. mother tongue < L. lingua maternal; it goes without saying < Fr. Cela va sans dire;

Semantic borrowing is the appearance of a new meaning due to the influence of a related word in another language (pioneer- member of the teenagers' organization in USSR).

Source of borrowing is the language from which this or that particular word was taken into English.

Origin of the word is the language where the borrowed word was born.

Etymological doublets are words originating from the same etymological source, but differing in phonemic shape and in meaning (shade-shadow, cask-cask, etc.).

Etymological hybrids are words created from both native and borrowed elements, like 'short-age' – English adjective 'short' and French suffix '-age'.

Stylistic differentiation of the English vocabulary and Variants of English

Dialects are local varieties of a language used as a means of oral communication in small localities, they are set off (more or less sharply) from other varieties by some distinctive features of pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary.

Americanism - a word or a word combination peculiar to the English language spoken in the USA. E.g. cookie, elevator, truck, apartment, etc.

Slang words are those which are often regarded as a violation of the norms of Standard English, e.g. 'governor' for 'father', 'missus' for 'wife', 'a gag' for 'a joke', 'dotty' for 'insane'. They are made in different social circles and often enter the general vocabulary making it more colourful and expressive, though sometimes cynical and harsh.

Jargonisms are words marked by their use within a particular social group and bearing a secret and cryptic character, e.g. 'a sucker' — 'a person who is easily deceived'.

Vulgarisms, i.e. coarse words that are not generally used in public, e.g. bloody, hell, damn, shut up, etc.

Lexicography as a science of dictionary compiling

Dictionary is a book listing words of a language with their meanings and often with data regarding pronunciation, usage and origin. They are divided into **encyclopedic** (thing-books) and **linguistic** (word-books).

Dictionaries may be **unilingual** (explanatory), **bilingual** (translation) and **multilingual** (comparative).

Dictionaries may be **general** (describing the whole vocabulary) and **special (specialised)** describing a subsystem of the vocabulary (pronunciation, idioms, synonyms, proverbs, professional terms, etc.).

Glossary is an alphabetical list of terms or words found in or relating to a specific subject, text, or dialect, with explanations; a brief dictionary

The most important **problems in dictionary compiling** are as follows: 1) selection of lexical units; 2) their arrangement; 3) setting of the entries; 4) selection and arrangement of word - meanings; 5) definition of meanings; 6) illustrative material, etc.

Contextual analysis concentrates on determining the minimal stretch of speech and the conditions necessary to find out in which of its individual meanings the given word is used.

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