

# Practical Assignment No. 11

## LEXICOGRAPHY

### 1. Historical development of Lexicography

Lexicography is the **theory and practice of compiling dictionaries**. It studies how words are described, defined, arranged, and presented in reference works. The development of lexicography reflects both the progress of linguistic science and social needs.

Historically, lexicography has passed through several important stages:

#### 1) Early Lexicography (Antiquity – Middle Ages)

- The earliest lexicographic works appeared in **Ancient Greece and Rome**. Scholars compiled *glossaries* of rare or difficult words to explain literary or religious texts.
- Medieval lexicography in Europe was mostly **Latin-oriented**, serving monks and scholars. Early English glossaries included lists of Latin words with English explanations.  
*Example:* “Glossarium Latino-Anglicum” (15th century).

#### 2) Renaissance and Early Modern Period (15th–17th centuries)

- The invention of printing and the growth of education created a strong demand for dictionaries.
- The first **bilingual dictionaries** appeared, helping to learn foreign languages (Latin–English, French–English).
- The **first monolingual English dictionary** was Robert Cawdrey’s *A Table Alphabeticall* (1604), which explained about 3,000 “hard words” used in scholarly works.

#### 3) The Age of Normative Lexicography (18th century)

- The goal of this period was to **standardize spelling and meaning**.
- The most famous work is **Samuel Johnson’s *A Dictionary of the English Language* (1755)** — a milestone in English lexicography.
  - It provided detailed definitions, quotations from literature, and grammatical information.
  - Johnson’s dictionary influenced the English language and later lexicographers.

#### 4) The Scientific Period (19th century)

- Lexicography became more **systematic and historical**.
- The foundation of the **Oxford English Dictionary (OED)** marked the beginning of **historical and descriptive lexicography**.
  - It aimed to record the entire English vocabulary with examples from all historical periods.
  - Each entry included etymology, pronunciation, and chronological quotations.
- Specialized and dialect dictionaries also appeared (e.g., *A Dictionary of American English*).

#### 5) Modern and Contemporary Lexicography (20th–21st centuries)

- The 20th century saw the rise of **learner's dictionaries** (e.g., *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*) focused on foreign students.
- The use of **corpus linguistics** and **computational tools** revolutionized dictionary-making.
- Today, lexicography includes **printed, electronic, and online dictionaries**.
- Modern lexicography is both **descriptive** (recording real usage) and **prescriptive** (establishing norms), combining linguistic theory, data analysis, and user-centered design.

## 2. Classifications of dictionaries

Dictionaries can be classified according to various **linguistic and practical principles**.

### 1) According to the nature of information

- **Explanatory dictionaries** – interpret meanings and usage of words.  
*Example: Oxford English Dictionary*
- **Etymological dictionaries** – trace the origin and historical development of words.  
*Example: Skeat's Etymological Dictionary*
- **Pronouncing dictionaries** – give phonetic transcription and stress.  
*Example: Jones's English Pronouncing Dictionary*
- **Frequency dictionaries** – show how often words occur in texts or corpora.
- **Synonymic/antonymic dictionaries, phraseological, collocational, onomastic** etc.

## 2) According to language coverage

- **Monolingual dictionaries** – explain words in the same language.  
*Example: Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*
- **Bilingual dictionaries** – provide translation equivalents between two languages.  
*Example: English–Ukrainian Dictionary.*
- **Multilingual dictionaries** – give equivalents in three or more languages.

## 3) According to purpose or function

- **General dictionaries** – cover the standard vocabulary of the language.
- **Special or terminological dictionaries** – deal with vocabulary of a particular field (medicine, law, computing).
- **Learner's dictionaries** – focus on clear definitions, pronunciation, and usage for non-native speakers.
- **Encyclopedic dictionaries** – describe things and concepts rather than linguistic meaning.  
*Example: Encyclopaedia Britannica.*

## 4) According to the arrangement of entries

- **Alphabetical dictionaries** – words are arranged in alphabetical order.
- **Ideographic or thematic dictionaries** – words are grouped by meaning or concept.  
*Example: Roget's Thesaurus of English Words and Phrases.*

## 5) According to the time and type of vocabulary

- **Historical dictionaries** – describe words in chronological development (e.g., OED).
- **Synchronic or contemporary dictionaries** – record the vocabulary of the present stage.
- **Dialect dictionaries** – collect regional or non-standard vocabulary.
- **Neologism dictionaries** – include newly created words.

## TEST ANSWERS WITH EXPLANATIONS

No	Correct answer	Explanation
1	C	<i>Descriptive Lexicology</i> studies the vocabulary of a language at a <b>given stage of development</b> (synchronic study).
2	D	A <i>suffix</i> is a <b>derivational morpheme following the stem</b> , forming a new word
3	A	<i>Homographs</i> are <b>identical in spelling</b> , but different in sound and meaning ( <i>lead</i>
4	E	<i>Affixation</i> means forming new words by <b>adding derivational affixes</b> (prefixes/
5	B	Structurally, morphemes are classified as <b>free, semi-free, bound, and semi-bound</b> .
6	B	<i>Freedom, wisdom</i> contain <b>native suffixes</b> <i>-dom</i> , of Old English origin.
7	E	A <i>stem</i> is the <b>unchangeable part of a word</b> throughout its grammatical forms
8	C	<i>Affixation, composition, and conversion</i> are <b>principal and productive</b> ways of
9	B	The <i>connotational meaning</i> expresses <b>emotional or stylistic shades</b> (e.g., <i>childish</i>
10	B	Every word has <b>lexical (meaning)</b> and <b>grammatical (form)</b> aspects.
11	E	<i>Acronyms</i> read as words (UNESCO, NATO, LASER), unlike initialisms (BBC).
12	A	<i>Semasiology</i> studies the <b>meaning of words</b> — the semantic structure of the
13	C	<i>Homophones</i> are <b>identical in sound</b> but different in spelling and meaning ( <i>piece</i> –
14	A	<i>Breathe</i> – <i>breath</i> are formed by <b>vowel interchange (ablaut)</b> .
15	D	<i>Historical Lexicology</i> studies <b>the origin and development</b> of words.
16	E	<i>Dogged</i> = <i>dog</i> + <i>-ed</i> → a <b>derivative word</b> (root + suffix).
17	A	The <i>internal structure</i> refers to the <b>morphological composition</b> of the word.
18	C	The branch studying word meaning is <b>Semasiology</b> .
19	B	<i>Lab</i> and <i>laboratory</i> differ in <b>stylistic register</b> : formal vs informal.
20	E	<i>-ness</i> in <i>readiness</i> is a <b>bound morpheme</b> (cannot occur alone).
21	D	The negative prefix for adjectives ( <i>experienced, expensive</i> ) is <b>un-</b> →
22	A	<i>Aphaeresis</i> = removing the beginning of a word → <i>exam</i> ( <i>examination</i> ).
23	C	<i>Non-productive affixes</i> no longer form new words (e.g., <i>-th</i> in <i>warmth</i> ).
24	B	A <i>prefix</i> is a morpheme <b>preceding the root</b> (e.g., <i>unhappy</i> ).
25	C	A word with several meanings is <i>polysemantic</i> ( <i>table</i> : furniture, chart, etc.).
26	A	<i>Compound neutral words</i> consist of <b>two or more root morphemes</b> ( <i>blackboard</i> ).
27	B	An <i>allomorph</i> is a <b>positional variant</b> of a morpheme (e.g., plural <i>-s</i> / <i>-z</i> / / <i>-ɪz</i> /).
28	C	Suffixes <i>-less, -ful, -ster, -ish</i> are added to <b>noun stems</b> ( <i>childish, hopeful</i> ).
29	B	<i>Booklet, hanky</i> have <b>diminutive suffixes</b> <i>-let, -y</i> .
30	D	Prefixes of <b>repetition/reversal</b> : <i>re-, de-</i> ( <i>rewrite, defrost</i> ).
31	D	Prefixes of <b>time/space/degree</b> : <i>pre-, over-, inter-, ex-</i> .
32	A	Synonyms of <i>to hope</i> : <i>to expect, to look forward to, to anticipate</i> .

3. B	<i>Long-legged, blockbuster, three-wheeled</i> = <b>derived compounds</b> .
3. C	<i>Statesman</i> = <b>syntactic compound</b> (noun + noun pattern).
3. E	Adjective-forming suffixes: <i>-ful, -less</i> ( <i>careful, helpless</i> ).
3. B	<i>Friend – enemy</i> = <b>absolute (root) antonyms</b> , different roots and meanings.
3. C	<i>Conversion</i> = word-formation without affix: <i>slim (adj) → to slim (v)</i> .
3. A	<i>Fridge</i> from <i>refrigerator</i> = <b>shortening</b> .
3. C	Acronyms are <b>initialisms pronounced as words</b> ( <i>UNESCO, NATO</i> ).
4. D	<i>Ping-pong, chit-chat</i> formed by <b>reduplication</b> (repeating sounds).
4. A	<i>Appear – disappear</i> = <b>derivational antonyms</b> (with opposite prefixes).
4. B	<i>Life – live, blood – bleed</i> show <b>sound interchange (ablaut)</b> .
4. A	<i>Motel, brunch, smog</i> = <b>blends</b> (mix of two words).
4. B	<i>Televise, double-glaze, baby-sitter</i> = <b>back-formation</b> (verb from noun).
4. D	Synonyms of <i>to look</i> : <i>to gaze, to glance, to peep, to stare</i> .
4. C	<i>Homonyms proper</i> = identical in spelling and pronunciation but different in
4. E	Synonyms differ in sound-form but are <b>similar or identical in some meanings</b> , e.g.
4. B	<i>Fridge, pub, tech, exam</i> = <b>shortened words</b> .
4. E	<i>Brunch, heliport, sci-fi</i> = <b>blendings</b> (fusion of two parts).
5. D	<i>Bang!, hush!, pooh!</i> = <b>interjections</b> (express emotions).