



## LEXICAL UNITS RELATED TO THE EDUCATION SYSTEM IN A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF DIFFERENT LANGUAGES

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**Annotation:** *This article discusses the concept of “lexical unit” as proposed and introduced in the context of L2 vocabulary learning to replace the rather vague notion of word. At first, this concept is defined in terms of lexical semantics and then applied to the L2 learning task. The second describes two experimental studies in which the learning of different types of lexical units is examined.*

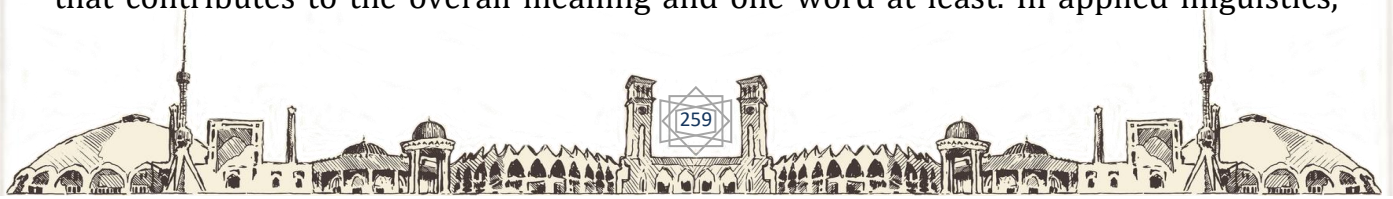
**Key words:** *to describe, experimental, lexical unit, sequential learning, paradigm, to investigate, novel ambiguous.*

### INTRODUCTION

The importance of knowledge in a form, but not meaning for the learning of new meanings in lexical units is showed in this article. For familiar forms in comparing different languages in comparative analysis is an inductive investigative approach based on the distinctive elements in a language. The meaning of a given word or set of words is best understood as the contribution that word or phrase can make to the meaning or function of the whole sentence or linguistic utterance where that word or phrase occurs. [1] The meaning of a given word is governed not only by the external object or idea that particular word is supposed to refer to, but also by the use of that particular word or phrase in a particular way, in a particular context, and to a particular effect.

However, L2 word acquisition includes multiple facets-not only learning novel word form and meaning but also learning additional meanings of already-learned words. A study using a sequential learning paradigm to investigate the learning of novel ambiguous L2 words found that the later learned meaning representation is weaker than the first-learned one, which might be due to interference from the unrelated first-learned meaning; other studies have found that the activation of original meanings during the encoding of new meanings produces an interaction between new and existing word knowledge, a process that may facilitate the integration of new information.

A lexical unit, according to linguists, involves much more than an aggrupation of letters. For a lexical unit to be considered as such, it must contain a semantic component (which may be a word, a phrase or a sentence) that contributes to the overall meaning and one word at least. For a lexical unit to be considered as such, it must contain a semantic component (which may be a word, a phrase or a sentence) that contributes to the overall meaning and one word at least. In applied linguistics,





the concept of word has at times been taken for granted, but there have been attempts at clarification, particularly in the context of corpus-based work on word lists and applications of such lists.

### METHODS

Due to the availability of Nation's BNC-based and BNC/COCA-25 word lists and the prolific work of Nation and collaborators, the Level-6 word family has largely become the standard unit in work on L2 vocabulary in the last fifteen to twenty years. This has, however, been questioned for some time, and two published word lists have defined word as lemma due to doubts over the appropriateness of word families for learners. Nation himself has argued that the word family is not appropriate for productive purposes, but claims it is appropriate for receptive purposes with all but early beginners.

Webb argues that the meaning of polysemic words is mostly only clear in context, therefore it is not very possible to learn such information with decontextualized activities, and this information can only be learned from context. Learning different senses of words takes place over time through encountering different senses of words in different contexts. Linguists' state, that words are used in different meanings in different contexts and that students encounter these contexts piece by piece constantly.

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Comparative analysis is the systematic study of a pair of languages with a view to identifying their structural differences and similarities. Comparative analysis can be carried out at three linguistic levels: phonology, grammar (morphology and syntax) and lexis. Comparative analysis is applied to reveal the features of sameness and difference in the lexical meaning and the semantic structure of correlated words in different languages.

### RESULTS

As I've analyzed the lexical units denoting "age" in comparative aspect, first, we should mention its definition in general into three languages and then we can look up some words around it or some phrases which denoting "age". [3]

We know that in English nouns can be used as verbs, but sometimes with some changes as connecting by prepositions or adjectives or adverbs or nouns. As a noun, "age" has the following meanings:

"Age" – 1) the number of years that a person has lived or thing has existed, e.g. He left school at the age of 18. She needs to find more friends of her own age. When I was your age I was already married.







2) a particular period of history, e.g. middle age. 15 is an awkward age. He died of old age.

3) a particular period of history, e.g. the nuclear age, the age of the computer, bronze age, iron age, new age, stone age.

4) the state of being old, e.g. Fine wine improves with age. The jacket was showing signs of age. Ex: The wisdom that comes with age.

5) in plural form "ages" in informal – a very long time, e.g. I waited for ages. It'll probably take ages to find a parking space. Carlos left ages ago. It's been ages since we've seen them.

Above we have analyzed the lexical unit denoting "age" as a noun, besides we can use this word as a verb:

1) to become older, e.g. As he aged, his memory got worse. The population is aging (=more people are living longer).

2) to make somebody/something look, feel or seem older, e.g. The shock has aged her enormously. Exposure to the sun ages the skin. These photos have been artificially aged.

3) to develop in flavor over a period of time; to allow something to do this, e.g. The cheese is left to age for at least a year. The wine is aged in oak casks.

As we must investigate the lexical units denoting "age" by semantic-stylistic way, certainly we should be careful with some idioms, which may be used with "age". The followings are idioms by "age":

1) be/act your age, to behave in a way that is suitable for somebody of your age and not as though you were much younger, e.g. Isn't it time you started acting your age?

2) when a person comes of age, they reach the age when they have an adult's legal rights and responsibilities, e.g. The money will go to the children when they come of age.

3) if something comes of age, it reaches the stage of development at which people accept and value it, e.g. It was the year that concern for the environment really came of age.[2]

In Russisch – Deutsches Wörterbuch (Russian – German dictionary) the word возраст is translated as Alter, and Lebensalter means о людях одного года рождения; ребёнок школьного возраста – ein schulpflichtiges Kind; призывной возраст – Einberufungsalter; одного возраста – gleichalt (e)rig; люди разного возраста – Menschen verschiedener Alters/stufen.

That is, 'the concept onto which L2 word is mapped is a L1 concept'. This claim of semantic transfer is in contrast with the assertions of some L2 researchers. Linguists contrary to the claim of semantic transfer hypothesis, states that '...one should not forget that vocabulary acquisition may also include the learning of new meanings for well-known words or for combinations of well-known words-that is, meanings that are not predictable on the basis of the already known meanings.' ...





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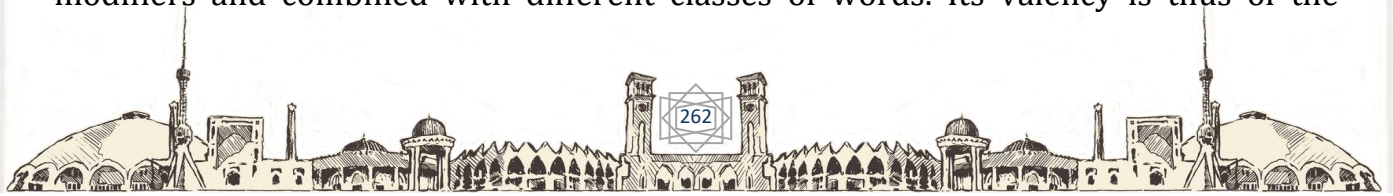
While there is a view that learners acquire new meanings when they are learning new words, the basis of L2 words are mapped to preexisting meanings of L1 whenever such meanings are available. Jiang carried out some studies to demonstrate the presence of L1 semantic features in processing L2 words.

### DISCUSSION

Most words are polysemic, having multiple meanings. Previous studies have tracked L2 learners' acquisition of peripheral meanings of known words longitudinally in naturalistic settings while others have examined effects of different types of polysemic words processing in more experimental settings. Verspoor and Lowie, for example, demonstrated that Dutch-speaking L2 English learners guess and retain target figurative meanings of polysemic words better when provided with target words in sentential contexts that contain core meaning as compared to figurative meaning on effects of image-schema-based vs. translation-based instruction of L2 polysemic words. [1,6]

Modern research suggests that the meaning of words is Emotioncy: a post-linguistic approach toward vocabulary learning and retention.

Most numerals also belong here. A much bigger part of this native vocabulary layer is formed by words of the Common Germanic stock, i.e. of words having parallels in German, Norwegian, Dutch, Icelandic, etc., but none in Russian or French. It contains a greater number of semantic groups. The following list may serve as an illustration of their general character. The nouns are summer, winter, storm, rain, ice, ground, bridge, house, shop, room, coal, iron, load, cloth, hat, shirt, shoe, care, evil, hope, life, need, rest; the verbs are bake, burn, buy, drive, hear, keep, learn, make, rise, see, send, shoot and may more; the adjectives are broad, dead, deaf, deep. Many adverbs and pronouns also belong to this layer. Together with the words of the common Indo-European stock these Common Germanic words form the bulk of the most frequent elements used in any style of speech. They constitute no less than 80% of the 500 most frequent words listed by Thorndike and Lorge. Words belonging to the subsets of the native word-stock are for the most part characterized by a wide range lexical and grammatical valency, high frequency value and a developed polysemy; they are often monosyllabic, show great word building power and enter a number of set expressions. For example, watch [wæccan] is one of the 50 most frequent English words. It may be used as a verb in more than ten different sentence patterns, with or without object and adverbial modifiers and combined with different classes of words. Its valency is thus of the







highest. Examples (to cite but a few) are as follows: are you going to play or only watch (the others play)? He was watching the crowd go by. Watch me carefully. He was watching for the man to leave the house. The man is being watched by the police. The noun "watch" may mean "the act of watching", "the guard"(on ships), "a period of duty for part of ship's crew", "the team on duty", "a period of wakefulness", "close observation", "a time-piece", etc. "Which" is the center of a numerous word-family: watch-dog, watcher, watchful, watchfulness, watch-out, watchword this root are "to be on the watch, to watch one's step, to keep watch, watchful as a hawk. There is also a proverb "the watched pot never boils", used when people show impatience or are unduly worrying. The part played by borrowings in the vocabulary of a language depends upon the history of each given language, being conditioned by direct linguistic contacts and political, economic and cultural relationships between nations. English history contains innumerable occasions for all types of such contacts. It is the vocabulary system of each language to every change in the life of speaking community. Nowhere, perhaps, is the influence of extra-linguistic social reality as obvious as in the etymological composition of the vocabulary. The source, the scope and the semantic sphere of the loan words are all dependent upon historical factors. [3,5] The very fact that up to 70% of the English vocabulary consists of loan words and only thirty percent of the word are native is due to not to an inherent tolerance of foreign elements but to specific conditions of the English language development. The Roman invasion, the introduction of Christianity, the Danish and Norman conquests, and, in modern times, the specific features marking the development of British colonialism and imperialism combined to cause important changes in the vocabulary. The term "source of borrowing" should be distinguished from the term "origin be borrowing". The first should be applied to the language from which the loan word was taken into English. The second, on the other hand, refers to the language to which the word may be traced. Thus, the word "paper" (French "paper" Latin "papyrus" German "papyrus") has French as its source of borrowing and Greek as its origin. Alongside loan words proper, we distinguish translates loans and semantic loans. Translation loan are words and expressions formen from the material already existing in the British language but according to patterns taking from another language, by way of literal morpheme-for-morpheme translation. Examples are: chain-smoker, without saying. French (cela) va sans dire. The term "semantic loan" is used to denote the development in an English word of a new meaning due to the influence of a related word in another language. The English word "pioneer" meant "explorer" and "one who is among the first in new field of activity"; now under the influence of the Russian words. The member of loan words in the English language is indeed so high that many foreign scholars (L.P.Smith, H.Bradlye and others) were inclined to reduce the study of the English vocabulary to the discussion of its etymology, taking it for granted that the development of English was mainly due to borrowing. The seemed to be more interested in tracing the





original source, form and meaning of every lexical element than in studying its present functioning and peculiarities. This view has been by now convincingly disproved. [2,5]

Lexical units (entries, items) are assigned sets of properties; these identify the lexical units as signs, and determine the organization of the lexicon. In practical contexts, the choice of lexical unit and the definition of priorities among its properties may be important for procedural reasons, i.e. in determining ways in which a lexicon may be most easily accessed: through orthography, pronunciation, meaning, syntactic properties, or via its morphological properties (stem, inflection). The application-driven decision on the kind of lexical unit which is most suitable for a given purpose is a non-trivial one. However, for many practical purposes fairly straightforward guidelines can be given:

- The form of a lexical item, in particular its orthography, is often used as the main identifying property for accessing the lexicon.
- However, access on phonetic grounds, via the phonological form, is evidently the optimal procedure for speech recognition, and access on conceptual semantic or syntactic grounds is evidently the optimal procedure for speech synthesis.
- The use of orthography as an intermediate stage in speech recognition is a useful and widespread heuristic which generally does not introduce significant numbers of artefacts into the mapping from speech signals to lexical items, but is not recommended for complex systems with large vocabularies, except as a means of visualization in user interfaces.
- For text-to-speech applications orthography is likely to be the optimal lexical access key.

It has already been noted that fully inflected form lexica and lexical databases are fairly standard for speech recognition. Where a small closed vocabulary is used, and new, unknown or ad hoc word formations are not required (as with most current applications in speech synthesis and recognition), fully inflected word forms are listed. This procedure is most convenient in languages with very small inflectional paradigms; for languages of the agglutinative type, in which large numbers of inflectional endings are concatenated, the procedure rapidly becomes intractable. In other applications, too, such as speech synthesis, it may be more tractable to generate fully inflected word forms from stems and endings.

German also has complex inflectional morphology, with significantly more endings on all articles, pronouns, nouns, adjectives and verbs, increasing the size of the vocabulary over the size of a stem-oriented lexicon by a factor of about 4.

In extremely highly inflecting languages such as Finnish, the number of endings and the length of sequences of endings multiply out to increase the vocabulary by a factor of over 1000. Special morphological techniques have been developed (e.g. two-level morphology) to permit efficient calculation of inflected forms and to avoid a finite but unmanageable explosion of lexicon size for highly inflecting languages. These techniques have so far not been applied to any significant extent in speech technology.







The figures cited refer only to the sets of forms. When the *form-function mapping*, i.e. the association of a given inflected form with a morph syntactic category, is considered, the figures become much worse. A single inflected adjective form such as *guten* in German has 44 possible interpretations which are relevant for morphosyntactic agreement contexts, with 13 *feminine* readings, 17 *masculine* readings, and 14 *neuter* readings, depending on different cases (*nominative, accusative, genitive* and *dative*) and different determiner (article) categories (*strong, weak* and *mixed*). It is possible to reduce the size of these sets by means of default-logic abbreviations in a lexical database, but for efficient processing, they ultimately need to be multiplied out. Similar considerations apply to other word categories, and to other highly inflecting languages.

### CONCLUSION

As a conclusion, one may agree that the concept of lexical unit is useful and precise because it allows examining the process that learners have to undergo to acquire vocabulary in their second language (Linguists, 2010). Because of the large number of lexical units in a language and so many aspects to learn about each of them, it is necessary to regard positively the high level of competence that many foreign language learners achieve, and consider what may be done for those who do not achieve such competence.

So, words with direct meaning that name various objects, phenomena, properties, actions, i.e. lexical units denoting everyday objects found in almost all spheres of human activity make up a stylistically neutral layer of language vocabulary. We believe that such comparative studies must be promoted, because it may lead to a more meticulous and cognitive approach to studying and teaching the semantic nature of languages.

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