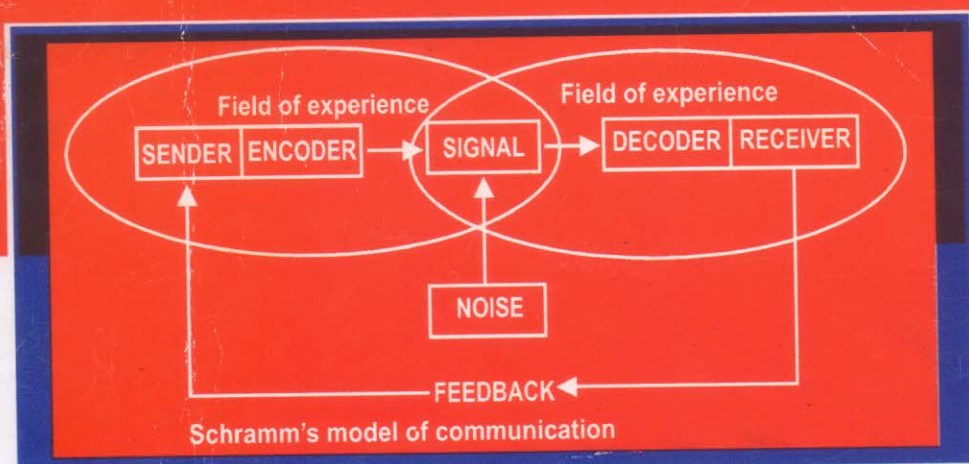


BASIC COMMUNICATION SKILLS

FOR STUDENTS OF
**SCIENCE AND
HUMANITIES**



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Chapter 5

REGISTER AND LEXICAL RELATIONS

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INTRODUCTION

Human beings speak and write in different ways depending on the situation and context of language use. Linguistic variables such as participants, field, mode, tenor, etc., account for **HOW** and **WHY** language users speak in a given situation. Whenever linguistic choices are selected to feature certain peculiarities of language use particularly within a given context, it is referred to as Register. Halliday, Mackintosh and Stevens (1964) see register as language "variety according to use". Register, therefore, is the distinctive use of words in a particular field. Register exhibits professionalism because it reflects familiarity with a subject matter, whether in speech or writing. Thus, certain vocabularies are seen to be appropriate in particular fields of discourse. For instance, there are vocabularies inherently associated to the field of sciences, humanities, economics, sports and entertainment, politics, religion, etc.

Lexical relations also known as semantic relations, is the interrelationships that words share with one another. Fromkin, Rodman and Hyams (2003, p.178) opine that "words are related to one another in a variety of ways. These relationships have words to describe them that often end in the bound morpheme **-nym**." Hence, lexical relations include: synonymy, antonymy, homonymy, hyponymy and polysemy. For example, words share sameness in meaning even though there are no perfect synonyms because no two words that have exactly the same meaning, as can be seen in a pair of words like 'lineage' and 'descent'. Though these words could be used interchangeably, context and style will aid users to identify which of the pair is most appropriate. While lexical relations is concerned with these relationships that words keep with one

another, register on the other hand focuses on the linguistic peculiarities certain vocabularies have in common with regards to certain profession/disciplines, contexts or groups of users. This chapter examines situational varieties of language known as registers in order to spotlight the different contexts that inform such usages. The chapter also surveys the semantic interrelationships between words referred to as lexical relations by paying close attention to terms used to signify such relationships and what they entail.

Registers: Meaning and Usage

Registers are varieties of words used to suit particular purposes or in particular settings. The purpose is often contextual and the setting can be formal or informal. Trudgill (1983, p.101) defines registers as "linguistic varieties that are linked ... to occupations, professions or topics". These situational varieties of language are usually characterised "solely by vocabulary differences; either by the use of particular words, or by the use of words in a particular sense" (p.101). The point made here is that registers differ either in terms of particular word choices or their semantic interpretation.

In the same vein, Romaine, (1994) explains that the notion of register is typically concerned with variations in language influenced mostly by specific uses rather than users. Factors that affect the choice of registers include consideration of the situation or context of use, the purpose, subject-matter and content of the message, and the relationship between the participants. Whenever recourse is given to grammatical appropriateness especially on collocation, then language users have simply adhered to the register. Alabi (1994, p.235) sees registers as "...situational varieties of any language", mainly categorised according to phonological, syntactic, lexical and semantic levels of choice. The situation or context always guides selection, from an array of words, of the ideal one that fills a linguistic slot. Therefore, registers are appropriate words used in appropriate contexts in both writing and speech.

Most professions or disciplines have their unique registers or what is sometimes referred to as jargon, i.e., specialised words known to particular members of a group. The register of law, for example, is different from the register of medicine, which in turn is different from the language of engineering and so on.

Registers can be associated, not only with groups nor individuals, but also with 'occasions' of use. It is important to note however, that although some words may have reference to two or more major fields of endeavour, the context of use usually differs. The study of registers may therefore be regarded as the examination of words and the context in which they are used. Such usage is sometimes seen as a mark of

identity to a particular different from *legales* political speeches, but a specific professional "RAM", "MODEM", computer jargon.

According to Joos (196 register, formal register The static register is the over a period of time. remaining fixed and un be categorised under Constitution.

Features of static register

- i) Static vocabulary
- ii) Use of archaic
- iii) Formalised usage

Examples of sentences

- (1) (a) 'Hallowed
- (b) Thou art o

The formal register is Other instances where between strangers, sp at work, school, public

Examples of formal usage

- (2) (a) Conflagration
- (b) The scholar

The consultative register from in formal communication official and a customer judge, a teacher and a

identity to a particular group. For example, *journalese* (the language of journalism) is different from *legalese* (the language of law). The same applies for medical jargons, political speeches, bureaucratic language, etc. 'Jargon' here refers to words peculiar to a specific professional realm or occupation. For example, words such as "ROM", "RAM", "MODEM", "Windows", "software", "hardware" and "byte" are part of computer jargon.

According to Joos (1967), there are five types of registers in English. These are **static register**, **formal register**, **consultative register**, **casual register** and **intimate register**. The static register is the constant language and style that rarely changes in content over a period of time. For example religious language often features a static register, remaining fixed and unchanging over a long period of time. Examples of text that can be categorised under static register include: The Lord's Prayer, The Pledge and The Constitution.

Features of **static register** include:

- i) Static vocabulary, i.e., little or no change in lexical items over a long time
- ii) Use of archaic words
- iii) Formalised use of language

Examples of sentences comprising such registers are shown below:

- (1) (a) 'Hallowed be thy name', the cleric prayed.
- (b) Thou art obligated to observe the *Salat*, the imam said.

The **formal register** is that which is mostly used in academic writing and speeches. Other instances where formal register is also appropriate include introductions between strangers, speeches, pronouncements made by judges, and communication at work, school, public offices and business settings.

Examples of formal usage include:

- (2) (a) Conflagration has engulfed his domicile.
- (b) The scholar adumbrated on the expedience of research.

The **consultative** register is a professional index of lexical choices that users select from in formal communication, like in the case of communication between a bank official and a customer, a lecturer and student, a doctor and a patient, a lawyer and a judge, a teacher and a student, etc.

Features of consultative register settings include:

- i) Two way participation, professional setting
- ii) Background information is provided (prior knowledge is not assumed).
- iii) Interruptions and feedback fillers are allowed ("uh-huh", "I see").
- iv) More complex syntax, longer phrases

Below is an example of a conversation using lexical items drawn from the consultative register.

(3) Cashier: Welcome to our bank

Customer: Thank you

Cashier: What transaction would you like to perform?

Customer: I want to cash a cheque.

In example (3) above, the use of words like *bank*, *transaction*, *cash* and *cheque* are drawn from the banking register.

The casual register is a type that uses informal language particularly by the members of a group. Common features of this type of register include:

- i) Very informal language, ellipsis and slang are common
- ii) No background information provided
- iii) "group" language – one must be a member to understand
- iv) Context and non-verbal communication are important for comprehension.

The use of casual register can be found among friends and acquaintances, family members, teammates, and chat blogs. Colloquialisms and abbreviations associated with chat messages include:

- (4) (a) *Lol* – Laugh out loud
- (b) *Brb* – Be right back
- (c) *Chill* – Relax
- (d) *Toast* – To propose friendship
- (e) *Babe/Chic* – A female
- (f) *Guy* – A male
- (g) *Chao* – To eat
- (h) *Kolo* – To go insane

From examples (4 a – h), it is apparent that to understand casual register, one must be a member of the group in question.

The intimate

- i) Non-
- ii) Inton
- iii) A priv

The intimate
boyfriend and
'dad', 'mum'

The contrast
highlighted by

- (1) Greet
- Frozen

Forma
Consu
Casua
Intima

- (2) Parting
- Frozen
- Forma
- Consu
- Casua
- Intima

- (3) Request
- Frozen

Forma
Consu
Casua
Intima

The **intimate register** usually expresses a close relationship among the users.

- i) Non-public context of use
- ii) Intonation as important as wording and grammar
- iii) A private vocabulary

The intimate register is often used between husband and wife, parent and child, boyfriend and girlfriend and among siblings. Words examples may include words like 'dad', 'mum', 'Antie', 'darling' among others.

The contrast between lexical items suitable for different kinds of registers is further highlighted by the contrastive examples below.

(1) Greetings in different registers:

- Frozen:** I hereby welcome you to the First International Conference on Linguistics, sponsored by The University of Ilorin.
- Formal:** Good morning, Sir. I will let Dr. Williams know you are here.
- Consultative:** Hello Mr. Adebayo. How are you doing today?
- Casual:** Hey, Mary. What's up?
- Intimate:** How's my little puppy today? (referring to a child or another intimate acquaintance).

(2) Partings in different registers

- Frozen:** Farewell, and godspeed.
- Formal:** Goodbye. We look forward to seeing you again.
- Consultative:** Thanks for doing business with us. Have a nice day.
- Casual:** Bye now – take care.
- Intimate:** Later, darling.

(3) Requests in different registers:

- Frozen:** Please submit the requested documents at your earliest convenience.
- Formal:** Could you possibly type this up for me by tomorrow?
- Consultative:** Can you finish this after lunch?
- Casual:** Watch the door for me, OK?
- Intimate:** Hey, darling, pour me some tea.

Experiment	Cast	Temple	Ancient
Soluble	Heroes	Penance	Kingdom
Filtration	Plot	Belief	Anal
Photosynthesis	Setting	Altar	Document
Carbohydrate	Metaphor	Ablution	Scroll
Substances	Symbolism	Pilgrimage	Map
Chemical	Paradox	Worship	Excavation

Performing Arts	Military	Medicine	Academic Language
Costume	Invasion	Scan	Research
Production	Attack	Capsule	Thesis
Stage	Colonel	Doctor	Dissertation
Theatre	Sergeant	Patient	Paper
Cast	Weapon	Dialysis	Abstract
Props	Battle	Catheter	Bibliography
Actor/ Actress	Rank	Cadaver	References
Drama	Barrack	Stethoscope	Journal

The above examples illustrate the fact that given context of registers may be social, economic, political, linguistic, professional, etc. In other words, each context and profession has its registers. The implication of all these is that the comprehension of the workings of any situation, profession, etc., is based on the knowledge of its register. Thus, the essence of registers is to allow for mutual intelligibility.

Exercise 1.

- (1) What are Registers? Distinguish between static and consultative registers.
- (2) Classify the following sentences according to their registers.
 - (a) The *current economic meltdown* is due to *inflation* and declining *Gross Domestic Product*.
 - (b) *Effective collaboration* is the *hallmark* of modern *research*.
 - (c) The *umpire* gave one of the *players* a *red card*.
 - (d) His *hot new single track* is on the top of the *billboards*.
- (3) Mention five words each from the following registers
 - (a) Journalism
 - (b) Music
 - (c) Archaeology

agriculture are c
Agriculture could

(4) (a) Crop p

(b) Li

(c) Fis

For example, in cr
'fallow' are concep
manure, compost, p
fertility or destroy p

It is noteworthy ho
disciplines. The wo
disciplines of medic
be found in medicine

Specific Registers

Our preoccupation in this section is to further establish the utilitarian essence of registers as they specifically relate to professions and disciplines. Examples from agriculture are cited as illustrative samples.

Agriculture could be classified as follows:

(4) (a) Crop production

- i) Manure
- ii) Compost
- iii) Fallowing
- iv) Pesticide
- v) Afforestation
- vi) Tractor

(b) Livestock farming

- i) Broiler
- ii) Dairy
- iii) Roughage
- iv) Milking
- v) Poultry

(c) Fishing farming

- i) Pond
- ii) Hatchling
- iii) Fingerlings
- iv) Hatchery
- v) Feed

For example, in crop production expressions such as the 'shifting cultivation' and 'fallow' are concepts that imply different methods of cultivating the land, while manure, compost, pesticides and herbicides refer to additives that either enhance soil fertility or destroy pests.

It is noteworthy however that the usage of some lexical items cuts across several disciplines. The word 'theatre', for example could be used as a register in the disciplines of medicine, performing arts and education. Also, the word operation can be found in medicine and the military, as shown below:

Word	Discipline			
	Performing arts	Medicine	Education	Military
Theatre	An open space where performances take place	A room where operations are performed	A complex or hall that can accommodate a large number of students	
Operation		A session of medical surgery		A planned action of invasion
Pupil		A part of the human eye	A young schoolboy or girl	

It can thus be said that in every speech or writing context, registers enable a reader to perceive the intention of the writer or speaker.

Lexical Relations

The human mental vocabulary is a highly organised system of relationships between words. These relationships between the words of a language and the meanings which they make are referred to as lexical relations. The word 'lexical' – derived from the Latin word *lexis*, meaning 'word' – means pertaining or relating to words. Thus, lexical relations (also called sense relations) are the interactions of meaning between the words or vocabulary of a language.

It is not unusual for language users to explain the meanings of words in terms of their relationships with other words. For example, a person asked the meaning of the word "serene" could say it has the same meaning as "calm". Similarly, the word 'black' can be said to be the opposite of 'white'. In both instances, the meanings of the initial words are explained in terms of their relationships to other words, showing that a pattern of meaning association exists between lexical units in a language. The meaning or sense of a word will thus be the network of sense-relations that hold between that word and other words of the same language. Lexical relations can be categorised into five broad categories: Synonymy, Antonymy, Hyponymy, Homonymy and Polysemy.

Synonymy

Synonymy implies sameness of meaning. It refers to the lexical relations existing between words with very closely related meanings. Synonyms are identifiable on the basis that they can be substituted, one for the other, in sentences. The English language in particular has a large number of synonyms because its vocabulary evolved

from different languages. Words that are said to be synonyms are said to be synonymous in a particular context, while retaining their original meaning (Crystal, 2010, p.105).

For example, a sign in

Please
work
bully
nett
Rod

In this instance, all the words are used in the same context, the treatment of the animal.

The box below further illustrates the differences between

Word	Synonym
Walk	Stroll Trudge Saunter Trek Amble March Plod Traipse Tramp
Fragile	Delicate Brittle Breakable
Small	Minute Little Tiny Slight
Colour	Hue Shade Tint Tinge Pigment
Throw	Fling Toss Pitch Lob Hurl Cast

from different linguistic (Germanic, Latin, Greek, French) influences. Two lexical items are said to be synonymous if both "may be substituted for each other in a given context, while retaining the semantic value of the expression as a whole" (Geeraerts, 2010, p.105).

For example, a sign in the San Diego Zoo Wild Animal Park states:

Please do not *annoy, torment, pester, plague, molest, worry, badger, harry, harass, heckle, persecute, irk, bullyrag, vex, disquiet, grate, beset, bother, tease, nettle, tantalize or ruffle* the animals. (Fromkin, Rodman, and Hyams, 2003, p. 181).

In this instance, all the words in italics can be seen as synonyms that all imply ill-treatment of the animals in one form or another.

The box below further illustrates the concept of synonymy. Notice the subtle differences between words that may have similar connotations.

Word	Synonym	Word class	Meaning
Walk	Stroll	Verb	walk in a leisurely way
	Trudge	Verb	walk slowly and with heavy steps, typically because of exhaustion or harsh conditions
	Saunter	Verb	walk in a slow, relaxed manner
	Trek	Verb	to journey on foot, especially to hike through mountainous areas
	Amble	Verb	walk or move at a slow, relaxed pace
	March	Verb	walk in a military manner with a regular measured tread
	Plod	Verb	walk doggedly and slowly with heavy steps
	Traipse	Verb	walk or move wearily or reluctantly
Fragile	Tramp	Verb	walk slowly, with regular heavy steps
	Delicate	Adjective	easily broken or damaged
	Brittle	Adjective	hard but liable to break easily
Small	Breakable	Adjective	capable of breaking or being broken easily
	Minute	Adjective	extremely small, as in size, amount, extent, or degree
	Little	Adjective	small in size, amount, or degree
	Tiny	Adjective	very small
Colour	Slight	Adjective	small in degree or quantity
	Hue	Noun	a colour or shade
	Shade	Noun	a colour, especially with regard to how light or dark it is or as distinguished from one nearly like it
	Tint	Noun	a shade or variety of a colour.
	Tinge	Noun	a trace of a colour
	Pigment	Noun	the natural colouring matter of animal or plant tissue
Throw	Fling	Verb	throw (something) forcefully
	Toss	Verb	throw (something) somewhere lightly or casually
	Pitch	Verb	throw (something) with careful aim and force
	Lob	Verb	throw or hit (something) in a high arc
	Hurl	Verb	throw (something) with great force
	Cast	verb	throw (roughly) or casually

It is however important to note (as illustrated by the table above) that the idea of 'sameness' of meaning in synonymy does not necessarily imply 'total sameness'. Yule (2006, 104) explains that:

There are many occasions when one word is appropriate in a sentence, but its synonym would be odd. For example, whereas the word *answer* fits in the sentence *Sandy had only one answer correct on the test*, the word *reply* would sound odd.

Thus, synonyms may differ in terms of contextual suitability, formal and informal usages, dialects, registers, connotation, collocation as well as emotive and evaluative meanings. For example, the words '*autumn*' and '*fall*', which are synonyms for the season between summer and winter, still differ in terms of dialectal use – '*fall*' being used in United States and '*autumn*' in Britain. Similarly, the words '*purchase*' and '*buy*' may be synonyms but the former is of a more formal usage than the latter.

Consequently, the sentence '*My mother purchased a large automobile*' may denote virtually the same meaning as '*My mum bought a big car*'. But though both sentences may have four synonymous words each, they express different degrees of formality, with the second version being much more casual or informal than the first. Also, social factors like politeness and group status influence the use of possible synonyms. It is therefore believed that it is difficult to list absolute synonyms that are identical both in denotation and connotation.

Antonymy

Antonymy refers to oppositeness of meaning. It describes the relationship between two words where one word in the pair is the antithesis of the other. Some scholars trace the existence of a large number of antonyms in the vocabulary of human languages to the general tendency that human beings have to polarise experience and judgment—to think in opposites (Lyons, 1968). Antonymous pairs are often used to explain contrastive concepts or opposing ideas; some lexicographers may define a word in terms of its antonym as in the case of 'trivial' being defined as 'not important'. Examples of antonymous pairs are *tall/short*, *fat/thin*, *alive/dead*, *old/new*, *ancient/modern*, *hot/cold*, *rich/poor*, *white/black*, *good/bad*, *clever/stupid*, *healthy/ill* and so on.

Antonyms can be categorised into subgroups as follows:

- Gradable Antonyms
- Non-gradable/Complimentary Antonyms

• Converse/R

Gradable Antonyms

These are antonyms. They can thus be graded. They are at the end of the scale. For example, they can be used to describe temperature: *hot/warm/tepid/cold*. They can have progressive degrees: *mornings are colder than the previous ones*. One member of a pair can be used in the sentence, *this glass of water is cold*. Other members are difficult/simple, fat/thin.

Non-Gradable or Com

These are antonyms that are not gradable. They are of words with opposite meanings. There is no spectrum; there is no middle ground. It explains that "we don't have another. Also, the negative member. That is, *My mother is dead*" (105). Eschallier (1998) exhaustively divides antonyms into compartments, so that they necessarily fall into two categories. Antonyms include: *true/false*.

Relational/Converse A

These are antonyms that show a reversal of meaning. They show a reversal of meaning. Zheng (2014) explains that *buy/sell*, *above/below* are relational antonyms. *A is B's husband* means *B is A's wife*. *A is a teacher* means *B is a student*.

- Converse / Relational Antonyms

Gradable Antonyms

These are antonyms that allow for comparison in their difference in terms of degree. They can thus be graded on a progressive scale such that one antonym occupies each end of the scale. For example, the antonyms *hot/cold* are gradable in the sense that they can be used to describe opposite ends of a temperature spectrum. Thus, we could have progressive reduction of temperature from one *hot* to *cold* thus: (*hot/warm/tepid/cool/cold*). The notion here is that gradable antonyms can be used in comparative constructions like *this glass of water is hotter than that one* or *the mornings are colder than the afternoons*. Yet it is important to note that the negative of one member of a gradable pair does not necessarily imply the other. For example, the sentence, *this glass of water is not hot* does not necessarily imply *this glass of water is cold*. Other examples include: *good/bad*, *big/small*, *long/short*, *dark/light*, *difficult/simple*, *fat/thin*, *hard/soft*, *wide/narrow*, *far/near*, etc.

Non-Gradable or Complementary Antonyms

These are antonyms that cannot be used in comparative constructions. They are pairs of words with opposite meanings, where the two meanings do not lie on a continuous spectrum; there is no intermediate ground between the pair. Yule (2006, p. 105) explains that "we don't typically describe someone as *deader* or *more dead* than another. Also, the negative of one member of a non-gradable pair does imply the other member. That is, *My grandparents aren't alive* does indeed mean *My grandparents are dead*" (105). Essentially therefore, a pair of complementary antonyms "exhaustively divides [a] conceptual domain into two mutually exclusive compartments, so that what does not fall into one of the compartments must necessarily fall into the other" (Cruse 1986, p.19). Other pairs of non-gradable antonyms include: *awake/asleep*, *married/single*, *pass/fail* *male/female*, and *true/false*.

Relational / Converse Antonyms

These are antonyms that are mutually dependent on each other for their meaning; they show a reversal relationship. They are pairs of words which are related in such a way that the use of one of them automatically suggests the other. That is why Gao and Zheng (2014) explain that "pairs like *husband/wife*, *doctor/patient*, *teacher/student*, *buy/sell*, *above/below* and *employer/employee* are all [related in] converse antonymy. A is B's husband means B is A's wife. A is B's doctor means B is A's patient. A is B's teacher means B is A's student" (p.238). The relationship between relational

antonyms hinges on the fact that one presupposes the other as one cannot talk about one without implying the other.

Exercise 2.

(a) Distinguish between synonyms and antonyms.

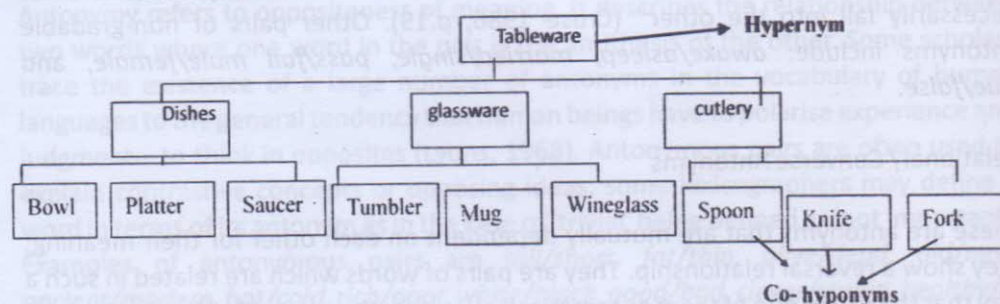
(b) Give five synonyms each for the following words.

- i) Costly
- ii) Loud
- iii) Flexible
- iv) Difficult
- v) Smell

Hyponymy

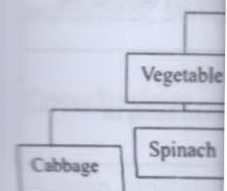
In this lexical relationship, the meaning of one word encompasses the meaning of another. Hyponyms are words whose meanings are part of a more general term, called the *hypernym*. In other words, a hyponym shares a *type-of* relationship with its hypernym. This concept of inclusiveness (a hypernym as consisting of hyponyms) is evident in such pairs of words as *fish/salmon*, *bird/eagle*, *flower/hibiscus*, *house/bungalow*, *tree/mahogany*, *fruit/orange*, where in each instance, the latter word (the hyponym) is a type of the former one (the hypernym). The meanings of these pairs of words are connected in a hierarchical relationship. In effect a *salmon* is a *type of fish* and an *eagle* is a *kind of bird* and so on. Co-hyponyms are separate hyponyms that share the same hypernym. For example, *monkey*, *squirrel*, *cat*, *platypus*, *dog*, *lion*, etc., are all co-hyponyms of the hypernym *animal*.

Table 1: The Hyponymous relationship between the word 'Tableware' and its constituents



In the table above, the hypernym 'Tableware' is seen to comprise co-hyponyms such as *dishes*, *glassware* and *cutlery*. These words in themselves are also 'hypernyms' comprising other co-hyponyms as shown above. The same hierarchical relationship is

shown in table 2 below.
Table 2: The Hyponymous constituents



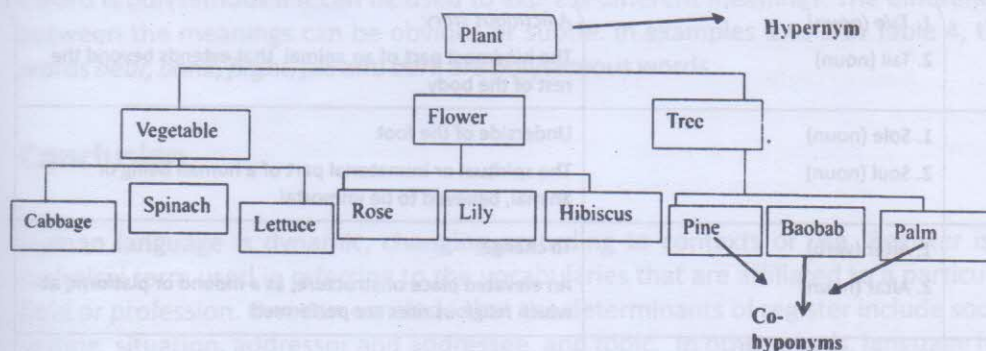
Looking at the diagram, 'Cabbage' is a hyponym of 'Vegetable'. 'Vegetable' is a super-ordinate (hypernym) of 'Cabbage'. They share the same super-ordinate. 'Cabbage' and 'Spinach' are co-hyponyms of the hypernym 'Vegetable'.

Homonymy

Homonymy is a relationship between words that have different meanings but are related by sound or spelling. For example, the words 'tale' and 'tail' are homophones. There is no relationship between the words 'tale' and 'tail'.

shown in table 2 below.

Table 2: The Hyponymous relationship between the word 'Plant' and its constituents



Looking at the diagram, we can say that '*vegetable*' is a hyponym of '*plant*' or that '*lily*' is a hyponym of '*flower*'. In these two examples, *vegetable* and *flower* are called the **super-ordinate** (higher level) terms. We can also say that the two or more words that share the same super-ordinate term are **co-hyponyms**. So, *pine* and *baobab* are co-hyponyms of the super-ordinate term '*tree*'. In summary, the relation of hyponyms capture the concept of "a kind of", expressed when we give the meaning of a word reagle, by saying "an eagle is a kind of *bird*".

Homonymy

Homonymy is a relationship that holds between two lexemes that have the same form but unrelated meanings. It is the relation between words with identical forms but different meanings. Homonyms can either be words that have same phonetic form (homophones) or the same orthographic form (homographs) but different meanings. For example, the word 'bear' may mean 'to carry' (verb), or "a large furry animal" (noun). There is no conceptual connection between these two meanings. Similarly, the words '*tale*' and '*tail*', '*sole*' and '*soul*' are homonyms.

1. (a) Business (b) Academic (c) Sports (d) Music
2. (a) reportage, print media, editorial, opinion and features
(b) blues, orchestra, album, singles and hip-hop
(c) anthropology, genealogy, artefact, fossil and excavation

Table 3: Examples of Homonyms

	Homonym	Meaning
1	1. Tale (noun) 2. Tail (noun)	A fictitious story The hindmost part of an animal that extends beyond the rest of the body
2	1. Sole (noun) 2. Soul (noun)	Underside of the foot The spiritual or immaterial part of a human being or animal, believed to be immortal
3	1. Alter (verb) 2. Altar (noun)	To change An elevated place or structure, as a mound or platform, at which religious rites are performed
4	1. Fair (adjective) 2. Fare (noun)	That which is just or right Price of transport
5	1. Break (verb) 2. Brake (noun)	To damage Device for stopping a car

Table 4: Examples of Homographs

	Homograph	Meaning
1	1. Bear (noun) 2. Bear (verb)	A large furry animal To carry
2	1. Bank (noun) 2. Bank (noun) 3. Bank (verb) 4. Bank (verb)	A financial institution The land bordering a river To tilt or cause to tilt sideways in making a turn (a banking aeroplane) To heap (a substance) into a mass or mound
3	1. Flight (noun) 2. Flight (noun) 3. Flight (noun)	An uninterrupted series of stairs The action or process of flying through the air A flock or large body of birds or insects in the air, especially when migrating
4	1. File (noun) 2. File (noun) 3. File (verb) 4. File (noun)	A folder or box for holding loose papers together and in order for easy reference Hand tool used for sharpening blunt objects Place (a document) in a cabinet, box, or folder in a particular order. A group of people walking one behind the other
5	1. Bark (noun) 2. Bark (verb)	The tough material that covers the outer layer of a tree trunk The sound made by a dog

Polysemy

A word is polysemous when it has more than one meaning. For example, the word *bear* has two meanings: a large furry animal and to carry.

Conclusion

Human language is a complex system. It is not just a collection of words and grammar rules. It is a system that allows us to communicate with each other. It is a system that is constantly changing and evolving. It is a system that is unique to humans.

Lexical relations are relations between words. They are relations that are based on the meaning of the words. They are relations that are based on the context of the words. They are relations that are based on the different meanings of the words. They are relations that are based on the different ways of using the words. They are relations that are based on the dynamic nature of language.

Suggested Assignment

Exercise 1

1. Register (noun)
information (noun)
That (noun)
What (noun)
The (noun)
cont (noun)
Bible (noun)
Con (noun)
part (noun)
tea (noun)
2. (a)
3. (a)
(b)
(c)

Polysemy

A word is polysemous if it can be used to express different meanings. The difference between the meanings can be obvious or subtle. In examples 1 to 5 in Table 4, the words *bear*, *bank*, *flight*, *file* and *bark* are polysemous words.

Conclusion

Human language is dynamic, changing according to contexts of use. Register is a technical term used in referring to the vocabularies that are affiliated to a particular field or profession. One can conclude that the determinants of register include social setting, situation, addressor and addressee, and topic. In other words, language has to be appropriate to the individuals speaking and hearing it, and it also must match particular occasions. Registers thus enable precision in speech and writing and avails language users the opportunity of self-expression using appropriate lexemes.

Lexical relation on the other hand refers to the relationships which words keep with one another. These relationships are shown in the meanings that are derivable from the context of use of a given word, such that particular words could be used to portray different meanings in different environments. Since the essence of language is communication, a plethora of words can therefore be used to express similar ideas in different ways. The concepts of register and lexical relations further underscore the dynamic nature of language.

Suggested Answers

Exercise 1

1. Registers are situational varieties of language use. They can be formal or informal and the user is often guided by who, what, when and where of use. That is who are the parties involved? What is the subject matter of discourse? What was the context of use, etc.?
 - The static register is the constant language and style that rarely changes in content over a period of time. The language is usually frozen, e.g., laws, The Bible, The Lord's Prayer, etc.
 - Consultative register is a standard form of communication between the participants involved in the discourse. It is usually two-way participation, e.g., teacher and student; a superior and a subordinate; a doctor and a patient, etc.
2. (a) Business (b) Academic (c) Sports (d) Music
3. (a) reportage, print media, editorial, opinion and features
 (b) blues, orchestra, album, singles and hip-hop
 (c) anthropology, genealogy, artefact, fossil and excavation

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Chapter

BASIC EN

Ibukun T. Osuolale-A

1. INTRODU

Communication is a process by which people verbally and non-verbally exchange information. The sender (the encoder) encodes the message with the ability to select words and combine sounds to form a message. One of the skills a language user must have to survive in the human community is the ability to use productive skills of language. This chapter will provide information on stress, intonation, and pitch to improve one's spoken English.