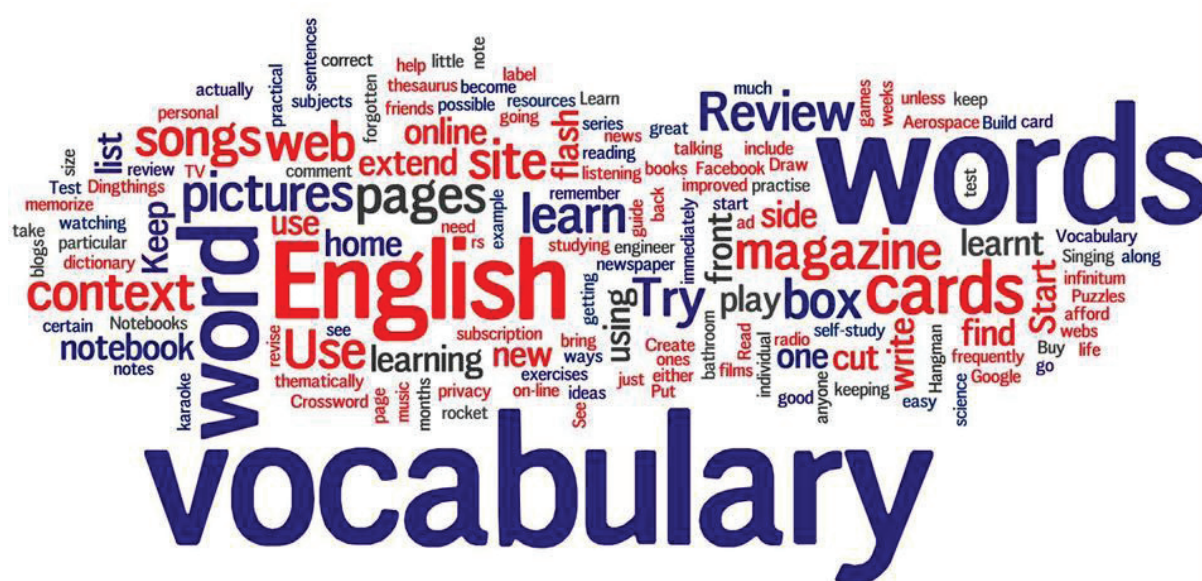Department of English and American Studies
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ENGLISH VOCABULARY STRATIFICATION

Textbook: *ENGLISH VOCABULARY STRATIFICATION*

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Preface

There is a great choice of modern university textbooks on English lexicology nowadays in Slovakia. However, there is a gap in the book market concerning a specific piece of work dealing with English vocabulary only. Students of English philology need a survey of English lexis stratification. In the course of their study, students come across various aspects of English vocabulary and at various language levels, be it phonetics and phonology, morphology, lexicology, syntax, and/or stylistics. Completing their studies they are believed to master all major aspects of systemic linguistics. But from the viewpoint of vocabulary stratification they feel somehow lost and undereducated. This summarizing publication is to provide a synthesis of essential information on vocabulary as a significant aspect of mutually connected system working not only within systemic linguistics, but reaching borders with interdisciplinary disciplines mixed with linguistic branches of scientific knowledge.

The textbook is divided into two main chapters followed by tasks expecting students´ creativity, open-mindedness, and original solutions. Every subchapter is followed by a list of recommended academic materials to study referred to as ´further reading´ that may help readers to find answers to many of their questions. Index of significant notions is included at the back as well.

This publication is intended to help students of English teacher training courses as well as students of translation and interpreting studies who deal with English language in combination with other foreign language(s).

Author
Summer 2019

ABBREVIATIONS

adj   adjective
adv   adverb
AmE   American English
BrE   British English
C   countable (noun), century
c.   circa (approximately, around)
derog derogatory
esp.   especially
fig.   figurative speech
FSP   Functional Sentence Perspective
I   intransitive (verb)
i.e.   id est, that is
in/frml in/formal
interj   interjection
LDAL   Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics
MOD   modal (verb)
n   noun
phr. v   phrasal verb
prep   preposition
O   object
OE   Old English
sb   somebody, someone
sthg   something
T   transitive (verb)
tech   technical term
U   uncountable (noun)
v   verb
WFP   word-formative process
WFPs   word-formative processes

Contents

LIST OF PICTURES

LIST OF TABLES

1 ON LANGUAGE...

Human beings can share their emotions and ideas by several possible ways: with sounds (e.g. by means of human voice, musical instruments etc.), with their gestures and mimics, by visuals (pictures, videos, smoke symbols etc.) or by other means, for example language. To be more precise, by **words** and **word collocations**. And that is something that no other animals can do. Certainly, some birds (e.g. some species of parrots) can imitate human voice, but they do not use this tool in order to share complex ideas or feelings. However, animals communicate with each other as well: wolves by means of sounds (howling), moves, smells; bees by dancing and smells etc. But language in its right sense of word is assigned only to humans. But what does it mean *´to use language´*? A plain answer would be *communication* or *verbal interaction*. However, it is not as simple as it seems.

Using language implicates using sounds structured in fixed morphemes that are usually parts of larger units, so-called **chunks**, also known to linguists as **syntagmas**.

Thus, using language for sharing ideas is a **universal feature** typical of all human societies regardless their level of social, political, educational, and cultural development. Universal features of Germanic languages are building units of language (sounds, morphs, and words), stylistic charge (neutral vs marked words), structural relationships among language units (synonymy, antonymy, etc.), motivation of coining new words and so on.

1.1 Language as a system

It is obvious that language is a good working system of mutually related items of various kinds, categories, and levels that are influencing each other and interacting among themselves (see Picture 1 and/or Picture 2).

Picture 1 The system of language 1

text / discourse

syntagm / clause

word / lexical unit

morph / allomorph

phone / sound
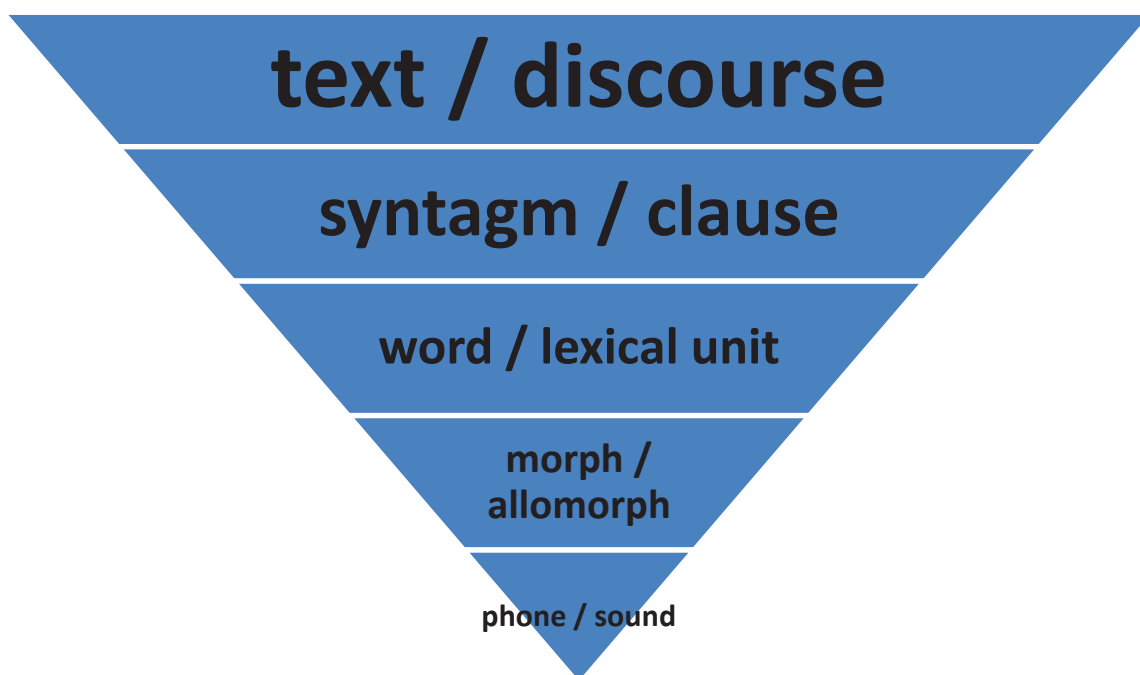
Picture 1 depicts the reversed pyramid representing universal building units of language from the smallest one (phone) up to the largest (text). They represent language levels. All kinds of those units cooperate and mutually influence other levels, i.e. there would be no morphs without phones (sounds), no words without morphs and so on. Every unit fulfils its particular role(s) in function(s) in language. And thus **phone** is the smallest unit of language having distinctive function. That is why one can recognise *bat* from *mat*. Phones /b/ and /m/ fulfil their role. Phones bear no meaning, but help us distinguish one sound from the

other and thus recognise one word from the other one. Compare, comment on and discuss the following examples of minimal sets:

$$bat - cat - fat - hat - mat - pat - rat - sat - that$$

$$big - dig - fig - pig - rig - wig.$$

One can see that the string of words (or minimal set) has "something in common", however, not in a semantic way. It is their structure that is similar. Similar, but not the same. However, it is clear that the distinction between /b/ and /d/ and between /d/ and /f/ etc. enables us to distinguish words from each other and thus epmhasize semantic value of single expressions.

TASK 1
Are the following words appropriate examples of commutation? Explain.
a) *duck – ruler – flute – glue*
b) *book – door – food – good – look – poor – mood*
c) *blood – flood – sloop*
d) *goose – loose – moose – noose*
e) *cool – fool – pool – stool – tool – wool*
f) *coot – foot – moot – root – soot*
g) *boom – doom – room*

Further reading:
English Phonetics and Phonology. A Practical Course (Roach, P., 2006)
English Pronouncing Dictionary (Jones, D., 1997)
Pravidlá výslovnosti britskej a americkej angličtiny (Bázlik, M. – Miškovičová, J., 2012)

Morphs are the smallest meaningful units of language in terms of lexical meaning or grammatical function. Some morphs are multifunctional, e.g. a bound morph -*er* can be a derivational as well as an inflectional morph(eme):

Table 1 Multifunctional morph(eme) *-er*

Derivational *-er*		Inflectional *-er*	
	read$_{(v)}$ + -er = reader$_{(n)}$	**1b**	tall + -er = taller$_{(adj)}$
2a	write$_{(v)}$ + -er = writer$_{(n)}$	**2b**	fast + -er = faster$_{(adv)}$
3a	hat$_{(n)}$ + -er = hatter$_{(n)}$	1b and 2b: *-er* forms the comparative of	
4a	London$_{(n)}$ + -er = Londoner$_{(n)}$	many short adjectives and adverbs as in	
5a	boil$_{(v)}$ + -er = boiler$_{(n)}$	*drier, higher, hotter, sooner* etc.	

Table 1 presents various usages of -er as a derivational morpheme coining new nouns:

1a *-er* refers to an **agent who does something or some activity**, i.e. it indicates a **person** who reads books, emails, papers, etc. It also refers to a **countable noun of dual gender including fe/males**. Basically, it is someone who does something. Similar examples are based on a paradigm as in words *doer, maker*: **verb + -er = noun**.

2a *-er* refers to

a) **a person who does some kind of leisure time activity**, e.g. writes a letter,

b) **a person whose occupation is to write books**, newspaper articles, etc. and thus being a novelist, storywriter or playwright, etc.

The working paradigm is **verb + -er = noun**. Similar examples are: *baker, dancer, driver,* etc.

3a *-er* refers to **a person who makes or produces something**, e.g. hats in this case. The paradigm is **noun + -er = noun**.

4a *-er* refers to someone from London (a London citizen):

a) a person born in London

b) a person working in London

c) a person living in London

d) a combination of aforementioned cases.

The paradigm is noun + -er = noun.

5a *-er* refers to something (not someone), i.e. it indicates a container for boiling water in a steam engine or to provide heating in a house following the paradigm verb + -er = noun.

As one can see, following only morphemic scheme of word-formative process is not the clue to the suitable usage of a resulting word. Morphemes are very tricky. All the previous examples were referring to the bound morpheme *-er*. However, morpheme can be of a twofold nature: free and bound. Of course, not at the same time. The morpheme *ship* vs *-ship* is a good example:

Table 2 Morpheme *ship* vs *-ship*

Free lexical morpheme *ship* coining a) new compound nouns or b) new noun derivatives (root):	Bound derivational morpheme *-ship* productively coining many new derivatives:
a) *battleship*$_{(n)}$, *shipwreck*$_{(n,v)}$, *shipboard*$_{(n)}$, *shipbuilder*$_{(n)}$, *shipmate*$_{(n)}$, *shipyard*$_{(n)}$ b) *shipment*$_{(n)}$, *shipper*$_{(n)}$	*censorship, friendship, ladyship, leadership, membership, musicianship, premiership, professorship, readership, scholarship*

As one could have seen in the previous examples, there would be no words without morphemes (as abstract units) and morphs (their concrete realisations). For a better demonstration of mutual influence of language levels Picture 2 is presented to see that those building units cannot exist without each other. Words or lexical units are building units for syntactic structures (i.e.

syntagmas) and clauses, sentences (or utterances in spoken language respectively). The highest level is demonstrated by the largest circle to make you see that text or discourse functioned as a kind of umbrella to complete all previous levels. However, the language reflects the real life in its complexity, and that is why the thinking of language cannot be simple just like that. There are cases when one sound fulfils the role of sound, morph, and sentence at the same time, e.g. *Oh!* Another time a morph functions as a morph, word and utterance simultaneously: *Ouch!* or *No!* or *Never!* or *Don´t!* All these have a strong emotional value and can be stylistically marked or uttered in a specific context or communicative situation (though there are more factors influencing this).

Picture 2 The system of language 2

text / discource

syntagm / clause

word / lexical unit

morph / allomorphs

phone / sound
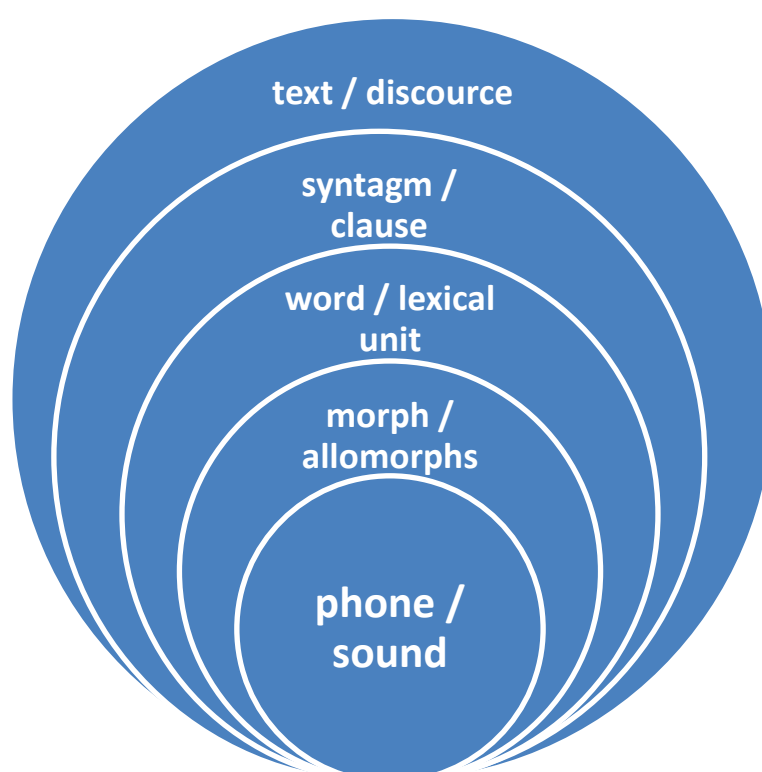
All aforementioned levels are studied by specific branches of systemic (or structural) linguistics (see Picture 3).

Picture 3 The system of language 3 – linguistic terms
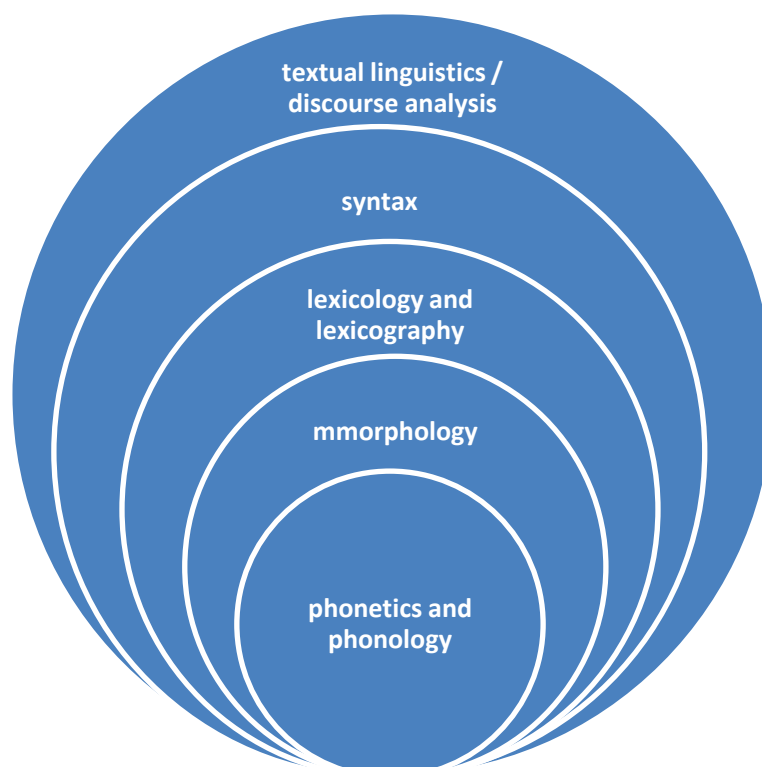
TASK 2

Look up the following lexical morphemes in a monolingual dictionary and check out their meaning(s) and functions (parts of speech):

a) home (n, adj, adv, v)
b) book (n, v)
c) look (n, v, exclamation)
d) belt (n, v T, I)
e) safe (n, adj)

Further reading:
A Concise English Grammar Course **(Kačmárová, A., 2013)**
Anglická gramatika **(Hais, K., 1991)**
Mluvnice současné angličtiny na pozadí češtiny **(Dušková, L. a kol., 1988)**
The English Word **(Arnold, I.V., 1973, 1986)**

1.2 Various approaches towards vocabulary within the systemic linguistics

This subchapter presents approaches towards lexis applied in structural linguistics. However, there are various possible approaches towards stratification of vocabulary (see picture 4 below). Approaches of de Saussure and Ogden – Richards (1.2.1) are introduced first as a background for modern and systemic study of language. Vocabulary in terms of structural relations among lexical units is discussed in subchapter 1.2.2. Neological units are put in contrast to obsolete words in 1.2.3. while stylistic charge is presented in 1.2.4. Origins of words are explained in 1.2.5 while morphological approach is discussed in 1.2.6. Clause elements are briefly explained in 1.2.7 and linguistic motivation in 1.2.8.

Picture 4 below presents stratification of vocabulary from the perspective of structural linguistics, including interdisciplinary approach of sociolinguistics (see 2.1).

Picture 4   Stratification of vocabulary from various viewpoints

vocabulary stratification	
	semantics
	diachrony vs synchrony
	stylistics
	etymology
	morphology
	syntax
	word formation and motivation
	interdisciplinary approaches (e.g. sociolinguistics)
	other...
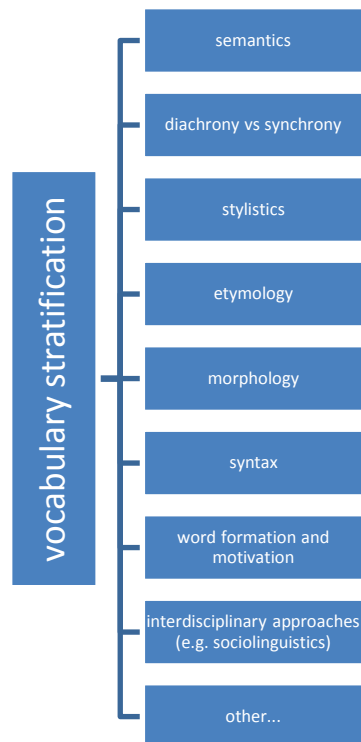
However, there are also other and traditional approaches towards lexicology as the study of vocabulary. Bednárová-Gibová (2018) mentions several sub-disciplines of lexicology, such as lexical semantics (the study of word meanings), lexical morphology (the study word-formative processes), lexicography (the study of dictionaries), onomasiology (the study of the naming of extra-linguistic reality) and onomastics (the study of proper names), etymology (origins of words) and idiomatics (or phraseology respectively which studies idioms and collocations, etc.). Moreover, she adds pragmatics (or pragmalinguistics respectively) to the list, though its approaches go far beyond the structural linguistics perception. Pragmalinguistics (see 2.2) focuses on the relation of language signs (words) and their users (e.g. interlocutors).

There are various approaches to the term **word** or **linguistic sign** (see 1.2.1). **Word** itself, however, is a polysemous and multifunctional expression as demonstrated on the lemma from the OED:

- a single distinct meaningful element of speech or writing, used with others (or sometimes alone) to form a sentence and typically shown with a space on either side when written or printed and its synonyms are **term**, *name, expression, designation, locution*:

a) a single distinct conceptual unit of language, comprising inflected and variant forms;

b) (usually **words**) something spoken or written; a remark or statement – its synonyms are **remark**, *comment, statement, utterance, observation, pronouncement, declaration*;

c) **quarrel**, *argue, disagree, row, squabble, bicker, fight, wrangle, dispute, feud, have a row, cross swords, lock horns, clash, be at each other's throats*:

- a command, password, or signal (**instruction**, order, command; **command**, order, decree, edict, mandate);

- (**one's** word) **one's** account of the truth, especially when it differs from that of another person (**promise**, word of honour, assurance, guarantee, undertaking);

- (**words**) the text or spoken part of a play, opera, or other performed piece; a script (**script**, text);

- a basic unit of data in a computer, typically 16 or 32 bits long[1].

Longman Dictionary of English Language and Culture (1993) covers 18 meanings of **word** functioning as a noun, not to mention its function as a transitive verb. However, it was Bloomfield (1935, 2012) who understood the term as **a minimum free form**. And Katamba (1995) further develops this thought when asserting that it refers to "the smallest meaningful linguistic unit that can be used on its own. It is a form that cannot be divided into any smaller units that can be used independently to convey meaning" (Katamba, 1995:11). In other words, he says that in terms of semantics word is the smallest unit

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[1] https://www.lexico.com/en/definition/word (10/07/2019)

carrying meaning and which is not further analysable (in sense of single meaning) if we do not want to divide it into smaller units (morphemes for instance).

Vocabulary of a language can be divided into two groups which are not fixed and their members can change the groups in regard to circumstances and purposes of language users. The **core** (or **centre**) and **periphery** are recognised within the system of language.

The words which are members of the **core** reach around **1,000 units** and represent neutral vocabulary (*and, go, house, son, the, today*) stable in their (spoken and written) form and meaning or function. Their everyday frequency of usage is quite high. The other feature can be their high productivity in terms of coining new words. On the other hand, **periphery** covers words that are no longer in use (aforementioned archaisms) or they are quite new (and not well-known by language speakers), such as neologisms. Their frequency is much lower in comparison with the members of the core. Their form does not have to be stable, especially in case of new words or new forms. The members of the periphery are stylistically marked words, emotional or specific words, such as expletives and dysphemisms, familiarisms (familiar words), diminutives, euphemisms, slang words, terms, etc.

Further reading:
An Introduction to Language (Fromkin, V. – Rodman, R. – Hyams, N., 2007)
Selected Chapters on English Lexical Semantics (Jesenská, P. – Štulajterová, A., 2013)
Word-Formation in English (Plag, I., 2009)
Word for word (Clark, S. – Pointon, G., 2009)
The English Word (Arnold, I.V., 1973, 1986)

1.2.1 Structural approach of F. de Saussure and Ogden – Richards

It was Ferdinand de Saussure who realised that language is not just a group of individual mutually unrelated words. In his revolutionary work published by his two disciples Charles Bally and Albert Sechehaye three years after his death in 1916 the term of *language* (or *linguistic*) *sign* is introduced as the basic unit of communication within and for a language community (compare de Saussure, 2008; Jesenská – Štulajterová, 2013:50; Crystal, 2010 or Štekauer, 1993). From this point of view, **every word is a linguistic sign**.

All signs are **bilateral units**, which means that they have their form and meaning. In terms of form, spoken and written form of every word is recognized. And in terms of meaning, full (or content) meaning or functional (or grammatical) meaning is recognized.

Linguistic sign covers two abstract concepts that are mutually related and determined, i.e. cannot exist without each other. They are the two sides of the same coin, the acoustic image and concept (see Picture 5 below).

Picture 5 Linguistic sign


The acoustic image refers to **signifiant** [say: siŋifiant], i.e. a spoken and/or written word-form, symbol, signifying component). The concept refers to

signifié [say: siňifijé] which represents the signified component of the linguistic sign. Both, signifiant and signifié, can only exist in mutual unity (see picture 5). The important thing is to realize that Saussure excluded objective reality from his understanding of linguistic sign. He characterized a sign as an obligatory, conventional, arbitrary, and linear unit. Language community is obliged to use a particular sign that has become conventionalized among language speakers. E.g. If *a table* is called *a table*, one cannot refer to it as *a cloud* or something else. The principle of arbitrariness is based on the fact that a word-form is not motivated by any extra-linguistic reality. In other words, there is no direct connection between a linguistic sign (e.g. $t - a - b - l - e$) and an object (a piece of furniture we know as a *table*)[2].

However, this model would not please linguists who can see particular connections between words and objective reality, such as C.K. Ogden and I.A.Richards. They presented their concept of semiotic (or semantic) triangle including objective reality within their understanding. Their tops of triangle represent thought or reference (or that Saussure calls the concept), symbol (word-form called signifiant by Saussure), and referent (real object). There are direct links between the tops of triangle with the exception of connection between the symbol and referent (which is free or arbitrary) as presented in Picture 6 below.

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[2] Arbitrariness is broken in onomatopoeic words because these are motivated by extra-linguistic reality, i.e. motivated by sounds of nature (animals, natural phenomena, such as sounds of animals, water, wind, thunder, etc.) or various kinds of devices and machines (train, car, camera, etc.).

Picture 6   Semiotic triangle
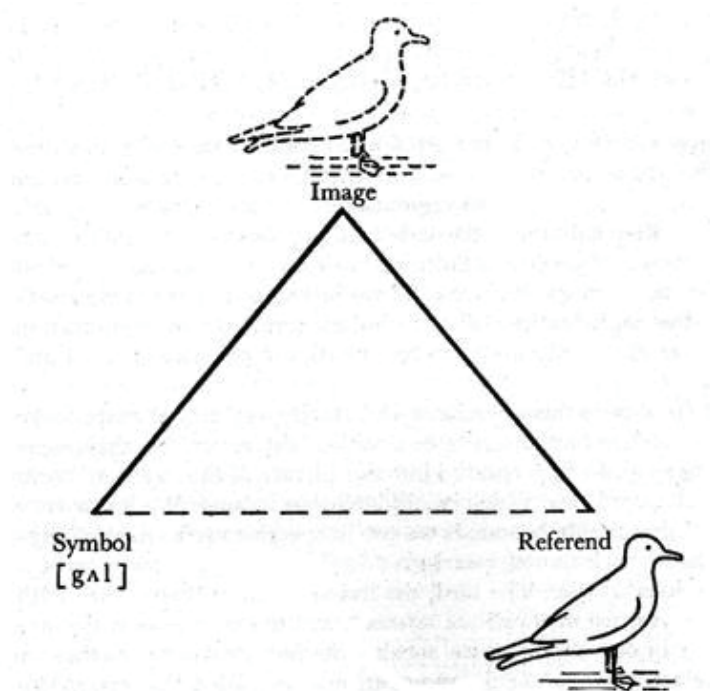
TASK 3

Look at the semiotic triangle above. Identify its tops, i.e. symbol, referent, and reference. Identify and name relationships between them, i.e. find designation, denotation, and signification.

What can you say about linear character of the linguistic sign?

Further reading:

Kurs obecné lingvistiky (de Saussure, F., 2008)
Selected Chapters in English Lexicology. Part I: Lexical Semantics and Lexicography (Bednárová-Gibová, K., 2018)
Selected Chapters on English Lexical Semantics (Jesenská, P. – Štulajterová, A., 2013)
The Meaning of Meaning (Ogden, C.K. – Richards, I.A., 1946)

1.2.2 Vocabulary in terms of semantics

The branch of linguistics concerned with the meaning of words is known as *semasiology* (Greek *sēma* sign + *sēmantikos* significant).

Word as a part of a lexicon conveys lexical or grammatical meaning. Lexical (full or content) words represent an open class of common and proper nouns, full verbs (i.e. auxiliaries and modals excluded), and adjectives. Grammatical meaning is typical of functional words, such as pronouns, auxiliary and modal verbs, interjections, etc. Semasiology, however, does not study grammatical meaning or categories of words. It primarily pays attention to lexical meaning, i.e. denotative and connotative meaning of expressions. **Denotative meaning** (denotation) is, simply said, dictionary (or literary) meaning of an expression. Thus, for instance, a denotative meaning of a *cigar* is *a compact roll of tobacco leaf for smoking*[3]. It is a definition without any positive or negative evaluation or attributes. On the other hand, **connotative meaning** (or connotation) implies an additional meaning to a denotation, usually with a positive or negative attributive charge. E.g. aforementioned cigar can imply the following (see Table 3 below).

Table 3 Connotations of a *cigar*

Positive connotations	Negative connotations
a peace and quiet atmosphere of a moment, absence of disturbance, sitting alone, drinking a class of whisky, spending time in silence and solitude, talking to a friend sharing ideas and good mood	problems with health, going to doctors´ or receiving hospital treatment, lungs cancer, breathing problems, bad breath, unhealthy lungs, spotty teeth, cigar smoke, bad smell in the air as a result of that smoke, etc.

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[3] *Shorter Oxford English Dictionary. On Historical Principles. Deluxe edition. Volume 1. A − M.* 2007

Descriptive synchronic approach towards language focuses on semantic structures in which words mutually exist and influence each other. This approach explains lexicon as a structural system that is mutually related and this is reflected in classification of lexicon in terms of semantics as follows:

a) **Synonyms** (see the picture below). Words with the similar meaning but different form and usually stylistic charge as well. Using Saussure´s terms, synonyms are words sharing very similar *signifiés*, but having different *signifiant*. For instance, *kind of – sort of, child – kid, mother – mom*, etc. Štulajterová (2014:90) accepts Crystal´s classification of synonyms in terms of:

- **dialect difference**: *big-headed* (BrE) *– swollen head* (AmE) *– swelled head* (Australian E), *pavement* (BrE) *– sidewalk* (AmE), *mum/mummy* (BrE) *– mom/mommy* (AmE), *mummy´s boy* (BrE) *– mama´s boy* (AmE);

- **stylistic difference**: *father* (neutral style) *– dad* (informal) *– daddy* (informal style), *excellent* (neutral) *– peach* (infrml);

- **collocational difference**: *pretty/beautiful* (usu. a woman) *– handsome* (usu. a man who is physically very attractive in a traditional/stereotypical masculine way[4]);

- **emotional difference**: "*youth* and *youngster* are synonymous, but *youths* are less pleasant than *youngsters* "(Štulajterová, 2014:90)[5].

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[4] A woman can be described as *handsome* as well, but in an utterly different way, usu. a strong way, e.g. *a handsome woman in her fifties*.

[5] See and compare classification of synonyms presented by Jesenská – Štulajterová in *Selected Chapters on English Lexical Semantics* (2013).

Picture 7 Synonyms

OTHER WAYS TO SAY...

nice	good	bad	sad	happy
enjoyable	excellent	awful	depressed	cheerful
pleasurable	amazing	rotten	gloomy	delighted
thoughtful	wonderful	naughty	miserable	pleased
courteous	pleasant	mean	cheerless	glad
lovely	marvelous	dreadful	unhappy	joyful
likeable	exceptional	nasty	dejected	ecstatic
pleasing	fantastic	wicked	forlorn	content
gracious	super	lousy	sorrowful	jovial
congenial	outstanding	terrible	upset	amused
cordial	terrific	unpleasant	downcast	merry
admirable	splendid	disagreeable	tearful	thrilled
considerate	stupendous	wretched	somber	elated

laughed	like	said	big	little
giggled	admire	commented	huge	small
chuckled	approve	replied	giant	tiny
roared	adore	remarked	gigantic	petite
howled	treasure	declared	enormous	miniature
whooped	fancy	stated	large	teeny
snickered	marvel	exclaimed	massive	itsy-bitsy
guffawed	appreciate	shouted	colossal	miniscule
shrieked	respect	whispered	immense	mini
grinned	cherish	announced	bulky	minute
cackled	favor	responded	hefty	microscopic
bellowed	desire	boasted	tremendous	skimpy
chortled	enjoy	explained	jumbo	wee

ran	walked	pretty	looked	scared
bolted	strolled	beautiful	gazed	afraid
sped	sauntered	gorgeous	examined	frightened
hurried	tiptoed	appealing	glanced	spooked
sprinted	trotted	cute	viewed	horrified
jogged	marched	lovely	observed	startled
rushed	glided	exquisite	peeked	fearful
galloped	strutted	attractive	stared	petrified
hustled	shuffled	elegant	watched	anxious
skipped	crept	handsome	inspected	aghast
raced	trudged	stunning	spied	alarmed
dashed	hiked	fair	studied	terrified
fled	paraded	dazzling	noticed	shaken

Source:
https://www.facebook.com/angolintezet/photos/a.558092504299051/1768068076634815/?type=3&theater (26/06/2019)

b) **Polysemous words**. Words with more meanings (same *significant* and partly identical *signifiés*), e.g. *head*: a part of human body, the most important person of a country (president/monarch), part of a page and so on. Metaphor and metonymy are coined this way, e.g. *big-head* (also

adj *big-headed*) is a person who thinks too much of themselves. Polysemy occurs when new semes are added to the single meaning (sememe) of a lexical unit.

c) **Antonyms**. Words with opposite meaning. E.g. *head of a page – foot of a page*. Typical antonymous pair is represented by words as *big – small, happy – unhappy, good – bad, pretty – ugly*. However, scaling is possible as well, which means that there are more than two members of an antonymous chain. E.g. the temperature of water can vary from hot or boiling to freezing: *boiling – hot – warm – lukewarm – cold – freezing.*[6]

d) **Homonymous words**. Words with identical form (pronunciation and/or spelling) but unrelated meaning due to diachronic changes in their pronunciation or spelling (*signifiant* is the same, but *signifié* is unrelated). Usually they fall into three main groups:

- **homonyms proper** sharing identical spelling and pronunciation and are further subdivided into:

a) ***full homonyms*** (all word forms are homonymous), such as *bank*, financial institution – *bank* of a river, a *pupil* of an eye – a *pupil* at school (see Picture 8 below):

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[6] Detailed classification of antonyms can be found in *Selected Chapters on English Lexical Semantics* (2013) written by Jesenská – Štulajterová.

Picture 8 Homonymy: spring is just around the corner

Spring is just around the corner

Source:
https://www.google.com/search?q=homonymy_spring+is+just+around+the+corner&tbm=isch&source=iu&ictx=1&fir=5oXg-xPLfBBopM%253A%252CoFpcpNhcOtYfdM%252C_&vet=1&usg=AI4_-kRlPyIfG3VZa8_8ZscXYuZSjb0vA&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwj386v9lpvjAhWi1aYKHX8tDowQ9QEwAHoECAMQBA#imgrc=5oXg-xPLfBBopM: (04/07/2019)

b) *partial homonyms* (only some word forms become homonymous under particular circumstances), such as $can_n – can_{MODv}$, $fine_n – fine_{adj, adv}$, $seal_n – seal_v$ or as in Picture 9:
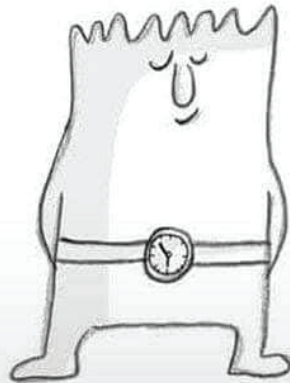
Picture 9   Fine

Source:
https://www.google.com/search?q=i+thought+it+was+fine+to+park+here&tbm=isch&sourc
e=iu&ictx=1&fir=KwJaoMnbfHXFDM%253A%252CkMRquniGr38shM%252C_&vet=1&usg=AI
4_kS5T7zjO_MlXJzj7y5kaPMH0nhHPw&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwjQkLWjh7njAhWBQxUIHdACAo
0Q9QEwAXoECAgQBg#imgrc=KwJaoMnbfHXFDM: (16/07/2019)

- **homophones** having the same pronunciation, but different spelling,
  e.g. *aisle – I´ll, air – heir, be – bee, him – hymn, knight – night, not –
  knot, son – sun, right – write, there – their – they´re, waste – waist:*

Picture 10 Belt

What do you call a belt with a clock on it?

A waist of time.

Source:
https://www.facebook.com/angolintezet/photos/a.558092504299051/2317009025074048/?type=3&theater (26/06/2019)

- **homographs** sharing identical spelling, but having different pronunciation, e.g. *lead* (n) – *lead* (v), *object* (n) – *object* (v), *row* /rəu/ line – *row* /rau/ argument, *tear* (n) – *tear* (v).
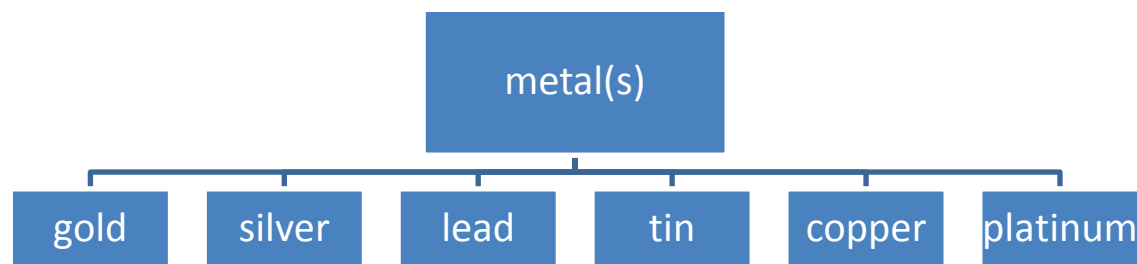
Picture 11 Paper vs pepper

e) **Hyponymous words**. Words at the same level that fall into semantic fields (subordinate words, hyponyms, also called co-hyponyms) sharing one umbrella word (superordinate word) which conveys more general meaning, and therefore stands higher in hierarchy, for example:

```
                        ┌─────────────┐
                        │   metal(s)  │
                        └──────┬──────┘
      ┌────────┬────────┬──────┴──────┬────────┬────────┐
  ┌───┴──┐ ┌───┴──┐ ┌───┴──┐     ┌───┴──┐ ┌───┴──┐ ┌────┴────┐
  │ gold │ │silver│ │ lead │     │ tin  │ │copper│ │platinum │
  └──────┘ └──────┘ └──────┘     └──────┘ └──────┘ └─────────┘
```

Semantic field is a kind of frame, model, or paradigm into which words do fall in terms of theme. They refer to the group of words that are semantically somehow related (see the hierarchical example with *metals* above). Thus words may be framed into various semantic fields according to necessary criteria, e.g. sports, furniture, ball games, seasons of the year, family members, school subjects (or courses), English language varieties, etc. There is no definite number of semantic fields in any language.

Semantic relations among words occur when we feel that they are related to each other somehow. This relation can be reflected in similar, opposite or other way of meaning as we could have seen above.

Some words collocate (they can be combined together in a way that they produce natural discourse) and some do not (they do not combine) as introduced above in synonyms differing in their collocation charge. Thus the dictionary of collocations, e.g. *Oxford Collocations Dictionary for Students of English* (2003), provides various possible combinations of the word language with nouns, adjectives, verbs, and other multi-word expressions:

"Language

- excellent, fluent, good, perfect ~
- bad, broken, poor ~
- colloquial, idiomatic,
  standard/non-standard, pidgin ~

- spoken, written ~
- business ~
- original ~

- know, read, speak, understand, use~
- be fluent in ~
- do, learn ~
- improve, practise ~
- master ~

- translate sth into ~
- ~ class, course, lesson
- ~ interpreter, speaker, a speaker of ~
- a command/knowledge of ~
- in ~."

(Source: *Oxford Collocations Dictionary for Students of English* 2003:450)

From the collocation above one can see that *language* collocates with verbs *know, read, speak, understand, use, do, learn*, but not *drink, go, sit, make*, etc. The word is semantically restricted to the specific verbs only due to its meaning and function (i.e. usage). Collocations (natural combinations) with the most frequent monosyllabic English verbs, such as *have, break, pay, make, save do, take, catch, come, go, get,* and *keep* are presented in Picture 12 below:

Picture 12 Common collocations

Source:
(26/06/2019)

The English language recognizes three primary verbs, *do, be*, and *have*. They function as lexical as well as auxiliary verbs. *Have*, when used as a lexical verb, is a member of various collocations typical of neutral as well as colloquial language (see Picture 13 below):

Picture 13 Collocations with HAVE

collocations

have
verb + noun

an appointment	I have an appointment with the doctor today.
an argument/row	I had a massive argument with him last night.
a baby	My sister's having a baby in May.
a bath	I can't remember the last time I had a bath.
a chance	We have a chance to make things better.
a class	I have classes every day of the week.
a conversation/chat	Sit down and let's have a chat about it.
a drink	I'm going to have a drink with some friends later.
an exam	I have an exam tomorrow. Wish me luck.
an excuse	She has an excuse for everything.
fun	Did you have fun at the party?
a go	That computer game looks fun, can I have a go?
a laugh	Everyone had a laugh at his expense.
a look	That looks interesting. May I have a look?
lunch/dinner	Let's have dinner together on Saturday night.
a nap	I was exhausted so I had a nap on the sofa.
an opportunity	You've already had lots of opportunities.
a plan	Don't worry, I have a plan to fix this.
a problem	Do you have a problem with it?
a rest	You look awful. Lie down and have a rest.
a shower	I usually have two showers a day.
time	I don't have time to waste playing games.
trouble	I had trouble understanding his accent.
a word (with sby)	My boss had a word with me about my actions.
work	We have so much work to do before Friday.

Source:
(26/06/2019)

TASK 4

Read the following short poem *A Word is Dead* by Emily Dickinson. Explain its meaning and provide your own interpretation:

> *A word is dead*
> *When it is said,*
> *Some say.*
> *I say it just*
> *Begins to live*
> *That day.*
>
> **Read the following quotation uttered by Mark Twain and explain semantics resulting in humorous effect: "*Denial ain´t just a river in Egypt.*" (Poslušná – Špirko, 2012:24)**

Further reading:
An Introduction to the Study of the English Language. 2nd extended edition (Štulajterová, A., 2014)
English Stylistics (Štulajterová, A. – Jesenská, P., 2013)
Selected Chapters in English Lexicology. Part I: Lexical Semantics and Lexicography (Bednárová-Gibová, K., 2018)
Selected Chapters on English Lexical Semantics (Jesenská, P. – Štulajterová, A., 2013)
The English Word (Arnold, I.V., 1973, 1986)

1.2.3 Diachronic vs synchronic approach

It is estimated that "every speaker of every language knows tens of thousands of words" (Fromkin – Rodman – Hyams, 2007:71). *Shorter Oxford English Dictionary* (2007) covers over 600,000 lemmas (i.e. dictionary entries). However, most speakers do not know all these words. It is believed that a 6-year-old child knows approximately 13,000 words, while the average high school graduate around 60,000. It is highly likely that the higher (better) the education the more words one knows. People keep on learning new words all their lives. New words and expressions in language are named **neologisms** (see below) and words that are no longer in use are called **archaisms** (see tables 4 and 5). The study of language in a particular period of time is known as **synchronic approach** (usually studies the modern, the latest, variety of

language), while study language in the course of its historical development is known as **diachronic approach**. For example, the adjective *gay*, taken into English from French in the 14th C, has changed (broadened and narrowed) its meaning and membership in the stratification (in standard and slang) several times. Coleman (2014) reflects its records and polysemous character in the OED: *gay*

1) noble, beautiful, excellent (c. 1325 – 1802);
2) a) bright or lively-looking, colourful (1375 –); b) showily dressed (1387 –);
3) carefree, light-hearted, merry (c. 1400 –);
4) a) wanton; lascivious (1405 – 1450); b) dedicated to pleasure, uninhibited, promiscuous (1597 –); c) euphemistic (of a woman) living by prostitution (?1795 – 1967); d) originally US slang (of men, at first, then also women) homosexual (1941 –); e) slang foolish, stupid; socially inappropriate (1978 –)[7].

Archaism is the term taken from Greek *arkhaismós* (something old) through Modern Latin *archaismus*. Jesenská – Štulajterová (2013) assert that "lexical archaism is an obsolete, old or old-fashioned word that is hardly ever used in modern language. It is a common feature of style and register of religion, law or in the dialogues of historical novels" (Jesenská – Štulajterová, 2013:92). Obsolete lexis is very often used for literary, aesthetic or some other specific purposes. For example, *prithee* (meaning "I pray you") from phrase *I pray thee* from *pray* (from Old French *preier* to pray). Development of words in terms of their change in time is a universal feature typical of all Indo-European languages. In English the changes can be observed on words developed from Old English, such as *can* (from *cunnen*), *father* (from *fæder*), *house* (from *hus* meaning *dwelling, shelter,* from Proto-Germanic *hūsan* meaning plausibly *to hide*), *son* (from *sunne*), *stone* (from *stān*), etc.

---

[7] Source: *The Life of Slang* by Julie Coleman (2014:29 – 30)

However, there are many words whose usage was ceased a long time ago. Their form or meaning is obsolete and they are no longer in use. E.g. the following expressions referring to money, wealth or property in English: *argent, cattle, fee, good, mynit, pecuny, scat, white*, etc. (see the following table with words arranged in accordance with timeline of their first recorded appearance in language).

Table 4 Archaic Words for Money in English

mynit **OE**	One of the earliest words known in English, found in the *Historical Corpus* of OED: *nomisma* (piece of money) is listed as *mynet* – a word that later developed into *mint* – and a general sense of money or gold soon developed. It became colloquial during the 16th C, and was slang the the 19th C. One can see it in regional speech too: in Mrs Gaskell´s *Mary Barton* (1848), Margaret tells Mary to "take some of the mint I´ve got laid by in the old tea-pot".
fee **OE**	Originally referred to cattle or other livestock, as well as goods and possessions generally; and so *wealth, riches.* Hrothgar offers Beowulf *feo* if he will kill the monster (*Beowulf*, line 1380). It was quite common in Middle English.
scat **1122**	Pronounced *shat*, a silver coin, sometimes used to mean *money in general,* especially in early Middle English. One can see the general sense still in modern German *Schatz* (treasure).
cattle **1330s**	Originally used in general sense of property and wealth, but then meaning *money,* especially *capital* (as distinct from *interest*). "All her cattle then was spent save twelve pence" is the first recorded usage, in the medieval romance *Amis and Amiloun. Cattle* in sense of *livestock* is later (the 15th C).
white **c.1374**	An early slang term, referring to the colour of silver (as opposed to the red or yellow of gold). In *Troilus and Criseyde* (1384, Book 3), Chaucer condemns those who call love a madness, and promises that "They shall forgo the white and eke [also] the red." Later, *small whites* would be shillings; *large whites* half-crowns (value 2 shillings and 6 pence).
good **c.1400**	*Goods* had a singular in earlier English: *a man of good* was a man of property. Especially in the 16th C, people would talk about sth *costing a great good* – a large sum of money.
pecuny **c.1400**	A French loan, ultimately from Latin *pecunia*, money, and retaining this sense in English, with the stress on the first syllable. "Its poecunie that makes the souldiers merry", says a writer in the 17th C news-sheet, *The Moderate Intelligencer*. The word was still being used in Scotland in the 19th C.
argent **c.1500**	Originally, silver coin, but soon widen to any kind of money, as in modern French. Included in Bailey´s *Dictionary* (1742) as *silver or coin*, but no such meaning is recorded in Johnson´s *Dictionary* a decade later.

Source: *Words in Time and Place* (Crystal, D., 2014:172 – 174)

Shorter Oxford English Dictionary (2007:xxxiv) provides the following time divisions of English language development:

Table 5 English Language Periods

English	Dates	Examples with approximate year of their first emergence or record in the English language
Old English Late Old English	– 1149 1000 – 1149	e.g. ***i-wite***: *witan* meant *to see*. With prefix ge- or i- it meant *look in a certain direction before taking that direction = to set out* or *depart = to pass away*
Middle English Late Middle English	1150 – 1349 (in some contexts 1469) 1350 – 1469	e.g. ***to fall*** c.1300 meant *sudden death*, esp. as a result of violence. It is still used as a solemn way of referring to death in wartime: *those who have fallen in battle*
Late **15thC**	1470 – 1499	e.g. ***have the death*** c. 1488 Today, people *meet* their death, in the 15thC they could *have* or *take the death*, or even *catch* it. This last is still heard in colloquial speech: *If you go out without a coat you´ll catch your death (of cold)!*
Early **16thC** Mid 16thC Late 16thC	1500 – 1529 1530 – 1569 1570 – 1599	e.g. ***go west*** c.1532 Today when things have *gone west* English native speakers usu. mean that things have come to grief in some way; but the idiom was widespread during the WWI in the sense of *died*. *West* probably referred to the place of the setting sun, and the Celtic tradition the abode of the dead. And the 19thC American usage (*Go west, young man*) may have contributed to its popularity, given the association with the pioneering unknown.
Early **17thC** Mid 17thC Late 17thC	1600 – 1629 1630 – 1669 1670 – 1699	e.g. ***go home*** 1618 The operative word is *home, meaning a place which welcomes you after death*. The verb varies: *go* is common, but one can also be *called* or *brought home*, or simply *get home*.
Early **18thC** Mid 18thC Late 18thC	1700 – 1729 1730 – 1769 1770 – 1799	e.g. ***jagged*** 1737 *Jag* was an English dialect word which travelled to America. John Ray, in his collection of English proverbs (1678), includes it as a description of someone who has had *a load* of drink. But the adjectival use seems not to have developed in Britain. All the citations in the *OED* are from the USA or Canada. It is still in use: an *Urban Dictionary* citation from 2005 talks about being "soooo jagged last night".
Early **19thC**	1800 – 1829	e.g. ***paralytic*** 1843 An apt description of those who are so drunk that they are unable to do anything. The first recorded use is Australian, but it may have travelled from

Mid 19thC Late 19thC	1830 – 1869 1870 – 1899	Ireland, where it is recorded (from 1877) in an adapted colloquial form as *parlatic* or *palatic*. One can often hear it in Liverpool and other parts of north-west England, again probably influenced by Irish English.
Early **20thC** Mid 20thC Late 20thC	1900 – 1929 1930 – 1969 1970 – 1999	e.g. *overshot* 1931 The use of *be overshot* meaning *be* mistaken, esp. because one is befuddled with drink, dates from the 16thC, but as an adjective meaning simply *drunk* it seems to have had a brief period of colloquial use in the mid-decades of the 20thC.
Early **21stC**	2000 –	e.g. *grime* 2003 A genre of pop music that began in east London, "influenced by UK garage, dancehall, and hip-hop, and typically characterized by a minimal, prominent rhythm, a very low-pitched bassline, and vocals by an MC" (OED). *Big Issue* (3 January 2005) observed: "Grime has reinvented UK urban music in under 12 months."

Source: *Shorter Oxford English Dictionary* (2007:xxxiv)
and *Words in Time and Place* (Crystal, D., 2014: 4 – 250)

In all those periods, English language has been continuously enriched by means of new items from its own sources and/or from the sources of other languages (Latin, Greek, Scandinavian, French, Italian, etc.).

Archaic vocabulary or old-fashioned words are subdivided into four sub-groups:

1) **historisms** are expressions referring to names of people, things (meals, weapons, musical instruments), institutions, phenomena, social relations, etc. which are out-dated and no longer in use. Good examples are *archer, baldric* (belt for a sword or horn), *battering ram* (an ancient machine for breaking walls), *blunderbus* (an old type of gun).

2) **archaisms** are words which are no longer in general use but they are not absolutely obsolete (Arnold, 1973, 1986, Štulajterová – Jesenská, 2013), e.g. *troth* (faith) or a *losel* (a worthless and lazy fellow). Majority of

archaisms may be replaced by present-day English synonyms (see tables 4 and 5).

3) **obsolescent words** are such expressions that are still in use but they are not very frequent and the process of their aging has just begun, e.g. *garniture* (furniture).

4) **obsolete words** are archaic words "that have already dropped out of the language but are still recognized by the native speakers" (Štulajterová – Jesenská, 2013:44). For instance, *eve* (evening) or *forbear* (ancestor).

Neologism refers to the coinage of a new word, expression, or a new meaning for an already existing word, as "a response to changed circumstances in the external world, which achieves some currency within a speech community" (Crystal, 2014:250). Early in the 21stC appears an expression referring to "a photograph that one has taken of oneself, typically one taken with a smartphone or webcam and shared via social media" (https://www.lexico.com/en/definition/selfie). It is obvious that we are referring to *selfie*infrml (from *self + -ie*) which becomes a motivating element for coining new expressions (which can bear more than one meaning), such as:

- *belfie*infrml (blend of bum, bottom, butt + selfie) meaning a bum selfie (https://www.urbandictionary.com) or "a photograph that one has taken of one's own buttocks, typically one taken with a smartphone or webcam and shared via social media" (https://www.lexico.com/en/definition/belfie),

- *telfie*infrml (blend of television + selfie) meaning a photograph taken in front of a TV; (blend of tummy + selfie) meaning a photo of one´s stomach shared via social networks, (blend of toilet + selfie) meaning selfie taken on a toilet;

- *pelfie*infrml (blend of *pet* + *selfie*) referring to a selfie taken with your pet;

- *nelfie*infrml (blend of *nude* + *selfie*) meaning "a photograph taken by yourself and posted on social media, of yourself, naked" (https://www.urbandictionary.com/define.php?term=nelfie) or simply *a* nude selfie. It may be considered to be "the lowest denominator of vanity in the Social Media Age" (ibid.)

New words are coined this way. Thus words like *celfie, lelfie, melfie, stealthie* and many others, appear.

There are very courageous estimations saying that over 20,000 new words a year appear in the English language. In the electronic age of the Internet and mobile communication new forms are given to already existing words due to language economy. *The Least effort Principle* is applied to communicate as fast as possible and say as much as possible by the least amount of signs, e.g. see Picture 14 below:

Picture 14 SMS English

SMS ENGLISH

& = and	HRU = how are you
2 = two, to or too	LOL = laughing out loud
2DAY = today	LTNS = long time no see
2MORROW = tomorrow	MU = I miss you
B – be	IC = I see
B4 = before	RUOK – are you ok?
BF = boyfriend	U4E = you forever.
BRO = brother	X = kiss
BT = but	
C = see	
D8 = date	
F8 = fate	Read and translate these
GF = girlfriend	sentences:
GR8 = great	A: I mu m8. Ltns. Hru?
L8 = late	B: Oh, I'm fine. I mu 2.
L8r = later	How is ur sis?
M8=mate	A: My sis is Ok. She is
PLS = please	on a d8 2day.
SIS = sister	B: Ic. That's gr8. It's
U = you	getting l8. We should go
UR = your	b4 It get's dark. I hope I
ASAP = as soon as	will cu l8r. Maybe
possible	2morrow?
CUL = see you later	A: Ok! Hand. CUL.
HAND = have a nice day	

The lifespan of a neologism depends on two factors at least: on its **frequency** usage by language users/speakers (the higher the frequency, the faster it loses its novelty charge) and **the awareness of novelty** felt by native speakers (which can last for a couple of months as well as couple of years). The feature of novelty is reflected in a fact that those expressions are **hardly ever recorded in general dictionaries** (though they may appear in specialized dictionaries of neologisms, terms, slang, etc.).

TASK 5

1 Look up (google out) the meaning (and context) of the following neologisms

celfie, lelfie, melfie, stealthie; spoofing; cobots; uni-moon; MoJo; O20.

2 Find reliable web page listing and recording new words in English.

Further reading:
Blending as Lexical Amalgamation and Its Onomatological and Lexicographical Status in English and Slovak **(Böhmerová, A., 2010)**
https://www.smart-words.org/abbreviations/text.html (16/07/2019)
Old English Grammar **(Malá, E., 1999)**
Selected Chapters in English Lexicology. Part I: Lexical Semantics and Lexicography **(Bednárová-Gibová, K., 2018)**
Selected Topics on English Word-Formation **(Jesenská, P., 2015)**
The English Language through the Prism of the Centuries **(Bednárová-Gibová, K., 2014)**
The English Word **(Arnold, I.V., 1973, 1986)**
The Handbook of Sociolinguistics **(Stachurska, A., 2016)**
The Life of Slang **(Coleman, J., 2014)**
Words in Time and Place **(Crystal, D., 2014)**

1.2.4 Stylistic approach

Galperin´s model (1977) of English vocabulary classification in terms of stylistic charge is usually accepted (compare Arnold, 1973, 1986 or Štulajterová – Jesenská, 2013). Style is viewed as an intended choice of stylistic devices and

expressive means for particular purpose. Stylistic devices and expressive means operate at all language levels, including lexical level, which is further subdivided into three main layers in terms of style as presented in the following Picture 15:

Picture 15 Stylistic viewpoint of English vocabulary

The Literary Layer	The Neutral Layer	The Colloquial Layer
• terms • poetic & highly literary words • archaisms • barbarisms • foreignisms • e.g. *kid*	• Standard English vocabulary: is the most prestigeous variety of language (i.e. official language) which is taught at schools, used by mass media and which is spoken by well educated interlocutors. It has no stylistic colouring (i.e. no emotional charge) compared to the literary and colloquial levels. • e.g. *child*	• slang • jargon • professionalisms • dialectisms • expletives (vulgarims & dysfemisms) • colloquial expressions • e.g. *infant*

The examples presented in the picture above (*kid – child – infant*) can be referred to as a synonymous triple (see 1.2.5 and Table 6).

Further reading:
English Stylistics **(Štulajterová, A. – Jesenská, P., 2013)**
Internet Linguistics: A Student Guide **(Crystal, D., 2011)**
Terminológia. Veda pre preklad a tlmočenie. Štatistická analýza textov životného prostredia **(Vallová, E., 2016)**
Stylistics **(Galperin, I.R., 1977)**
The Life of Slang **(Coleman, J., 2014)**

1.2.5 Etymological approach

Lexis understood and studied in terms of origin can be divided into native and borrowed words. Picture 16 below presents the origins of the word *two* in various Indo-European languages, such as English, German, French, Greek, etc.

Picture 16 Etymology of *two*

Source:
https://www.facebook.com/photo.php?fbid=10157158927668847&set=a.10150999003268847&type=3&theater (26/06/2019)

There is a special feature of English synonymy which is the contrast between (usually) simple native English words (of an Anglo-Saxon origin) and literary words and/or terms borrowed from French and Latin or Greek, respectively. This contrast results in what Arnold (1973) calls synonymous triples as presented in Table 6 below:

Table 6 Synonymous Triple

Native English Words	Word Borrowed from French	Word borrowed from Latin
ask (neutral)	*question* (neutral)	*interrogate* (specialized)
belly (informal)	*stomach*(neutral)	*abdomen* (specialized, term)
gather (neutral)	*assemble*(neutral)	*collect*(neutral)
empty (neutral)	*devoid* (formal)	*vacuous* (formal)
end (neutral)	*finish*(neutral)	*complete*(neutral)
rise (neutral)	*mount*(neutral)	*ascend* (formal)
teaching (neutral)	*guidance*(neutral)	*instruction*(neutral)

Source: Arnold (1973 :187)

Further reading:
Európa jazykov a národov na prahu tretieho tisícročia **(Mruškovič, V., 2008)**
Jazyky sveta v priestore a čase **(Krupa, V. – Genzor, J., 1996)**
Old English Grammar **(Malá, E., 1999)**
The Adventure of English. 500 AD to 2000. The Biography of a Language **(Bragg, M., 2003)**
The Concise Dictionary of English Etymology **(Skeat, W. W., 1994)**
The English Language through the Prism of the Centuries **(Bednárová-Gibová, K., 2014)**
Where Words Come From. A Dictionary of Word Origins **(Sedgwick, F., 2009)**
Wordsmiths & Warriors. The English-Language Tourist´s Guide to Britain **(Crystal, D. – Crystal, H., 2013)**

1.2.6 Words in terms of membership to a particular word class and function

Aristotle in his *Poetics* used to group words into categories of things and actions. According to him, the relationship between the name (or naming unit respectively) and its meaning is only a matter of pure convention. Socrates´s disciple, Plato, on the other hand, thought just the opposite. He thought there

was a relation*ship of mutual dependence. It was Plato who makes distinction between a* name and a *verb*. Aristotle adds a *conjunction* and an *article*. In terms of noun relationships he introduces relations which are known today as *categories of number* and *gender*. He even presents the basic sentence structure distinguishing *subject* and *sentence predicate* (Černý, 1996).

The most significant grammarian of ancient Greece was Dionysius Thrax who introduced eight word classes in his first Greek grammar *Technē grammatikē*: *name, verb, participle, article, pronoun, preposition, adverb,* and *conjunction* (compare Černý, 1996). Modern English grammar recognizes nine word classes (or parts of speech) *noun, adjective, verb, adverb, pronoun, conjunction, interjection, determiner,* and *preposition.*

Category of word class is important to know because it influences the function of individual words. Thus we recognize **autosemantic (notional) words** with full or content meaning from **synsemantic (functional or grammatical) words**. **Autosemantic words** are (common/proper, phrasal) nouns or words functioning as nouns (e.g. *a must to see*, *life´s ups and downs*, *many ifs*), lexical verbs (incl. primary verbs *do, be, have* functioning as full verbs, phrasal verbs), and adjectives. **Synsemantic words** are all the other words, such as auxiliary verbs (incl. primary verbs *do, be, have* functioning as auxiliaries), modals, , adverbs, pronouns, conjunctions, determiners, and interjections.

There are **words that function as one word class only**, e.g. *bishop*$_{(n)}$ which is:

1) a high-ranking priest of the Catholic church in a large area known as a diocese,
2) in chess a piece that can be moved in any number of squares from one corner towards the opposite corner.

There are many English **words that function as nouns and ad**jectives, e.g. **female**(n, adj):

a) **as a noun: 1)** a female person or animal **2)** often derog a woman **3) the female of the species is more deadly than than the male** (quote) a phrase from a poem by Rudyard Kipling, often used when saying how cruel women are,

b) **as an adjective: 1)** (typical) of the sex that gives birth to young **2)** (of a plant or flower) producing fruit **3)** tech having a hole made to receive a part that fits into it, e.g. *a female plug*.

There are many English **words that function as nouns and verbs**, e.g. **bitch**(n,v):

a) **as a noun: 1)** a female dog **2)** derog a woman, esp. when unkind or bad-tempered,

b) **as a verb [I (about)]: 1)** to complain continually **2)** to make nasty or hurtful remarks about other people.

There are **words that function as nouns, adjectives, verbs and phrasal verbs**, e.g. **black**(adj, n, v, phr. v):

a) **as an adjective: 1)** completely without light, the colour of night **2)** of (of a person) a dark-skinned race **3)** (of coffee) without milk or cream **4)** very bad, threatening, or hopeless **5)** full of anger, hate, or evil **6)** esp. BrE not approved of, or not to be handled by members of a trade union during a strike (*black labour*) **7)** *any colour so long as it´s black* (quote) a phrase used by Henry Ford when he was asked what colours were available for a particular kind of car **8)** *not as black as one is painted* not as bad as people say one is

b) **as a noun: 1)** [U] the colour that is black, the darkest colour **2)** [C] a person of a dark-skinned race **3)** *in the black* having money in a bank account (opposite *in the red*)

c) **as a verb** [T]**: 1)** to make black **2)** BrE (esp. of a trade union) to refuse to work with

d) **as a phrasal verb *black out*: 1)** [T *black sthg out*] to darken that no light is seen **2)** [I] to lose consciousness, faint **3)** [T *black sthg out*] prevent (news or information) from becoming publicly known, suppress.

There are **words in English that function as nouns, adverbs, adjectives, and verbs** as well, e.g. *home*₍ₙ, ₐdᵥ, ₐdⱼ, ᵥ₎**:**

a) **as a noun: 1)** [C, U] a house, flat where one lives; house or flat considered as property **2)** [C, U] the house and family one belongs to **3)** [*the +S + of*] a place where a plant or animal can be found living or growing wild, esp. in large numbers; the place where something was originally discovered, made, or developed **4)** [C] a place for the care of a group of people or animals of the same type, who do not live with a family, and who usu. have special needs or problems **5)** [U] (in some games and sports) a place which a player must try to reach, such as the goal or the finishing line of a race (home run, home stretch) **6)** *at home old-fashioned* ready to receive visitors **7)** *be/feel at home* to be comfortable, not feel worried, esp. because one has the right skills or experience **8)** *Home, James, and don´t spare the horses!* a phrase used humorously when telling someone to drive you home quickly **9)** *make oneself at home* (*often imperative*) to behave freely, sit where one likes, etc. as if one were in one´s own home **10)** *home sweet home* a phrase used when saying how pleasant it is to be in your own home **11)** *there´s*

no place like home a phrase from an old popular song, meaning that your own home is the nicest place to be

b) **as an adverb: 1)** to or at one´s home **2)** as far as possible and/or to the right place **3)** *come home to someone/bring something home to someone* to be clearly understood by someone/to make someone clearly understand something **4)** *home and dry*infrml, esp. BrE having safely or successfully completed something

c) **as an adjective: 1)** of or being a home, place of origin, or base of operations (*home office*) **2)** not foreign, domestic **3)** prepared, done, or intended for use in a home (*home cooking, a home computer*) **4)** played or playing at one´s own sports field, rather than that of an opponent (*the home team*) **5)** *homebase* **a)** esp. AmE (also *home plate*) **b)** a place or situation which is like one´s home

d) **as a verb:** *home in on sth*phr.v [T] to aim exactly towards (fig.): *Now that we´ve got all the facts, we´re homing in on the right answer.* [8]

Specific place is held by **a phrasal verb** (see the example above *home in on sth*). It is a structure of **lexical verb followed by a particle** (adverb and/or preposition) or **two particles**. It has to be viewed as a single semantic unit because the change of a particle (or sometimes its place) causes the change of meaning. Four basic types of phrasal verbs are recognized in English in terms of number and function of particles they do take (see Table 7).

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[8] Source: *Longman Dictionary of English Language and Culture with colour illustrations* (1993:634 – 635)

Table 7 Types of Phrasal Verbs

Type	Structure	Example	Peculiarities
Type 1 [I]	**verb + adverb**	*calm down, come about, look on, look up* (literal meaning), *break up, fall asleep, slow down, stand up, wake up, walk out* (literal meaning), *work out*	no object follows
Type 2 [T]	**verb + adverb + O**	*look up the word in a dictionary, put sth down, put sth on/put on sth, take off sth/take it off*	requires an object, particle can move (i.e. its position is not fixed) esp. after personal pronoun
Type 3 [T]	**verb + prep + O**	*do without sth, laugh at sth, look at sth, look after sb, look for sth*	requires an object, position of a particle is fixed
Type 4 [T, I]	**verb + adverb (+ prep + O)**	*break up (with sb)* *do away (with sth)* *get on (with sb)* *get away (with sth)* *go along (with sb/sth)* *keep up (with sb)* *look in (on sb)* *run out (of sth)* *wait up (for sb)*	requires an object when followed by two particles, otherwise [I], can become Type 1 when the final part of structure (prep + O) is reduced

Source: *Selected Chapters on English Lexical Semantics* (Jesenská – Štulajterová, 2013: 96 – 97)

Every phrasal verb represents an idiomatic expression that can bear literal and metaphorical meaning. These verbs are very often polysemous units, e.g. *come out, come up, get into, go out, put off*, *see through*, *turn up*, etc.(see table 8):

Table 8 Polysemous Phrasal Verbs

come out	**1)** My book *comes out* next week. **2)** It´s lovely when the sun *comes out*. **3)** The fact will *come out* soon.	One can observe a connection between the different meanings. The sense of appearing or becoming visible is the connection that links single meanings of all three expressions.

come up	**1)** The subject just *came up* the other day. **2)**His work didn´t *come up to* standard. **3)**We *came up against* all sorts of problems.	A second particle creates a new meaning.
get into sth	**1)** I can´t *get into* these jeans. **2)** Jason *got into* an argument with somenone. **3)** We´ve *got into* the habit of waking up early. **4)** I´m really *getting into* Bollywood films. **5)** When does the plane *get into* Rome? (arrive at a place) **6)** I´m hoping *to get into* university next year. (be accepted at a school or university)	Some phrasal verbs can convey many meanings that seems to unrelated to each other at first sight.
go out	**1)** Shall we *go out* tonight? **2)** The fire has *gone out*. **3)**The show *goes out* tomorrow evening.	Sometimes there is no direct connection between the different meanings.
turn up	**1)** I can´t hear the TV. Could you *turn* it *up*? **2)**They didn´t *turn up* until nine o´clock.	Some phrasals are transitive with one meaning and intransitive with another.

A phrasal verb can result in **phrasal noun** and/or **phrasal adjective** (see Picture 17 below). Compare *black out*(v) and *blackout*(n) or *let down*(v) and *letdown*(n) for instance. It is obvious that those phrasal nouns have been created from the phrasal verbs. However, the **phrasal nouns** do not always must have a related phrasal verb, or one with the same meaning as demonstrated in the following examples:

*There was a two-week **stand-off** in the talks.*

*There has been a big **breakthrough** in the treatment of diabetes.*

*[break through sth*v*]*

Many phrasal nouns are written as one word, e.g. *letdown*, but nouns with *-up, -in,* and *–off* are usually written with a hyphen, e.g.:

*The film got a good **write-up** in the paper.*

*Mrs Gregory will be my **stand-in**. [stand in (for sb)ᵥ]*

*He had a crash, and the car´s a **write-off**. [write sth offᵥ]*

The plural is usually formed by adding **-s** to the particle, e.g.:

*Did the teacher give you any **handouts**? [hand sth outᵥ]*

Some phrasal verbs form nouns where the particle is at the beginning. These nouns are written as one word, and the plural form comes at the end of the word as in the following examples:

*The **upkeep** of the palace is enormous.*

*The company values your **input**.*

*When I got to the accident, there were quite a large number of **bystanders**.*

Two phrasal nouns may be created from different meanings of the same phrasal verb, e.g. **stand by**. If you are **on standby**, you are available to help if needed in a particular situation. A **bystander** is someone who watches what is happening, e.g. an accident, but is not directly involved.

A number of **phrasal adjectives** are coined from semantically and/or formally related phrasal verbs. For instance:

*There are still **ongoing** discussions.*

*The FA Cup is a **knockout** competition.*

*His proposal was just a **watered-down** version of the original plan.*

*She made some very **outspoken** remarks.*

*The bedroom has two **built-in** wardrobes.*

The same phrasal adjective may correspond with different meanings of the related verb. For example, ***off-putting*** can describe somebody or something that is unpleasant (as in the following sentence 1):

1) *The fish was tasty, but the smell was a bit **off-putting**. [**put sb off sb/sth**v]*
2) *The noise was very **off-putting**. [**put sb off**v]* In this case the expression is used to describe somebody or something that disturbs or distracts you so that you find it difficult to concentrate.

A phrasal adjective usually has a very similar meaning to the related phrasal verb, but sometimes the meaning changes slightly. Compare the following:

*I´m looking for a more **go-ahead**adj company.*

*We can **go ahead**v with the new development*

.

Picture 17 Video: Phrasal verbs used as nouns and adjectives
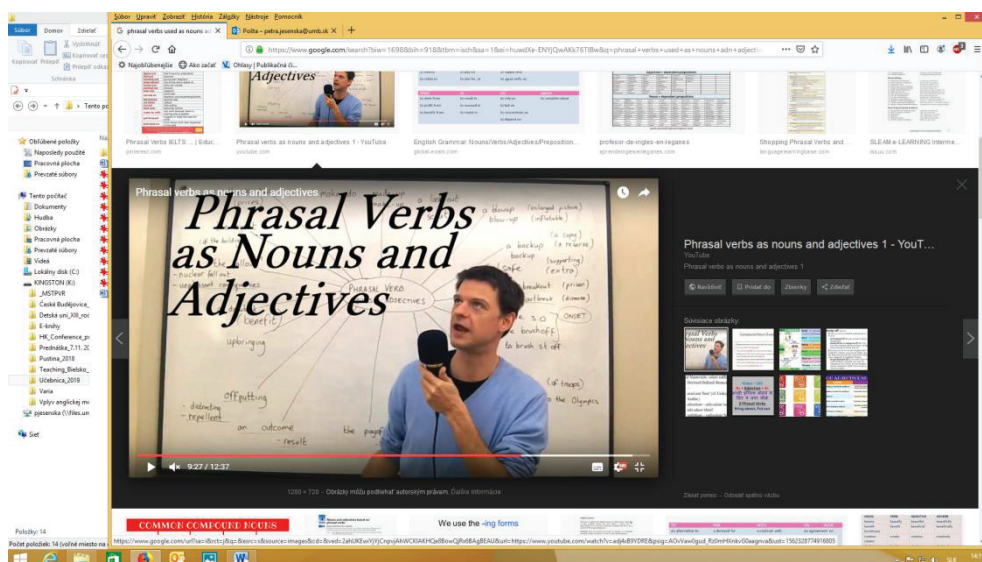
Source: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=adj4xB9YDRE (04/07/2019)

Another specific lexical items are binominal expressions, such as *fish and chips*, *salt and pepper*, etc. that are usually culturally very strongly determined. *Fish and chips*, for example, is a meal popular in Great Britain. It is meant to be wrapped in a paper and taken away to be eaten at home or outside. It is considered quite cheap to buy and is usually eaten as a quick meal (fast food) or a snack. They are on the halfway to become **idiomatic expressions (idioms)** which cannot be semantically analysed by their individual components. Idioms are semantically fixed expressions and no linguistic material can be inserted into them without the loss of idiomacity. Semantically they are more or less transparent/opaque (consider idioms in the following Table 9).

Table 9 Idioms Related to Phrasal Verbs

Idioms in context	Meaning
She **has a thing about** men with beards.	**have a thing about sth/sbi**_{nfrml} have a strong liking for or dislike of sth/sb
My parents arrived **out of the blue** today.	**out of the blue**_{infrml} suddenly & unexpectedly
Those shoes will be fine **for the time being**.	**for the time being** for now and the immediate future
I´m afraid I **put my foot in it**.	**put your foot in it**_{infrml} accidentally say sth that embarrasses, upsets or annoys sb
The room was **lovely and warm**.	**lovely and warm, cool, soft, etc.** used to emphasize the pleasant quality that sth has

TASK 6

Explain the difference of a phrasal adjective _worn out_ in the two following sentences:

1) *The children were _worn out_ after the long walk. [wear sb out_v]*
2) *My trainers are pretty _worn out_. [wear sth out_v]*

Further reading:
Anglická gramatika **(Hais, K., 1991)**
Mluvnice současné angličtiny na pozadí češtiny **(Dušková, L. a kol., 1988)**

Oxford Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs (Cowie, A.P. – Mackin, R., 1995)
Oxford Learner´s Pocket Phrasal Verbs and Idioms (Gairns, R. – Redman, S., 2017)
Selected Chapters on English Lexical Semantics (Jesenská, P. – Štulajterová, A., 2013)

1.2.7 Vocabulary in terms of syntax

Syntax is a branch of systemic linguistics studying structures of clauses and/or sentences. Elementary unit of syntax is termed **syntagma** which was introduced by de Saussure. However, syntagmatic relationships operate on numerous language levels (of sounds, word-formative processes, vocabulary, noun/verb/etc. phrases). Syntagma studied on the syntactic level indicates **compatible combinations of particular clause elements which are building units of a clause and/or a sentence**. These are: subject, (in/transitive) verb, (in/direct) object, complement, and adverb. In an analytic language, such as English is, standard word order is extremely significant also in regard to the sentence position of words influencing their function and meaning. And so the English standard word order is *subject + verb + object*. Consider the following pairs of two sentences:

a) John saw Bill.

a)´ Bill saw John.

b) A man was bitten by a dog.

b)´ A dog was bitten by a man.

What happened with the sentences? In both cases subjects exchanged their position with objects. This change of position caused the change of sentence function reflected in the change of meaning. It makes the difference whether John saw Bill or vice versa. It makes a difference whether a man is hurt by a dog or a dog by a person.

The relationships between the word-form and other word-forms are known as paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations. While paradigmatic relations operate

on the vertical axis of language, syntagmatic relations work in other direction, i.e. horizontally, for instance:

The dog slept under that chair.

Relations working between particular words and clause elements are easily observable. The relations are of various kinds: within noun phrases (*the dog, that chair*), collocability, i.e. the capability of words to collocate (combine) with other words of the same or different word class (*dog slept, under chair, that chair*), relations between nominal and verbal part of a sentence (subject: *the dog*, verb: *slept under that chair*).

From the point of view of a higher level than syntax, i.e. a text, we can observe the change of perspective and a cognitive shift from unknown to known things. This fact is further reflected in the position of particular clause (sentence) elements. An appropriate example is the beginning of the traditional fairy tale: *Once upon a time, there was **a king**. **The king** had **a daughter**. **The daughter** was…* This approach is termed **functional sentence perspective (FSP)** introduced into linguistics by the **Prague circle** between the two world wars. The term FSP refers to the communicative function it fulfils in the sentence when taking into consideration functional structure of the sentence recognizing the working dichotomy theme–rheme. The **rheme** is the part of the sentence which brings brand new information (*a king, a daughter*) and indicates "the highest degree of communicative dynamism" (Štekauer, 1993:96). The **theme**, on the other hand, represents that part of the sentence bringing already known information (*once upon a time, the king, the daughter*).

Further reading:
A Practical English Syntax. Student´s Practice Book (Hrnčíř, A., 2001)
Essentials of English Linguistics (Štekauer, P., 1993)
Mluvnice současné angličtiny na pozadí češtiny (Dušková, L. et al., 1988)

1.2.8 Vocabulary in terms of motivation

As mentioned above (see 1.2.3), reasons and causes of the formation of new words and expressions is a universal feature working in other languages as well. The term **motivation** is **"used to denote the relationship [...] between the morphemic or phonemic composition and structural pattern of the word and its meaning"** (Arnold,1973:28). Motivation of coining new words is of a **twofold nature**, i.e. **linguistic** and **extra-linguistic**.

As for the linguistic motivation, it must be noted that language has only limited sources (linguistic material, be it morphemes, words, or splinters) to create an unlimited number of new words and expressions, e.g. creation of the derivative *unhappiness* was motivated by existence of *happiness* which was motivated by *happy* (derivation). Thus, in terms of the linguistic motivation, three main types (of motivation) are recognized:

Phonetical motivation: onomatopoic words play a significant role here as they imitate the sounds of various kind, such as:

- **nature** (animals: *bow-wow, buzz, cuckoo, hiss, miaow*, wind: *swish*, water: *splash*),
- **some human activities**, e.g. *clap, knock-knock (ťuk-ťuk, klop-klop)*, *flap*
- **machines** (cars, buses, planes, trains),
- **devices** (bombs and grenades go *boom-boom*, guns go *bang* and other weapons produce other sounds),
- **appliances** (camcorders, data projectors).

Morphological motivation to refers the word-formative processes in language. The English language knows various ways of coining new words: **derivation, compounding, conversion**, and various **ways of shortening words** (clipping,

back-formation, blending, initialisms, and acronyming). Consider the following blended expressions coined in the course of the early 21st C and taken from www.wordspy.com (16/07/2019):

Bobo$_n$ (a person who combines affluence and a successful career with a preference for countercultural ideas and artifacts): is a blend of *bourgeois + bohemian*, which used to function in English as a compound for some time until it became shortened for economic reasons.

Glamping$_n$ (a form of camping that includes expensive equipment, fine food, and other luxuries): is a blend of *gl**am**orous + c**am**ping*.

E.g. *These days it's more "glamping" than camping, with the best companies offering state-of-the-art pre-erected tents and luxurious mobile homes with ensuite bathrooms that feel like an Oscar-winner's trailer.*

<div align="right">

Susan Ward Davies, "Know before you go," The Guardian, February 19, 2005
(Taken from https://www.wordspy.com/index.php?word=glamping)

</div>

Our research of English neologisms (Jesenská, 2014) has proved that the majority of new words in modern English are coined by means of compounding and blends (though blends may slightly prevail). Examples of recent compounds are: *blogosphere, hashtag, tree blindness* (the disregard of the trees in one´s environment). Examples of recent blends (some of which were coined *ad hoc*): *flexicurity* (*fl**exi**ble + se**curity***)*, MoJo* (*mo**bile + jo**urnalism/jo**urnalist***)*, uni-moon* (*uni- + honey**moon***).

Derivatives are not so common compared to the situation in the past (say some 20 – 40 years ago). For instance, *endling* is a derivative referring to an animal or other species that is very last of its kind.

Surprisingly, initialisms (e.g. *O2O*) and acronyms are not as frequent as one would expect, though they are coined and used in specific environment,

especially in electronic communication for texting, sending e-mails, chatting on social networks, etc. (see Picture 14 SMS English in 1.2.3).

Semantic motivation can be demonstrated on such an expression as *dark tourism* which emerged in late 20th C, but fully developed early in the 21st C as a reaction to tourists´ needs, destination expectations, and consumption of negative experiences and places with negative history. It refers to such a tourism that involves travelling to places associated with death, destruction, or a horrific event, e.g. travelling to Chernobyl in Ukraine or Ground Zero in the New York City after terrorist attacks 9/11/2001. Tourism is known to have either positive, negative, or even neutral stylistic charge. However, dark tourism semantically transparently refers to negative effects of specific kind of people´s spending their leisure time.

This specific kind of motivation is discussed in detail in section 1.2.2 of this textbook.

In terms of the extra-linguistic causes, the creation of new words has nothing to do with language (be it langue or parole) or linguistic material as such. The new words created this way are formed due to **naming needs** of human society. The new expressions coined this way further serve as motivating units to coin other new words. E.g. *blog* becomes a motivating root morpheme in a morhemic chain: (to) $blog_{n,v}$ → *blogger* → *blogging* → *blogosphere*, coined due to extra-linguistic need to name a person (-*er*) who does (*to to sth…*) a particular activity (-*ing*) in a particular space (-sphere). Compounds are coined as well, such as *blog sites, blog readers, blog texts*. The synonyms are coined, too: the *blogosphere* can be referred to as *blogland* (2000), *blogistan* (2002), and the *blogiverse* (2002)[9].

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[9] Examples taken from https://www.wordspy.com/index.php?word=blogosphere (16/07/2019)

The extra-linguistic causes are linked to development and achievements in society, namely in technology, science, art, politics, media, sport and other branches of human activities. Thus we recognize:

- **new phenomena**: *belfie, infotainment, militainment, selfie, spam, telfie*,

- **new things and objects**: *airbag, laptop, notebook, ramer, raser, server*,

- **new devices**: *camcorders, tablet, webcamera*,

- **new people**: *blogger* (see above)*, hacker, hipster.*

In terms of naming needs actual words must be distinguished from potential ones. **Actual words** are all those that can be not only formed, but which are used indeed. In other words, they are created because of language users´ needs. For example, an abstract noun *purification* is a derivative of a transitive verb *purify* motivated by a gradable adjective *pure*. On the other hand, there are words that can be formed in accordance with all principles of word-formative processes and standard grammar, but their usage is problematic for several reasons. It is restricted (spoken by undereducated population or very young children ignorant of standard variety) or blocked by the existence and usage of other word-form, e.g. *goodier* is blocked by the existence of *better* or *stealer* by *thief*. Some words can be coined but they are not needed for language users, e.g. *antipurificationalism*. The words that are possible to form but not used are termed **potential words**.

TASK 7

Have the language concepts of de Saussure and Ogden – Richards something in common? (see 1.2.1)
Can we say "beautiful man"? (see 1.2.2)
What modern words are "hidden" behind these archaisms? (see 1.2.3)
cunnen, hus, prithee, stān, sunne

Say an example of a stylistic synonymous triple or see 1.2.4.

What is the origin of the following words? (see 1.2.5) *complete, empty, guidance, question, vacuous*

How many meanings of the following expression do you know? *get into something* **(see 1.2.6)**

Explain the theme-theme construct or see 1.2.7.

How would you comment on the following words from the viewpoint of WFP motivation? (see 1.2.8) *blogosphere, flexicurity, telfie, unbig*

Further reading:

A Practical English Syntax. Student´s Practice Book (Hrnčíř, A., 2001)
Anglická slovotvorba (Jadroňová, J. – Bigošová, A., 2009)
Mluvnice současné angličtiny na pozadí češtiny (Dušková, L. a kol., 1988)
Selected Topics on English Word-Formation (Jesenská, P., 2015)
The English Word (Arnold, I.V., 1973, 1986)

2 INTERDISCIPLINARY APPROACHES TOWARDS LANGUAGE

The relationship between language users and the word-form is primarily studied by pragmatics (2.2) and sociolinguistics (2.1). It could be said that sociolinguistics is the social study of language while pragmatics deals with the communicative usage of language. A new approach towards investigation of language has appeared recently and became known as linguistic landscape (2.2). Its interests reach far beyond already known subject matters, and that is why it stands somewhere between sociolinguistics and pragmatics. Certainly, there is a multitude of other interdisciplinary branches studying language and vocabulary from specific points of view (some of them are brand new), such as anthropological linguistics, applied linguistics (incl. e.g. teacher training), biolinguistics, clinical linguistics, computational linguistics, ethnolinguistics, forensic linguistics, neurolinguistics, psycholinguistics, etc. However, these specific approaches towards language require an individual academic text of its own.

2.1 Sociolinguistic approach

Sociolinguistics is an interdisciplinary branch of science standing on the borderline between linguistics and sociology, however, inclining more towards linguistics than sociology. Basically, it studies the relationships between language users and society from various kinds of perspective.

An essential term used in sociolinguistics is **a variety**. It refers to a distinct form of a language, e.g. Australian/American/ British variety (of English). BBC

English, Black English, Legal English, etc. are examples of various varieties of a language.

There are **two basic dimensions of language distinguished in relation to society**: **horizontal** (geographical varieties resulting in regional dialects) and **vertical** dimensions (social stratification reflected in social dialects, i.e. slang of various kinds). A sociolinguistic term for a **speech variety** is a **lect** (from Greek *lektós* capable of being spoken). The term is rarely used in isolation, but it is present in terms such as *dialect, sociolect* (see below)*, idiolect*, etc. (see other examples below). **Sociolect** is a relevant term in sociolinguistics and refers to a social dialect (on vertical dimension) spoken by users belonging to a particular social class. Thus, the speakers of a particular sociolect very often have the same social, educational, and economic background. For instance:

He and I were going there. (higher sociolect, see acrolect and standard below)

´Im ´n me was goin´ there. (lower sociolect, see basilect and non-standard below)[10].

Besides the above mentioned characteristics of sociolect, another important feature is to be mentioned, vocabulary typical for specific professions. For instance, *legal English, medical English, school English*, or *business English*. For each of these sociolects, there is a characteristic vocabulary used within its field (see Picture18 below).

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[10] Example taken from Jesenská (2010:12)

Picture 18 Business phrasal verbs

Source:
https://www.facebook.com/angolintezet/photos/a.558092504299051/2092908660817420/?type=3&theater (26/06/2019)

Acrolect (from Greek *ákros* top, *-lect*) is the most prestigious variety of language. In English it is **Estuary English** or **BBC English** (known as an RP accent in the past). In other words, this is a **standard** (see the explanation below).

Mesolect (from Greek *mésos* middle, *-lect*) is the variety of language corresponding with colloquial language standing between acrolect and basilect

(see below). These are the expressions that are usually informal and more suitable for use in speech than in writing.

Basilect (from Greek *básis* lowest level, *-lect*) corresponds to the lowest variety (L-variety see below) of a language, e.g. such as English spoken in Brooklyn in New York City. Basilect stands in opposition to acrolect (i.e. standard).

Standard variety of language is **the most prestigious social standard dialect spoken by well-educated users** of languages (good and prestigious writers, researchers, and other authorities). To put it simply, standard variety is the **sociolect "with the highest status in a country"** (Jesenská, 2010:12, compare LDAL, 1985). It can be referred to as H-variety (high variety) because it achieves the highest status in society. It is the variety of national language (i.e. the main language of a particular nation) that is taught in schools and also taught to non-native speakers, described in dictionaries and textbooks, used in mass media and literature, spoken in political and other public debates and discourses. **A standard usually passes through the four processes: selection, acceptance, elaboration, and codification** (canon). Selection is the first step for any language to achieve a standard form indicating that a particular variety must be selected. The second step is an acceptance meaning that the selected variety has to be accepted by significant language users. The third step is elaboration and development of its function associated with central government and with writing. The last step is its codification reflected in authoritative dictionaries and prestigious grammar books in order to fix this specific variety, so that every language user agrees on what is correct (compare Jesenská, 2010). Despite its prestige, this variety is spoken only by a minor part of native speaking population.

On the other hand, L-variety (or low variety) refers to a **non-standard variety of language** or its parts (be it spelling, pronunciation, grammar, lexis, stylistic

devices, etc.) is used by undereducated people who do not care much about what they say and how they say it. Into this variety can be grouped words like slang (geographical and social), four-letter words and other expletives.

The aim of this subchapter is not to cover all topics and research interests of sociolinguistics, but to introduce basic terms in discussion connected to lexis and attitudes towards it. Attitude towards language can be viewed through the prism of two complementary and contrastive approaches at the same time, descriptivism and prescriptivism. **Descriptivism** is a term developed in grammar studies that prefers **a systematic, accurate, comprehensible, and highly objective description and explanation how language works without any assessments**. All scholarly research in linguistics carries features of a descriptive approach (compare Jesenská, 2015) and the result of their research can be found in dictionaries of various kinds and grammar handbooks. **Prescriptivism** has also been developed from grammar studies using background knowledge from descriptive observations resulting in presenting rules and principles how language should be used, so-called prescriptions; and how should not be used, so-called proscriptions. Application of both approaches can be demonstrated on the following example sentence: *It ain´t funny! (To neni vtipné!)*. **Descriptivists** (sociolinguists) interested in **how a real language works** are highly likely to provide the following comments: the sentence containing non-standard expression (*ain´t*) is acceptable in colloquial and familiar speech or other informal discourse, e.g. among friends or close persons. **Prescriptivists**, on the contrary, prefer highlighting norms and rules of a language spoken by **an ideal speaker using standard variety of language** (i.e. the highest and most prestigious variety of language spoken by well-educated speakers), are likely to refuse (proscribe) the usage of "ain´t" and

recommending to use (prescribe) "is not" instead of saying that "ain´t" is a wrong English and should not be used at all.

Finding a balance between stylistic accurateness on the one hand and polite expressions of one´s thoughts and attitudes on the other hand, has been a topic for public discussions for some time in British society. Crystal (2013) mentions an expecting language scandal published as front-page news in the *Daily Sketch* on April 11th, 1914 reacting to a forthcoming performance of *Pygmalion* where a young actress playing Eliza Doolittle was to say the line "*not bloody likely*" which used to be considered a socially inappropriate word at the time:

"TO-NIGHT ´PYGMALION´, IN WHICH MRS. PATRICK CAMPBELL
IS EXPECTED TO CAUSE THE GREATEST THEATRICAL SENSATION FOR YEARS"
Source: *Wordsmiths and Warriors* (Crystal, 2013:368)

The newspaper went on saying:

"Mr. Shaw Introduces a Forbidden Word.
WILL ´MRS PAT´ SPEAK IT?
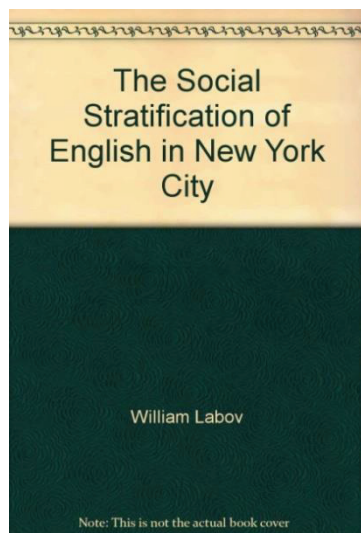Has The Censor Stepped In, Or Will The Phrase Spread?"
(ibid.)

Moreover, the expression was about to be uttered by a female in front of a theatrical audience, i.e. in a public space. Females at the beginning of the 20th C were not supposed to use "language like that" at all. They were supposed to favour nice manners, good behaviour, speak in a low voice if to speak at all. Finally, the censor did not step in and the phrase was used indeed. Crystal (2013) paraphrases the papers reporting that the audience "gave a grasp of surprise, and then roared with laughter. A linguistic milestone had been
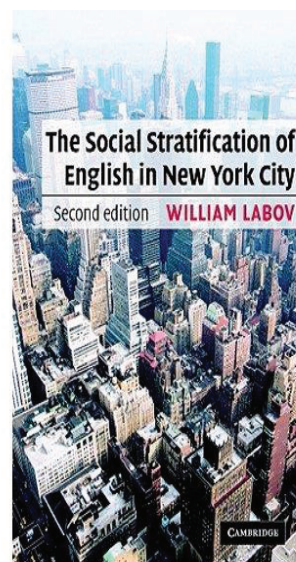
passed. And soon after, a new phrase entered the language: ´not pygmalion likely´!" (Crystal, 2013:368). The point is that standard variety would not have probably caused such a positive reaction of audience. It seems that sometimes it is preferable to use expletive vocabulary instead of a standard or polite expression to cause a particular effect on other interlocutors (listeners and/or readers). From this point of view it is logical to distinguish between **functional** and **non-functional words**. What is the use of standard if it does not serve a particular purpose or does not provide an expected effect? Sometimes it is functional and desirable (and that is why effective as well) using slang and even expletives (e.g. four-letter words) for specific purposes of literary or other character.

Language users sometimes desire to move higher on the social hierarchy and try to achieve this goal by various techniques. One of them is pretending they belong to a higher social stratum by the choice of specific accent which can be considered ´posh´. It was Labov who in 1960s explored the connection between pronunciation and the social stratification of language speakers in NYC (see Pictures 19 and 20 below). His research showed that shop assistants imitated the accent of their clients from higher social class. Although his findings brought many questions, doubts and critical comments on his working methods, even his opponents had to admit the direct link between social class and language.

Picture 19 Social stratification of English in NY City (1966)

Picture 20 Social stratification of English in NY City (2009)

Current sociolinguistic research interests are aiming at language planning and management, gender studies, multilingualism, language manipulation, age variables and other dynamically developing areas of this progressive scientific discipline.

Further reading:
English as a Global Language (Crystal, D., 2010)
An Atlas of English Dialects (Upton, C. – Widdowson, J.D.A. 2006)
Elements of Sociolinguistics (Pavlík, R., 2006)
Essentials of English Linguistics (Štekauer, P., 1993)
Essentials of Sociolinguistics (Jesenská, P., 2010)
Jazyková politika a jazyková situácia v EÚ s ohľadom na angličtinu ako jazyk lingua franca (Jesenská, P., 2018)
*Selected Topics on English Word-Form*ation (Jesenská, P., 2015)
The English Languages (McArthur, T., 1998)
The English Word (Arnold, I.V., 1973, 1986)

The Handbook of Sociolinguistics (Stachurska, A., 2016)
The Life of Slang (Coleman, J., 2014)
The Rudiments of Lexicography and Sociolinguistics (Wlodarczyk-Stachurska, A. – Kleparski, G.A., 2014)
*The Social Stratification of English in New York City* (Labov, W., 1966, 2009)

2.2 Linguistic Landscape

This area of language research is quite new. Language experts have been paying attention to this specific perception of language use and spread for about twenty years in Western Europe. In Slovakia the discipline is even younger, one may say brand new. There are not many examiners investigating language this way. Research works are usually restricted to doctoral studies and partial investigations published in bachelor, master, or PhD theses.

The notion of **linguistic landscape** is defined as the **"visibility and salience of languages on public and commercial signs in a given territory or region"** (Landry – Bourhis 1997:23). Besides other things, this approach reflects a new point of view on multilingualism in society. It concentrates on language used in/upon the shop windows, billboards, streets, vehicles, etc., simply language used in all urban spaces where its users might be exposed to it, and that is why influenced by it as well. Linguistic landscape research usually asks questions like "what language(s) is (are) used in the explored landscape", "what is the size and sequence of lines", and "who is responsible for the text". The first question is aimed at finding out the number and relevance of languages used. The second one seeks dominant language(s) providing information about minor languages used in a particular area. And the third one searches for findings about top-down (town´s authorities, mayor, police, etc.) or bottom-up signs and clusters (commercials, shops´ owners, etc.).

A specific method of this approach lies in taking photos of a selected and examined area (be it a street, shopping centre, historical main square of a town/city, etc.) which provide primary source for a complex analysis from various perspectives, i.e. not only linguistic, but historical, social, economic, political, and (last but not least) cultural (see Picture 21 below).

Picture 21 Video: An expert explains what linguistic landscape is
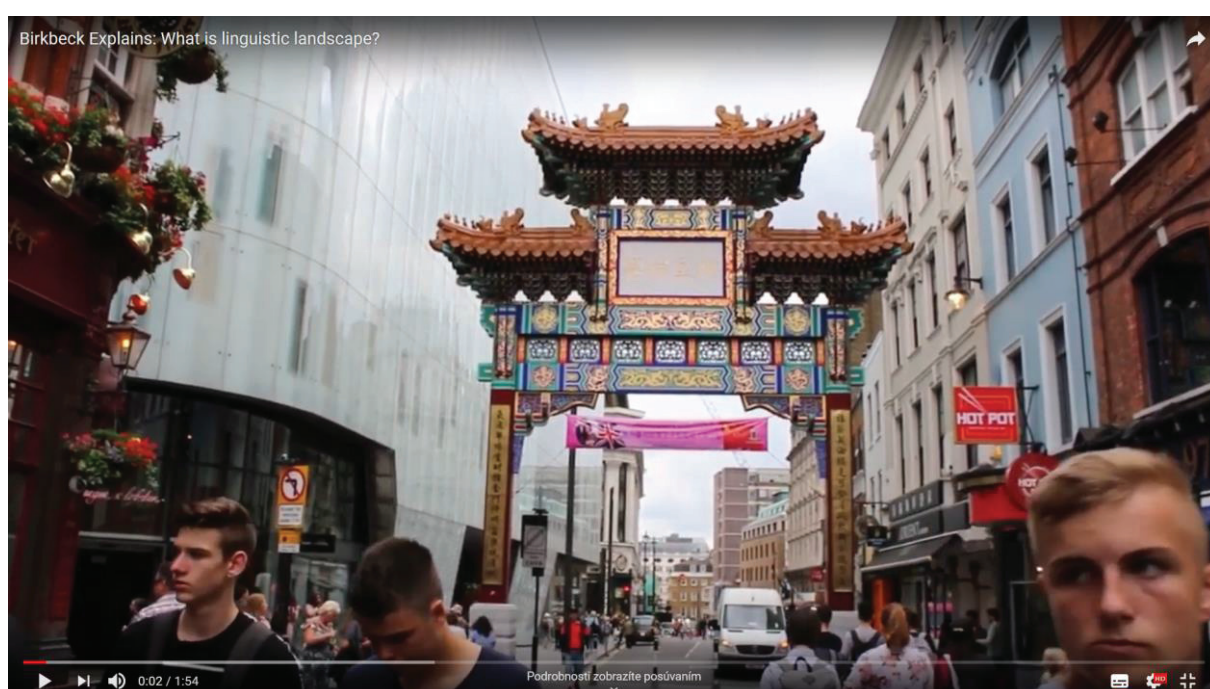
Source: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=hPjzI_4pNug (04/09/2019)

Further reading:
English as a Global Language. Second Edition. (Crystal, D., 2010)
Jazyková krajina Bratislavy: Dunajská ulica (Satinská, L., 2014). In: V. Patráš (ed.) *Polarity, paralely a prieniky jazykovej komunikácie*.
Linguistic Landscape: A New Approach to Multilingualism (ed. Gorter, D., 2006)
https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Linguistic_landscape
Linguistic Landscape and Ethnolinguistic Vitality. An Empirical Study. In: *Journal of Language and Social Psychology* (Landry, R. – Bourhis, R. Y., 1997)
Linguistic Landscapes in a Multilingual World (Gorter, D. 2013). In: Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 33
English as a Tool of Communication at European Multilateral For a and Its Status after Brexit. (Štulajterová, A. – Bachledová, M., 2018) In: *Forum of Foreign Languages, Politology, and Internal Relations*.

2.3 Pragmatic approach

In the first chapter, vocabulary was described and analysed on various systemic levels from the smallest units up to the larger ones (paradigms and syntagmas). However, there are even larger units than sentences (or utterances respectively) or paragraphs. These are the whole texts and discourses. Nunan (1993) defines a **text** as a stretch of cohesive and coherent spoken and/or written language with a communicative function comprising more than one sentence without any necessity of context. On the other hand, a **discourse** is viewed as a contextualized spoken and/or written language in action. Štulajterová (2014), paraphrasing Nunan (1993), asserts that **cohesion** is represented by "formal and semantic links between sentences formed by words and phrases which enable the writer or speaker to establish relationships across sentence boundaries, and which help to tie the sentences in a text together" (Štulajterová, 2014:102). Words and phrases with cohesive function are called cohesive devices and Štulajterová (2014:102-104) enumerates the most productive of them, such as reference, ellipsis, substitution, conjunction, and lexical cohesion. She defines **coherence** as "the way in which the components of the text are acceptable and relevant" Štulajterová (2014:104). Coherence is possible to achieve through various ways, for example, through vocabulary (applying anaphoric[11] or cataphoric[12] references, deictics[13], etc.), punctuation and general layout, suprasegmental features, and general knowledge (Crystal, 1996; Štulajterová, 2014).

The main goal of pragmatics is to analyse a concrete stretch of language speech known as speech act. Linguistics is no longer interested in ideal speakers. On the contrary, it needs to know real usage of language speakers in concrete life

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[11] Backward reference to previously mentioned affairs (*s/he, the, those, former*, etc.)
[12] Forward reference to previously mentioned affairs (*next, the*, etc.)
[13] *this/these, that/those, there/here, now/then, etc.*

situations and contexts. The question to be answered is not "how shall I say it correctly", but "how shall I say something if I want to make my communication effective as much as possible". **Speech act theory**, originated by Austin in early 1960s, provides answers to these sorts of questions. Austin called verbal communication of humans a speech act. According to him speech acts are of a threefold nature: locutionary, perlocutionary, and illocutionary. The **locutionary act** refers to the act **of saying** something. The **perlocutionary act** is the act performed **by saying** something. It involves the effect the speaker has on their listeners. The **illocutionary act** refers to the act performed **in saying** something (Clark, 2007). One sentence can engage all three acts simultaneously as demonstrated on the following utterance performed by a school teacher to her/his noisy class: *I´ll keep you in after the lesson*:

- locutionary act implies the meaning that the teacher makes learners stay in school much later than usual,
- perlocutionary act is the act of silencing the learners,
- illocutionary act is the act of a threat (and a promise if one means to be ironic)[14].

Austin´s ideas were expanded by Searle in late 1960s and further developed by Grice in mid-1970s whose famous four maxims of conversation became known as the application of the **cooperative principle**. The principle suggests a mutual understanding, cooperation, and politeness between speakers (or interlocutors, i.e. performers of conversation). **Grice´s four maxims** formulated in 1975 and expected to be performed by a speaker include the following:
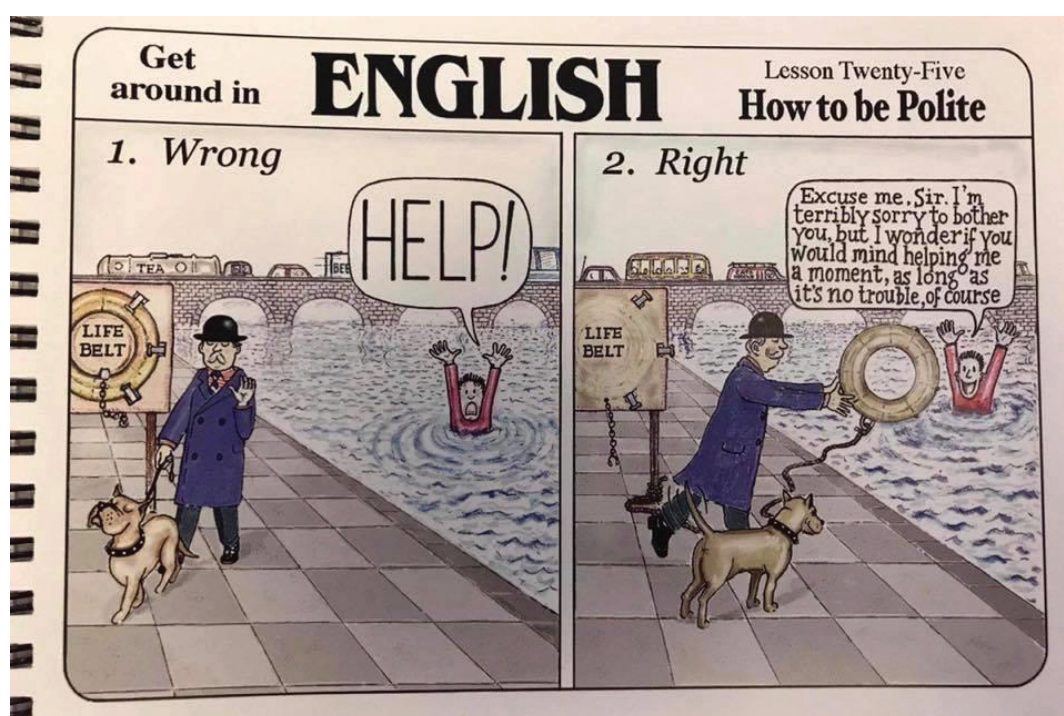
1. *the maxim of quantity*, in other words, ***be brief*** (do not make your contribution more informative than required),

---

[14] Examples and explanation inspired by Clark (2007).

2. *the maxim of quality*, **be truthful** (do not say false information),

3. *the maxim of relation*, **be relevant** (say important things),

4. *the maxim of manner*, **be clear** (avoid ambiguity and obscurity).

Violating maxims can result in the following situation (see and consider Picture 22 below):

Picture 22 In/appropriateness on lexical, stylistic language level, and pragmatic level

Source:
https://www.facebook.com/angolintezet/photos/a.558092504299051/2138569412918011/?type=3&theater (26/06/2019)

As one can see, humans have developed particular stereotypes or mechanisms in order to make their communication as effective and meaningful as possible. Consider the following Picture 23 below.

Picture 23 Mechanisms to communicate

LET'S COMMUNICATE

Asking someone to say something again

- Pardon
- I'm sorry I didn't hear/catch what you said
- Would/Could you say that again, please?
- Would/Could you repeat what you said, please?
- I'm sorry, what did you say?
- What was that?

Informal: - What was that again...?

Very informal: - What?/ Eh/ Mm?

Checking someone has understood you

- Do you know what I mean?
- ... if you see what I mean
- I hope that's clear.
- Do I make myself clear.

Informal:
- Are you with me?
- Get it?
- Right?

Very informal:
- Got the message?
- Changing the subject
- ..., by the way,...
- ..., before I forget,...
- ..., I nearly forgot, ...

Don't be dumb

- I'm afraid I don't know.
- I haven't a clue.
- I'm afraid I haven't got the faintest/ slightest idea.
- I'm terribly sorry but I haven't understood the question.
- Sorry I don't know what you mean.
- I'm not sure I can answer.
- I've no idea (about) what I am expected to do.
- I wish I knew.
- I must admit I don't know much about this problem.
- I'm sorry but I don't know what to say.

Checking you have understood

- So,...
- Does that mean...?
- Do you mean...?
- If I understand right...
- I'm not sure I understand. Does that mean...?

Saying something another way

- In other words,...
- That means...
- What I mean is...
- That's to say...
- ..., or rather...
- What I'm trying to say is...
- What I'm driving at/ getting at is...
- Giving yourself time to think
- ..., oh/ er/ um, ...
- Let me see/ think...
- ..., just a moment, ...
- ..., you see, ...
- ..., you know, ...
- How shall I put it?
- ..., now what's the word...?

You want to add something

- I'd like to make another point.
- I'd also like to say...
- You need help
- I don't understand, I'm sorry.
- I'm not sure I understand what you mean.
- What's the meaning of...?
- What does the word ... mean?
- What's the French/ the English word for ...?
- I didn't hear what you said.
- Could you step aside, please? I can't see the board

- Can you/
Could you/
Would you

- repeat, please?
- say it again, please?
- explain it again, please?
- spell that word, please?
- write it on the board, please?
- speak louder/ up, please?
- speak more slowly, please?

The picture above represents a good springboard for **frame theory** suggesting that our "memory consists of sets of stereotypical situations, or ´frames´, which are constructed out of our past experiences" (Nunan, 1993:69). For example, ordering meals in a restaurant, going to the doctor, or paying at the desk in a shop. All those situations provide us with a particular frame of conversational expectations that are not always fulfilled, and when it happens, "we must modify our pre-existing frames to accommodate the experiences" (Nunan, 1993:70). Another example of frames are Christmas frames, Easter, flying in aeroplane, buying tickets for theatre performance, etc.

In the discourse analysis, knowledge and methods of investigation from other branches of linguistics are used and applied. For instance, the knowledge from the FSP, namely the concept of theme-rheme, i.e. given and new information (see 1.2.7). As a linguistic landscape (see 2.2) may be examined and explored from bottom-up to top-down way, it is done in discourse analysis as well. However, the terms refer to something else. **Bottom-up processing** in discourse analysis refers to the smallest units of language and the way they are linked together to form a higher unit in order to chain those higher units to form another even higher unit and so on and on. This approach used to dominate reading research and theory in the past, and though it has been criticized a lot, there are teachers who still prefer this approach (e.g. making learners read a text aloud – but how can you concentrate on the meaning of a text if you need capacity to aim at pronunciation?). **Top-down processing** represents an alternative to the previous way because it "operates in the opposite direction from bottom-up processing: listeners/readers make sense of discourse by moving from the highest units of analysis to the lowest" ones

(Nunan, 1993:81). According to this theory, listeners/readers make use of their previous background knowledge, e.g. previous knowledge of the text structure, expectations how language works, etc. Useful and **effective top-down strategies** that good and experienced readers may apply (according to Nunan, 1993:82) are as follows:

- using background knowledge and previous reading skills in comprehension of a text,
- scanning the text for (sub-)headings, illustrations (pictures, schemes, tables, graphs, etc.) to get a broader idea about the text before a deeper (i.e. more detailed) reading,
- skimming the text and thinking about it,
- identifying the genre you are reading,
- preferring more relevant information and avoiding less important parts of the text (discriminating between key information and supporting details).

The disadvantage of this approach lies in the failure of distinguishing between a fluent reader and a beginner who cannot have any previous experiences and skills with reading.

TASK 8

Comment on the following sentences from prescriptive and descriptive points of view. *It´s me. vs It´s I.* (see 2.1).

Find an example of linguistic landscape demonstration and comment on it from top-down and bottom-up viewpoints (see 2.2).

Look at the picture 22 *In/appropriateness on lexical, stylistic language level, and pragmatic level*. What Grice´s maxims are being violated? (see 2.3)

Further reading:

An Introduction to the Study of the English Language. 2ⁿᵈ extended edition (Štulajterová, A., 2014)

English Stylistics (Štulajterová, A. – Jesenská, P., 2013)

Introducing Discourse Analysis (Nunan, D., 1993)

Rudiments of English Linguistics (ed. Štekauer, P., 2000)

Selected Chapters in English Lexicology. Part I: Lexical Semantics and Lexicography (Bednárová-Gibová, K., 2018)

Studying Language. English in Action. (Clark, U., 2007)

The Handbook of Sociolinguistics (Stachurska, A., 2016)

The Life of Slang (Coleman, J., 2014)

The Study of Language (Yule, G., 1985)

RESUMÉ

Syntetizujúci text *Členenie anglickej slovnej zásoby* autorky P. Jesenskej predstavuje vysokoškolskú učebnicu určenú študentstvu anglickej filológie, najmä však poslucháčkam a poslucháčom bakalárskeho i magisterského stupňa učiteľstva anglického jazyka ako aj prekladateľstva a tlmočníctva anglického jazyka v kombinácii s iným cudzím jazykom. Text učebnice sa zameriava na rôznorodé uhly pohľadu stratifikácie anglickej lexiky. Tento typ akademického textu doteraz absentoval na slovenskom trhu s učebnicami anglickej lexikológie, a preto sa autorka rozhodla sprístupniť ho čitateľskej obci on-line prostredníctvom elektronickej verzie vo formáte PDF.

Publikácia sa člení na dve hlavné kapitoly. Prvá kapitola sa zaoberá členením anglickej lexiky z pohľadu systémovej lingvistiky, do ktorej spadá fonetická, morfologická, lexikálna, syntaktická i štylistická rovina jazyka, pričom všetky fungujú vo vzájomnej interakcii. Svojím štruktúrovaným členením anticipuje najvyššiu mieru relevancie tejto časti textu. Druhá kapitola predstavuje bazálny vstup do interdisciplinárnych prístupov skúmania lexiky anglického jazyka s dôrazom na sociolingvistiku a pragmalingvistiku jazyka s uvedením novej vednej disciplíny stojacej na pomedzí oboch vedných disciplín, zameranej na skúmanie jazykovej krajiny.

Za každou kapitolou a takmer každou podkapitolou nasleduje súbor úloh na zamyslenie vyžadujúcich kreatívny a originálny prístup s vyjadrením vlastného názoru na fungovanie jazyka. Za úlohami nasleduje zoznam odporúčaných materiálov akademického charakteru vhodných na samostatné a individuálne štúdium s cieľom prehĺbenia vedomostí v danej vedeckej oblasti. Orientáciu v texte uľahčí zaradený vecný index.

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INDEX

Editor´s Note

Parts of this university textbook have already been presented at several domestic (Nitra, Bratislava, etc.) and foreign conferences (Zlín, Hradec Králové, Praha), during lexicology lectures held at various universities in Slovakia and abroad (Banská Bystrica, Bielsko-Biala, České Budejovice, Olomouc, Ostrava, Opava, Pardubice, Samara), and also published in the following academic texts:

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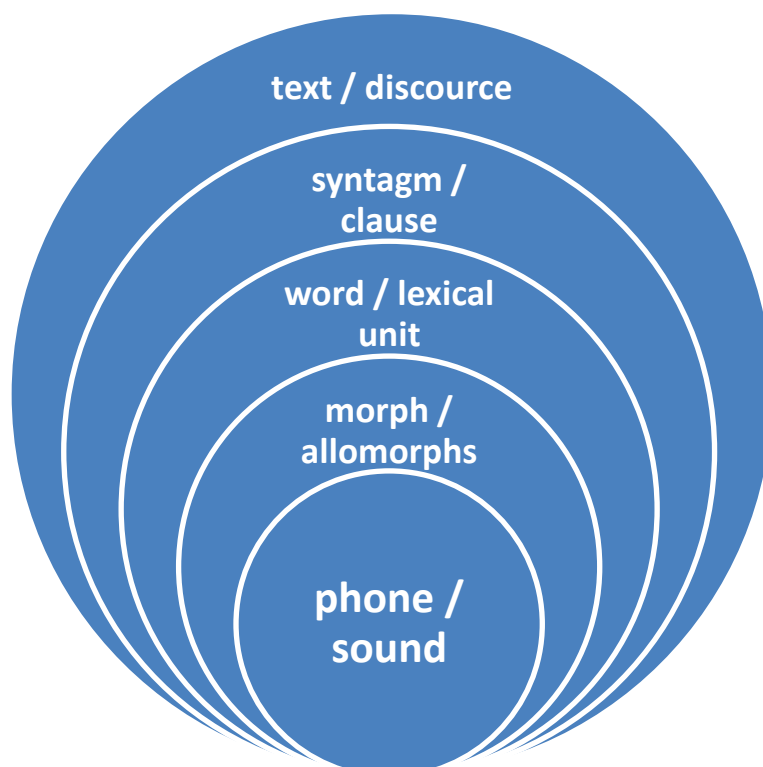
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