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**A functional lexematic analysis of *separate* verbs:
paradigmatic and syntagmatic features**

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0. Abstract

This project consists on describing and analysing a subset of *separate* verbs: *break*, *detach*, *disassemble*, *disentangle*, *disconnect*, *divide*, *part*, *segregate*, *separate* and *sunder*. These verbs have been chosen considering their meanings, and looking at the relations holding among them.

The topic involves dealing with two linguistic relations that are central in the analysis of a semantic domain: the paradigmatic and the syntagmatic relations. This offers us a neat picture of the interrelation between the syntax and semantics of verbs, and therefore contributes to a better and deeper understanding of their grammatical features.

As a result, the main objective of this project is to portray the behaviour of this lexical subdomain, thus showing their possible meanings and the different syntactic structures they may participate in.

The theoretical basis of this project lies principally in the works by Faber & Mairal (*Constructing a Lexicon of English Verbs*, 1999), Beth Levin (*English Verb Classes and Alternations*, 1993), and Adele Goldberg (*Constructions*, 1995). In their books they introduce the main concepts and contributions of the Functional Lexematic Model, the Alternations model, and Construction Grammar respectively. In addition to these theories which act as the basis of this research, there are other linguists that have contributed with their works to more particular analyses of the verbs that compose our domain. Reference to these works will also be made when relevant for our study.

The first part of the study on our lexical domain is devoted to the analysis of the paradigmatic relations: 1) It starts with the analysis of homonymy, synonymy and hypo/hyperonymy, following the description of these concepts offered by Saeed (2009). The latter led us to realise that the superordinate of *separate* is *change*. Therefore, we considered that all the members of our domain encode changes of state or location. 2) We focused on the analysis of differentiating features, taking into account Geckeler's (1984) work on determining the semantic components of the meaning of a word. After the analysis of our verbs in this section, we discarded some of the initial members of the domain because they did not exhibit the features we expected.

The second part of the study is devoted to the syntagmatic relations: 1) We started with the study of the selection restrictions of our verbs, considering the theory by Aarts & Calbert (1979). The purpose of the study of selection restrictions was to establish a description which acted as a hinge between the paradigmatic and syntagmatic analyses. Consequently, the results obtained were helpful for the forthcoming analysis of constructions and alternations. 2) We used all the information obtained in the last phase of the project, taking into account Goldberg's (1995) model of constructions, and Levin's (1993) theory of alternations. Once finished this part, we came to the conclusion that the meaning of our *separate* verbs was mainly adherent to some syntactic features, and that the use of these in different constructions depended on the kind of grammatical elements that composed it.

Finally, in the conclusion offered at the end of the research, the main results that have been achieved through all the analysis are summarised.

1. Introduction

The topic of this project has been chosen within the field of the interrelation of semantics and syntax as part of the field of English grammar. It focuses on a group of *separate* verbs –such as *separate*, *divide*, *disassemble*, *break* or *detach* among others– and the main aim is to create a lexical grammar of the subdomain, considering both paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations.

I have chosen this area of work because my interest in linguistics has been increasing throughout the degree. In fact, nowadays the study about the interaction between lexical items and morphosyntactic structures has a special importance in this field, since they have been separated subjects of research for decades.

One of the things that one may miss in the Degree of English Studies at this university is the presence of more subjects devoted to linguistics. Nevertheless, the presence of some of them such as “Gramática Inglesa” and “Estudios del Significado” have had a considerable significance in the development of our training.

I started the research on these verbs last year, and at the end of the course I was amazed at the amount of things that can be said about a single verb.

I think that the way how language works (in terms of syntactic structures, the relation they share with semantics, and even how they can change if we consider pragmatics) is fascinating. Language is a tool that is daily used by everyone in their lives, and there are many curious aspects that our mind and our common sense work in, using language to express ourselves and to understand what the world wants to transmit. Consequently, everything I learnt about language structure aroused my curiosity, and therefore, I decided to continue with the research in this final project of “my” English studies.

The project is not so much centred on how the mind works in relation to language, but rather it could be considered as the analysis of just one step of all the processes that take place when we produce language and also relate the lexicon in terms of conceptual meaning.

Thus, the organisation that has been considered adequate to achieve the goal of the project is as follows:

Chapter 2 contains a brief description of the theoretical preliminaries that contribute to the analysis of the different linguistic aspects which constitute the basis of this project. It includes

a general view of the Functional Lexematic Model (FLM) and other complementing theories that contribute to the study of the paradigmatic and syntagmatic features of lexical items.

Chapter 3 portrays a detailed analysis of the lexemes selected as members of the subdomain of *separate* verbs. This chapter is divided into four different parts.

Section 3.1. presents the possible candidates to our domain, which were taken from several sources that in turn present different approaches to lexeme classification.

Section 3.2. provides a description of our approach and the selection of the final verbs that compose the group of *separate* verbs under study. The internal organisation of the subdomain will be arranged in accordance with the method of the *Stepwise Lexical Decomposition* (SLD).

Section 3.3. is centred in the paradigmatic analysis of the selected verbs, which is based on Saeed's (2009) description of the semantic relations such as hyponymy and hyperonymy, and by Geckeler's (1984) description of the analysis of distinctive features.

Section 3.4. depicts succinctly the syntagmatic analysis of our verbs –the last part of the body of this project. It provides the model of semantic study proposed by Aarts & Calbert (1979) based on the selection restrictions, and the main postulates of Adele Goldberg (1995) and Beth Levin (1993) about constructions and alternations respectively.

Chapter 4 offers a conclusion based on the analysis that has been made throughout the previous chapter.

Chapter 5 includes an appendix with some documents that have been necessary during the realisation of the analysis.

Finally, chapter 6 lists the main resources that have served as the theoretical and methodological basis of the project.

2. Theoretical preliminaries

In this chapter, the main theories that form the basis of this project will be introduced as necessary preliminary information to the real focus of study.

From a general point of view, this project may be divided in several subtypes of linguistic analysis. First of all, the study that has been proposed here needs of theoretical support, and therefore we have specially followed the works by Faber & Mairal (1999), Levin (1993) and Goldberg (1995).

As it has been said, the main goal is to create a lexical grammar of one subdomain, which clusters a group of *separate* verbs in terms of both paradigmatic and syntagmatic features.

The model that has been followed for our study is the Functional Lexematic Model (henceforth FLM), a lexicological model proposed by Faber & Mairal (1999).

Faber & Mairal (1999, p. 69) allude to the lack of studies on semantic fields in contemporary linguistic theories, which is mainly due to the absence of such constructs within the Chomskyan framework. They also make reference to Cognitive Linguistics (pp. 69-70), which does not provide syntagmatic data; Generative Linguistics (pp. 71-72), which is less concerned with meaning; Pustejovsky's Generative Lexicon (p. 73) which presents "a conservative approach to decomposition where lexical items are minimally decomposed into structured forms (or templates) rather than sets of features"; Fillmore's Frame Semantics (pp. 73-75) which is based on the description of lexical meaning "in terms of a structured background of experience, belief, or practices necessary for its understanding"; WordNet (p. 75), where semantic fields are essentially paradigmatic; Natural Semantic Metalanguage (NSM) (pp. 76-77), in which the meaning of a word does not depend on the meaning of other words which share a similitude in the lexicon; and finally the Meaning Text Theory and the Explanatory Combinational Dictionary (pp. 77-79), that are concerned with the "microstructure of lexical entries", that is, the semantic relations of each lexical unit (e.g. binary semantic features).

The basic assumptions of Faber & Mairal (1999) on the study of semantic domains are summarised in the analysis of the paradigmatic and syntagmatic axis of the FLM:

The FLM uses the term *lexical domain* instead of *semantic field*. We have purposely avoided this label because as has been made obvious in the preceding sections, the concept of semantic field has been and still is the object of much imprecision. Our lexical domains are somewhat different from traditional semantic fields in that criteria for membership are specified and the internal structure is mapped out through the codification of both paradigmatic and syntagmatic information. (Faber & Mairal, 1999, p.79)

Thus, the focus of this project will be focused on the proposal by Faber & Mairal (1999), by analysing the paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations separately.

For the study of the paradigmatic axis in this project, diverse theories will be used in order to make a deeper and reliable analysis of our lexical domain. Among these contributions, the most relevant ones are Saeed's (2009) on the study of lexical relations and meaning, and Geckeler's (1984) on the study of semantic features. In addition to this, the FLM focuses on the definitions designed by *genus* and *differentia* and the organisation of domains by means of the *Stepwise Lexical Decomposition* (SLD), and therefore the initial point of our analysis will be the organisation of our verbs in the SLD.

For the syntagmatic axis, the theories that will serve as the basis are Aarts & Calbert's (1979) for the study of selection restrictions of the verbs, Goldberg's (1995) notion of *constructions*, and Levin (1993) which is the central part of the analysis and the most relevant in terms of syntactic information.

Levin (1993, p. 1) contributes in her work with a classification of verbs and alternations, which are based on a theory which "must provide linguistically motivated lexical entries for verbs which incorporate a representation of verb meaning and which allow the meanings of verbs to be properly associated with the syntactic expressions of their arguments".

A detailed description of these theories with the proper analysis of our domain is offered in the following section –more specifically, sections 3.3 and 3.4. The final aim of this comparison is to offer an elaborated description of the meaning and the syntax of our group of *separate* verbs.

3. The scope of analysis: separate verbs

There are several studies that provide us with different groupings of verbs around the semantic notion of “separating”. However, they result from the application of different methodological approaches and consequently yield varied results.

The first step of this research would be to delimit a semantic territory of this group of verbs in terms of both syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations. For this, we will follow Faber & Mairal’s approach in their book *Constructing a Lexicon of English Verbs*, the FLM.

The term “semantic field” has been used by linguists to describe groups of related words, and as noted by Faber & Mairal (1999, pp. 67-69) the study of these semantic fields has changed over the years. They play an important role in contemporary linguistic theory, and the representation of these varies depending on the theoretical school in which they are categorised.

After analysing some different linguistic theories, Faber & Mairal’s (1999) central task is to create semantic fields, even though they will replace this term by the more contemporary concept of “semantic domain”, organised in terms of syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations. Therefore, this proposal follows the line of the Functional Lexematic Model (FLM), organising the lexical items by their core meaning and syntax.

3.1. Corpus selection: LLCE, FrameNet, Levin

Some of the studies mentioned before can be found in three different sources: the *Longman Lexicon of Contemporary English* which relates the verbs in terms of conceptual meaning; *FrameNet*, which proposes different semantic groups for “separating” verbs which are related in terms of conceptual meaning; and Levin’s classification in *English Verb Classes and Alternations*, which groups verbs only in terms of syntagmatic relations.

The first step in our analysis was the search for possible candidates as members of this domain in these sources, in order to create the first list of items related by their meaning.

The Longman Lexicon of Contemporary English

The verbs that the *Longman Lexicon of Contemporary English*¹ dictionary provides are the following:

disconnect	split	detach	slice
separate	sunder	partition	chop
part	break down	branch	whittle
divide	disengage	sever	segment

FrameNet

On the other hand, *FrameNet*² divides the group of *separate* verbs in four different subgroups or categories.

In the first place, the frame ‘separating’ includes a group of verbs that refer to “separating a whole into parts, or separating one part from another”. These verbs are:

separate	bisect	segregate
divide	part	sever
split	partition	
section	segment	

The second subgroup –‘forming relationships’– whose meaning involves a partner (1) who interacts with another partner (2) to change their social relationship. These verbs are:

separate
divorce
leave

¹ N - General and Abstract Terms: N321 verbs & nouns: *separating* and *dividing* (pp. 767-768).

² FrameNet data search for separate. (n.d.). Retrieved February 9, 2015, from FrameNet website: https://framenet.icsi.berkeley.edu/fndrupal/framenet_search

In the third place, the frame of ‘becoming separated’ encompasses a group of verbs in which “a whole separates into parts, or one part of a whole called ‘part 1’, becomes separate from the remaining portion (part 2)”. These are:

divide

separate

split

Finally, the last subgroup –the frame of ‘differentiation’– is composed by verbs that “have to do with a cognizer being aware (or not being aware) of the difference between two phenomena, which may be expressed jointly or disjointly.” These are:

separate

distinguish

tell apart

differentiate

know

tell from

discriminate

sort

Levin’s classification

Significantly, Levin (1993) contributes with a different classification. She recognises a group of verbs of “separating and disassembling”, which further divides into four subgroups:

1. *Separate* verbs:

decouple

dissociate

part

differentiate

distinguish

segregate

disconnect

divide

separate

disentangle

divorce

sever

2. *Split* verbs:

blow	draw	kick	pull
break	hack	knock	push
cut	hew	pry	rip
roll	shove	split	tug
saw	slip	tear	yank

3. *Disassemble* verbs:

detach	unbutton	unhitch	unscrew
disassemble	unchain	unhook	unshackle
disconnect	unclamp	unlace	unstaple
partition	unclasp	unlatch	unstitch
sift	unclip	unlock	untie
sunder	unfasten	unleash	unzip
unbolt	unglue	unpeg	
unbuckle	unhinge	unpin	

4. *Differ* verbs:

differ

diverge

Unlike the approach that Faber and Mairal (1999) propose, these verbs have been clustered in those groups by considering only their syntagmatic behaviour, taking more into account the use of different types of prepositional complementation in the structures rather than their basic semantic import. For this reason, the lists that Levin (1993) provides result in a very

different classification, based on the notion of lexical class rather than on the concept of field or domain.

3.2. Our approach: The Functional Lexical Model (Faber & Mairal)

As it is stated by Faber & Mairal (1999, pp. 80-81), the organisation of words in onomasiological dictionaries is similar to the organisation of our mental lexicon, thus prevailing the idea of conceptual meaning. On the contrary, semasiological dictionaries order words alphabetically, without any kind of relation among them:

The alphabetical organization prevalent in dictionaries has the drawback of not being psychologically relevant, and has little relation to the way words are actually stored within our mind. Psycholinguistic experiments such as word association and semantic priming have shown that semantic relations are a function of memory, and that words with related meanings are stored near each other in the mental lexicon (Aitchison 1994)

This view leads us to consider the semantic relations of words as a basic organising parameter in semantic analysis. Faber & Mairal (1999, p. 84) state that “verbs are also the most basic category in paradigmatic structure because the macrostructure implicit in the verbal lexicon also influences the organizational pattern of other categories as well”. This means that the study of the paradigmatic relations of words –in this case of verbs– influences other aspects in semantic studies, such as the syntagmatic relations.

Similar to this idea, Saeed (2009, pp. 9-10) proposes that the study of meaning is not a separate level of the study of semantics and syntax. He uses the example of the word *whale*, and says that speakers use this word because they know its meaning. Furthermore, he states (2009, p. 8) that “the knowledge a speaker has of the meaning of words is often compared to a mental lexicon or dictionary.” This means that we organise our knowledge in terms of conceptual relations, and that we can associate a whale with other similar concepts as those of a marine animal or mammal, and not because it is within the *W* section of a physical dictionary.

The organisation and study of the lexicon influences the structures and possible situations in which words may be used. Consequently, both paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations are fundamental in the study of meaning, and although both are interrelated, their characteristics will be studied separately for methodological purposes.

The methodology to analyse the paradigmatic relations followed in the FLM is based on the notions of *genus* and *differentia*. A definition of these two terms is provided in Riemer (2010, pp. 67-69). The *genus* is the specific feature that all words of the same sort share in their definition (that marks a specific domain); and the *differentia* provides the new different features of the lexical item, the ones that distinguish them from the other members of the domain.

According to this, if we look up the verb *separate* in three different monolingual dictionaries in order to contrast the differences among them, we will find the following:

a) The *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*³: **1** [I, T] to divide into different parts or groups; to divide things into different parts or groups: *Stir the sauce constantly so that it does not separate. Separate the eggs (= separate the yolk from the white).* **2** [I, T] to move apart; to make people or things move apart: *South America and Africa separated 200 million years ago. South America separated from Africa 200 million years ago. We separated into several different search parties.* **3** [T] to be between two people, areas, countries, etc. so that they are not touching or connected: *a thousand kilometres separates the two cities.* **4** [I] to stop living together as a couple with your husband, wife or partner: *they separated last year.*

b) The *WordReference*⁴ online dictionary: **1** to (cause to) come or draw apart; divide: [*~ + object*] *to separate two fighting boys*; [*~ + object + from + object*] *The school separates the boys from the girls*; [*no object*] *The two fighters separated, then went after each other again.* **2** to divide into pieces: [*~ + object*] *Separate the strips of bacon and fry them individually*; [*no object*] *After defrosting, the strips of bacon will separate easily.* **3** to (cause to) become extracted: [*~ + object*] *to separate metal from ore*; [*no object*] *The metal easily separates from the ore.* **4** [*no object*] to stop living together but without divorce: *He and his wife separated last year.*

c) The *Cambridge Dictionaries Online*⁵: **1** (divide) [I or T] to (cause to) divide into parts: *The north and south of the country are separated by a mountain range. You can get a special device for separating egg whites from yolks. The top and bottom sections are quite difficult to separate.* **2** (move apart) [I or T] to make people move apart or into different places, or to

³Separate. (2010). In *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (8th ed.). Oxford University Press: Oxford.

⁴Separate [Def.]. (2015). *WordReference*. Retrieved April 5, 2015, from WordReference website: <http://www.wordreference.com/definition/separate>

⁵Separate [Def.]. (2015). *Cambridge dictionaries online*. Retrieved April 7, 2015, from Cambridge Dictionaries Online website: <http://dictionary.cambridge.org/es/diccionario/britanico/separate>

move apart: *At school they always tried to separate Jane and me because we were troublemakers. Somehow in the rush to get out of the building, I got separated from my mother. Perhaps we should separate now and meet up later.* **3** (consider as different) [T] to consider two people or things as different or not related: *You can't separate morality from politics.* **4** (liquid) [I] If a liquid separates, it becomes two different liquids. **5** (relationship) [I] to start to live in a different place from your husband or wife because the relationship has ended: *My parents separated when I was six and divorced a couple of years later.*

Paying attention to these definitions provided by several dictionaries⁶, we may come to the conclusion that the verb *separate* has three main senses: a) to divide into different parts or groups; b) cause to move or be apart; c) to stop living together but without divorce.

Sense (c) can be understood as a metaphorical extension of the other senses; therefore, we can establish two basic related meanings for *separate*, a fractionary sense and an ablative motional sense. Furthermore, this second sense can be reconsidered as a hyponimic extension of the first one, as it involves a kind of 'motion' event that occurs as a consequence of the first fractionary meaning. Consequently, group (b) of "ablative" verbs below can be understood as a subgroup within (a).

Once settled the basic meanings of 'separate', it is feasible to establish the level of semantic proximity of the rest of the verbs extracted. In order to obtain an organised picture of the relations holding among the different lexemes, we will follow the procedure of *Stepwise Lexical Decomposition* (SLD). Such a procedure is based on the establishment of the position of lexemes, which would be organised as a hierarchy of domains and subdomains. This hierarchy is delimited by a nuclear meaning or *genus*, and the members of the domain are distinguished by their *differentiae* (Montero-Martínez, 2009, section 2.2.2.). Furthermore, each member's definition is composed of its immediate hypernym plus the relevant differentiating features.

The following chart results from applying the method of SLD to the verbs that have been considered relevant from Levin, the *Longman Lexicon of Contemporary English*, and *FrameNet*:

⁶ Appendix 1.

a) **separate:** to divide into different parts or groups

detach: to separate or remove something into its different parts

disentangle: to separate things that have become joined or confused

disassemble: to separate something into its different parts

disconnect: (technology) to separate (one thing from another)

divide: to (cause to) separate into parts or groups

part: to separate or cause something or someone to separate

segregate: to separate or set apart from others

sever: to separate; part; divide; sever

b) **separate:** cause to move or be apart

disengage: separate or release (somebody or something) from something to which they are attached or connected

detach: disengage (something or part of something) and remove it

divide: separate or be separated into parts

section: to divide into sections

segment: divide (something) into separate parts or sections

segregate: to separate or set apart from others

sort: to arrange or separate according to kind or class

c) **separate:** to stop living together but without divorce

divorce: to separate by divorce

For a better understanding of the procedure, we will focus the description on the relations holding among the members of the first subdomain, which are organised in alphabetical order:

detach	part
disassemble	segregate
disentangle	separate
disconnect	sunder
divide	

3.3. Paradigmatic analysis of selected verbs

In general terms, once our subdomain has been arranged following the SLD, we can establish the set of paradigmatic relations that hold among its members. A paradigmatic relation refers to the relation among elements of the same category, and concerns substitution, more specifically, at the lexical level.

There are some lexical relations that can be studied, such as: synonymy, homonymy, hyponymy/hyperonymy, and archilexemes.

Firstly, homonyms are unrelated senses of the same phonological word. We can find the word *part*⁷ as a verb and a noun:

- *Part* (noun): “**1** some but not all of a thing; [...] **9** a role played by an actor in a play, film/movie, etc; the words spoken by an actor in a particular role; **11** music for a particular voice or instrument in a group singing or playing together; **13** (NAme) a line on a person’s head where the hair is divided with a comb.”
- *Part* (verb): “**3** if two things or parts of things part or you part them, they move away from each other.”

As we can see in the examples above, *part* can be a noun and a verb; therefore, they are lexemes of different categories but with the same spelling. Consequently, the meanings are not related, although the pronunciation is the same. In other words, they are homographs (senses of the same written word) and homophones (senses of the same spoken word). Strictly speaking, this lexical relation is not ‘intra-domain’. However, it is also possible to observe that within the same category, there are different senses of the same word. This means that

⁷ Part. (2010). In *Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary* (8th ed.). Oxford University Press: Oxford.

they are also homonyms of the same syntactic category, and with the same spelling. For instance, in the definition of *part* as a noun there are four unrelated senses of the same word.

Hyponymy is the semantic relation of including terms that belong to a lower rank in meaning. As it is stated by Saeed (2009, p. 69), “hyponymy is a relation of inclusion”, and “a hyponym includes the meaning of a more general word”. Hence, the more general term would be the *hypernym* or *superordinate*, whereas the more specific instances are the *hyponyms*.

Taking into account the Stepwise Lexical Decomposition, the hypernym of the selected group of verbs would be *separate*. However, if we search for the verb *separate* in the *WordNet*⁸ webpage, the inherited hypernym provided is *change*: “(undergo a change; become different in essence; losing one's or its original nature) *She changed completely as she grew older; The weather changed last night*”. Thus, our subdomain can be allocated within the general class of change of state verbs.

Nevertheless, within the subdomain under study, *separate* can be considered the archilexeme, as it is the topmost hypernym in terms of which all other items can be defined directly or indirectly.

The set of differentiating features or *differentiae* that characterise primarily hyponymy relatives can be described by resorting to semic analysis as it was established in Lexematic Studies (i.e. Geckeler, 1984), which can in turn be considered a predecessor of the FLM.

We are going to analyse the semantic features that determine the components of meaning of a word, following the theory of the analysis of meaning in terms of distinctive features that H. Geckeler (1984) explains in his book *Semántica estructural y teoría del campo léxico*.

As it is stated by Geckeler (1984, p. 252), some of the most prominent linguists that have contributed theoretically to the analysis of distinctive features have been: E. Coseriu, A.-J. Greimas, and B. Pottier. Nevertheless, the model proposed by Pottier is considered the most condensed in which the essential points are explained.

For this reason, Geckeler (1984) contributes with Pottier's model in his work, and provides several examples that explain the methodology of this kind of semantic analysis. First of all, he introduces the most relevant terms (Geckeler, 1984, pp. 256-257):

⁸ Separate. (n.d.). Retrieved June 7, 2015, from WordNet website:

<http://wordnetweb.princeton.edu/perl/webwn?o2=&o0=1&o8=1&o1=1&o7=&o5=&o9=&o6=&o3=&o4=&s=separate&i=24&h=000001100000000000112302000101123020000000000000#c>

- *Sème*: “le trait sémantique pertinent” [my translation: the relevant semantic feature];
- *Sémème*: “el conjunto de rasgos semánticos pertinentes (o *semas*) que entran en la definición de la sustancia de un lexema” [my translation: the set of relevant semantic features (or *semes*) within the definition of the substance of a lexeme];
- *Lexème*: “la expresión léxica de un *sémème*” [my translation: the lexical expression of a *sememe*];
- *Archisémème*: “El conjunto de rasgos semánticos que son ellos solos pertinentes en la posición de neutralización” [my translation: the set of semantic features that are relevant by themselves in the position of neutralisation];
- *Archilexème*: “la realización léxica del *archisémème*” [my translation: the lexical realisation of the *archisememe*];
- *Clasema*: “el *clasema* es una caracterización de pertenencia de sememas a clases generales semántico-funcionales: animación, continuidad, transitividad” [my translation: the *claseme* is a characterisation of membership of sememes to semantic-functional general classes: animation, continuity, transitivity].

In order to provide a better understanding of the use of these terms, Geckeler (1984) points in turn quotes by Pottier in *Présentation de la linguistique* (1967), one of his most relevant contributions:

El contenido sémico de un lexeme es su *semema*. El *semema* es el conjunto de *semas*. El *sema* es el rasgo distintivo mínimo de significación y se revela por oposición en un conjunto léxico. No es más que operando, pues, con pequeños *conjuntos léxicos* como se pueden establecer los *semas* de un *semema*. (Geckeler, 1984, p. 259)⁹

Moreover, Cortés-Rodríguez (2014: adapted from Pottier, 1963) offers the definitions of some of the terms previously mentioned in one of his PowerPoint presentations for the third-year subject “Estudios del Significado”:

- *Seme*: a minimal distinctive semantic feature, namely a component of meaning which is peculiar to a lexical unit and notably allows contrast with another lexical unit.
- *Sememe*: the set of the semantic features (or *semes*) falling within the definition of the substance of a lexical unit

⁹ My translation: The semic content of a lexeme is its *sememe*. The *sememe* is the set of *semes*. The *seme* is the minimum distinctive signification feature and is revealed by an opposition in a lexical set. It is operating, then, with small lexical sets how the *semes* of a *sememe* can be established. (Geckeler, 1984, p. 259).

- *Archisememe*: the set of the semantic features (or semes) common to various sememes.

He provides a visual representation in the slide as a complement of the definitions with one of the examples that Pottier portrays in his theory. Therefore, the following picture summarises these terms in a table:

Pottier's methodology:

Archilexeme	s1 for sitting	s2 for one person	s3 with legs	s4 with back	s5 with armrests	s6 rigid material
<i>siège</i>	+					
<i>chaise</i>	+	+	+	+	-	+
<i>fauteuil</i>	+	+	+	+	+	+
<i>tabouret</i>	+	+	+	-	-	+
<i>canapé</i>	+	-	+	+	+	+
<i>pouf</i>	+	+	-	-	-	-

The field of sitting furniture in French according to Pottier

Archisememe

Semes

Sememe

(Cortés-Rodríguez, F. J., 2014, slide 26)

Apart from the contribution of lexematics to the analysis of the components of the meaning of a word mentioned early in this study, Geckeler (1984, p. 263) also makes reference to a group of linguists in the United States that follows, to some extent, this analysis made in Europe. He refers to F. G. Lounsbury as one of the most outstanding ones, who considers that “a kinship vocabulary can be regarded as constituting a paradigm” (Geckeler, 1984, p. 264), and on account of this, Geckeler compares it with a definition of a field as lexical paradigm by Coseriu:

We shall regard as a paradigm any set of linguistic forms wherein: (a) the meaning of every form has a feature in common with the meaning of all other forms of the set, and (b) the meaning of every form differs from that of every other form of the set by one or more additional features. The common feature will be said to be the ROOT MEANING of the paradigm. It defines the semantic field which the forms of the paradigm partition. The variable features define the SEMANTIC DIMENSIONS of the paradigm. (Geckeler, 1984, p. 265)

Taking these approaches into account, the next table contains our selection of verbs, analysed in accordance with the methodology provided by Pottier (1967):

	cause	move or be apart	into parts	people	things
separate	+	+	+	+	+
detach	+	+	+	-	+
disassemble	+	+	+	-	+
disentangle	+	+	-	-	+
disconnect	+	-	-	-	+
divide	+	+	+	+	+
part	+	+	+	-	+
segregate	+	+	+	+	+
sunder	+	+	+	-	+

For a clear understanding of the lexematic analysis in the table, it is necessary to explain why the different semes that appear in this diagram have been chosen. First of all, it has been interpreted that the core meaning of our group of verbs is “(cause to) move or be apart”, since an event which ‘separates’ things needs by default a movement and makes someone or something to be apart.

Secondly, it was difficult to decide whether to include or not “into parts” in the list of semes; but after looking up exhaustively several pages of definitions we reached the conclusion that, for a verb like *disconnect*, for example, the separation is not made into parts, as we can disconnect the Wi-Fi connection, and no parts result; we are just cut off from the stream. Therefore, its inclusion was necessary.

Thirdly, looking at the results obtained in the *British National Corpus* (BNC) (which will be commented on later), a clear distinction between whether the subject of the action (a person or a thing) had to be made; so that is why “people” and “things” are included as other semes. Therefore, they can be considered as an advance of the next section, in which a syntagmatic analysis of our corpus of lexemes will be made considering the study of the selection restrictions of the verbs.

All in all, the archilexeme would be the verb *separate* itself, and it is the nuclear word since it serves as a model in terms of which all the other words can be defined.

Nevertheless, if we observe the data displayed in the table, we can see that the verb *disconnect* does not share what we have considered as the main seme. Consequently, this contradicts the idea that the meaning of every form has a feature in common with the other ones that are part of the set; i.e. the members of the semantic field.

Accordingly, this verb will be removed from the list that has been considered at the end of section 3.2, and the following analysis will be reduced to the study of eight verbs.

3.4. Syntagmatic analysis of selected verbs

A syntagmatic relation is the combination of items within the same syntactic structure, and therefore, it concerns position. As it is stated by Faber & Mairal (1999, p. 115) “the syntagmatic axis illustrates the extent to which semantic information on the paradigmatic axis is relevant to the form and function of verb complementation when it is analysed within the larger framework of a lexicon”.

In order to carry out a thorough syntagmatic analysis about the verbs that have been selected, we will divide this section into two: the first one will be concerned with the study of the selection restrictions of our verbs, and the second one will be devoted to the alternations in which they participate.

The model of semantic study proposed by Aarts & Calbert (1979) concerns the analysis of the meaning of lexical items into smaller components that illustrates the lexical relations among several lexical items, as well as the delimitation of the meaning of a specific one.

For them, in order to create a useful and meaningful model that contributes to the specification of the nature of words, it is necessary to take into account the attributes and qualities which these lexical items contain in their meaning. Furthermore, they take under consideration the importance of the use of new notions to make their approach differ from other previous ones:

1. contextual restrictions do not have the blocking function that they have in other models, but serve as a means to invoke particular interpretive rules and may directly contribute to semantic interpretation;
2. connotative elements of meaning are incorporated in lexical entries and may, under the proper conditions, be turned into denotative elements;
3. there is no difference in kind, but rather a difference in degree between metaphorical ('deviant') and non-metaphorical expressions, and they can be handled by the same interpretive mechanism. (Aarts & Calbert, 1979, p. 7)

Consequently, Aarts & Calbert (1979, pp. 10-11) explain several terms that will be used in their model. These are *feature*, *concept*, and *senses*. The semantic components that would permit the analysis of the meaning of words are the *features*; what these features represent are *concepts*; and a *sense* is the conformation of features that relate to a phonological form, therefore, the representation of a lexical item and its meaning(s).

They give the example of the feature [+HUMAN], which represents the concept 'human'. The sense of this concept could be, for instance, the definition of *man*: "an adult male person, as distinguished from a boy or a woman"¹⁰. Moreover, when a sense is used in a context, it refers to an *object*, which can be physical objects or events, feelings, ideas, etc.

Since there can be many senses of a word, or related lexical items which share the same concepts and features, a method is needed to differentiate them from each other. For this reason, Aarts & Calbert (1979) offer a group of semantic features that comprise all these previous explanations.

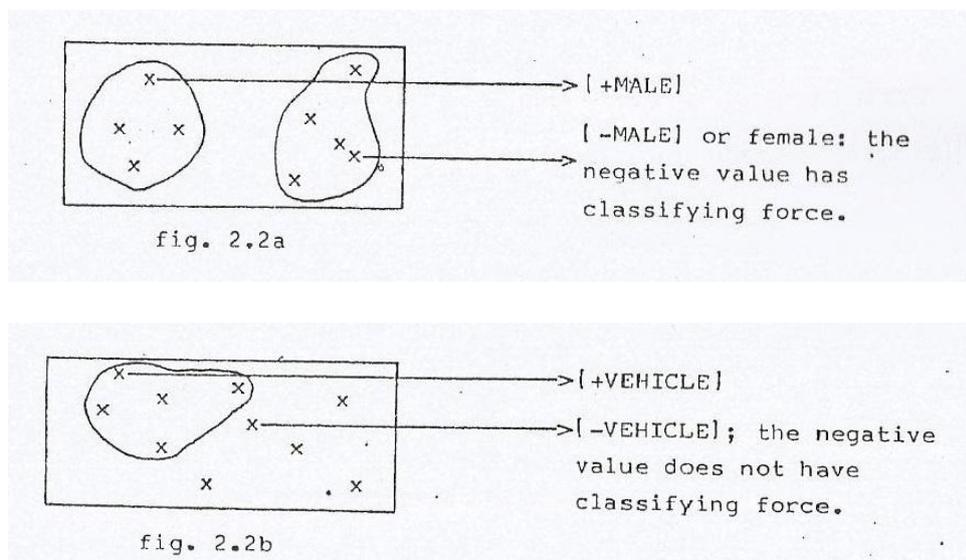
They classify them into three groups: primary features (both higher-level and lower-level), generative features, and secondary features. Nevertheless, we are going to pay attention only to the higher-level primary features, which will be later applied to our selected verbs.

As it is stated by Aarts & Calbert (1979, p. 16) "primary features are semantic constructs which serve as labels for categories of concepts ranging from very general – such as [+CONCRETE] – to very specific."

The higher-level primary features¹¹ are true binary features (positive and negative). These are characterised by the negative value of the feature, which can identify a class, whereas in the case of pseudo-binary features that represent the lower-level primary features, only the positive value would identify a class. They explain this clearly with two figures:

¹⁰ Man [Def.]. (2015). *WordReference*. Retrieved June 5, 2015, from WordReference website: <http://www.wordreference.com/definition/man>

¹¹ A tree diagram and a description of higher-level primary features are available in Appendix 2.



(Fig. 2.2a and fig. 2.2b: Aart & Calbert, 1979, p. 19)

Taking into account the theory that Aart & Calbert (1979) propose, the next step of this work will be the analysis of the verbs in terms of their features encoded in their meaning; to illustrate this analysis, we will offer several examples that have been taken from the *British National Corpus* (BNC), the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*, and *WordReference*.

It is worth commenting that this section can be taken as a transition from the paradigmatic to the syntagmatic analysis, since it presents features of both types of analysis and is useful for the next step of this assignment, that will allow us to see the kind of constructions which our verbs license, and the kind of alternations they participate in. Consequently, we will not analyse the selection restrictions in depth, but we will take the most important features as a kind of introductory framework or departure point for the real focus of study from a syntagmatic perspective.

The verbs have been organised in alphabetical order, and there will be a distinction between the transitive and intransitive uses if the verb presents such possibilities.

The representation of the selection restrictions in the next pages takes a schematic structure: the first argument in the analysis is initiated by the variable 'x', whereas the second argument begins with the variable 'y'. Furthermore, we may also find in some cases a third argument initiated by the variable 'z'.

Having briefly explained the analytic procedure of this intermediate step between the paradigmatic and syntagmatic analysis, the selection restrictions that we propose for our selected *separate* verbs are the following:

Detach (I): transitive

(x: ±CONC)

(y: ±CONC)

(z: ±CONC)

- *He detached the front lamp from its bracket.*
- **K8Y 944** *In this case, a sequence of tasks (possibly the complete analysis) is presented to the machine which then detaches the job from the user's control [...]*
- **CHC 840** *More importantly, the weakness of such pure positivism is that it detaches law from any rationale which could explain its bindingness.*
- **EW8 491** *The placenta detaches itself from the uterine wall and, with other material, is forced out after the baby.*

Detach (II): intransitive

(x: ±CONC)

(y: ±CONC)

- *The skis should detach from the boot if you fall.*
- *One of the panels had become detached from the main structure.*

The verb *detach* can be both transitive –it requires one object plus a *from* PP with the semantic function of source– and intransitive (it is followed only by a Prepositional Phrase introduced by *from* with the semantic function of source).

When the verb is transitive there is no restriction. This is represented by the symbol [±], and it means that either the subject, the object or the PP in active sentences may follow any of the branches of the tree-diagram provided by Aarts & Calbert (1979). Therefore, the subject, the object, and the prepositional complement can refer to a human being, things with a perceptible shape, or concepts/ideas.

When the verb is intransitive we can observe that the restriction is the same, since the (y) argument of the transitive example should logically have the same restriction in the (x) argument of the intransitive.

Disassemble (I): transitive

(x: +CONC +LIV +HUM ±MALE)

(y: ±CONC)

- **EFX 799** *He takes the idea of "culture" and disassembles it into its constituent parts; [...]*
- *We had to completely disassemble the engine to find the problem.*

Disassemble (II): intransitive

(x: +CONC +LIV +HUM ±MALE)

- *The concert ended and the crowd disassembled.*

The verb *disassemble* may also be found in both transitive and intransitive constructions, though they do not need a prepositional complement. In the first place, when the verb is transitive there is a restriction in the first argument because it is always a human being the one who undertakes the action. For this reason, the subject is represented by the general feature [+LIV] and [+HUMAN]. However, we do not find any restriction for the second argument.

In the second place, when the verb is intransitive the first argument is restricted in the same way as the (y) argument in the transitive form.

Disentangle:

(x: ±CONC)

(y: +CONC ±LIV)

(z: ±CONC)

- *I tried to disentangle the wires under my desk¹².*
- *He tried to disentangle his fingers from her hair.*

¹² This example does not present the argument (z).

- **BMU 29** *When she had picked up all her parcels and disentangled the umbrella from the bonnet of a fierce-looking old lady, she went up to them at a more decorous pace, and joined in their unfeeling laughter.*
- **HGS 3120** *Night brightened sharply, as if the moon had just disentangled itself from cloud.* → The moon disentangled itself from the cloud.

Divide (I): transitive

(x: ±CONC)

(y: ±CONC)

(z: ±CONC)

- **K57 644** *In Allegorical Landscape with Narcissus Mirror, a river divides a landscape of dense wood on the one side from a barren heath on the other.*
- **FB6 1545** *He divides this into three main groupings: entrepreneurial capitalists, internal capitalists and finance capitalists¹³.*

Divide (II): intransitive

(x: ±CONC)

- **B79 365** *The cell divides rapidly, increasing the numbers of cells with this identity exponentially.*
- *Where the path divides, keep right.*

Part (I): transitive

(x: +CONC +LIV +HUM ±MALE)

(y: +CONC)

- *She parted the curtains a little and looked out.*

Part (II): intransitive

(x: +CONC)

- *The elevator doors parted and out stepped the President.*

¹³ This example does not present the (z) argument.

- *Go left when the path parts.*
- *The crowd parted in front of them.*

In this case, when the verb *part* is transitive the (x) argument is restricted to human beings, and the second argument to objects that are perceivable and have substance or shape in its own right.

Segregate:

This verb offers two possibilities in the transitive form. The first one presents two arguments, and the condition being that (y) is plural and reflects reciprocity:

(x: ±CONC)

(y: ±CONC)

- **HH2 169** *In breaking it up, he segregates those disturbing causes [...].*

The second possibility presents three arguments, in which the (x) argument is a *from* PP:

(x: ±CONC)

(y: ±CONC)

(z: ±CONC)

- *The hospital segregates patients who are contagious from the others.*

Separate (I): transitive

(x: ± CONC)

(y: ±CONC)

(z: ±CONC)

- *The police tried to separate the two men who were fighting¹⁴.*
- **CBE 1643** *Only a curtain separates the iron frame beds¹⁵.*

¹⁴ This example does not present the (z) argument.

¹⁵ This example does not present the (z) argument.

- **B7D 512** *Another air-blast separates the nut from the hull, which goes to feed cattle while the nuts pass to the sheller.*
- **FT0 124** *A wide gap separates patients' and doctors' proposals for change*¹⁶.

Separate (II): intransitive

(x: ±CONC)

- *South America and South Africa separated 200 million years ago*¹⁷.
- *Stir the sauce constantly so that it does not separate.*
- *The yolk and the white separated.*

Sunder (I): transitive

(x: –CONC)

(y: –CONC)

3 1999 MAG AmHeritage *When death sunders our nearest ties, alone we sit in the shadow of our affliction [...].*¹⁸

Sunder (II): intransitive

(x: –CONC)

- *A universe sundered ages ago in a divine world.*

The verb *sunder* is not very common, since it is usually found in sentences with literary meaning. For this reason, it is difficult to find examples to show different contexts.

Hitherto, we have been analysing different features of our verb selection considering, in first place, the paradigmatic relations, and in second place, the syntagmatic relations as encoded by their selection restrictions. In the remainder of this section, we will continue with the analysis

¹⁶ This example does not present the (z) argument.

¹⁷ This sentence can be rephrased as *South America separated from South Africa 200 million years ago*, and therefore we may find a (y) argument which would be represented as [±CONC].

¹⁸ Exceptionally, this example has been taken from the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA): Corpus of Contemporary American English. (2015). *Sunders*. Retrieved June 1, 2015, from <http://corpus.byu.edu/coca/>

of the syntagmatic relations comparing the model of alternations portrayed by Levin (1993) with the relations and the features we have obtained.

Before starting with the analysis of the alternations, we have to understand the concept of constructions that Goldberg (1995) proposes in her book *Constructions: A Construction Grammar Approach to Argument Structure*.

As we have seen in the previous sections of this assignment, individual lexical items provide a large amount of knowledge. Nevertheless, Goldberg (1995, p. 1) states that it is necessary to undertake more than a mere lexical analysis to obtain a complete overview of information concerning the semantics of verbs. Therefore, she recognises the concept of constructions as independent instances of the lexical items, which contribute to a deep analysis in syntactic and semantic terms.

Goldberg (1995, pp. 3-4) explores the idea that “*argument structure constructions* are a special subclass of constructions that provides the basic means of clausal expression in a language”. Considering this, she offers five examples of argument structure constructions that are summarised in the following way:

1. Ditransitive $\rightarrow X_{\text{CAUSES}} Y \text{ to } \text{RECEIVE } Z \rightarrow \text{Subj V Obj Obj}_2$: Pat faxed Bill the letter
2. Caused Motion $\rightarrow X_{\text{CAUSES}} Y \text{ to } \text{MOVE } Z \rightarrow \text{Subj V Obj Obl}$: Pat sneezed the napkin off the table
3. Resultative $\rightarrow X_{\text{CAUSES}} Y \text{ to } \text{BECOME } Z \rightarrow \text{Sub V Obj Xcomp}$: She kissed him unconscious
4. Intrans. Motion $\rightarrow X_{\text{MOVES}} Y \rightarrow \text{Subj V Obl}$: They fly buzzed into the room
5. Conative $\rightarrow X_{\text{DIRECTS ACTION}} \text{ at } Y \rightarrow \text{Subj V Obl}_{\text{at}}$: Sam kicked at Bill

In this constructional approach to argument structure, it is possible to find differences in meaning of the same verb depending on the construction they participate in. Consequently, Goldberg (1995) proposes an approach (Construction Grammar) which consists of the study of structures that compose language as a whole, thus avoiding the study that confines itself to just those structures that are part of a “core grammar”.

For this, she does not believe either in the division between the lexicon and syntax or between semantics and pragmatics, since they complement each other to obtain a more exhaustive information on language behaviour.

The theoretical perspective provided by Goldberg (1995) complements the proposal that Levin (1993) outlines in her book *English Verb Classes and Alterations*. Her work considers that the behaviour of a verb is determined by its meaning taking into account the expression in which the verbs is used and the possible interpretation of its arguments.

As Levin explains (1993, p. 1), “such a theory must provide linguistically motivated lexical entries for verbs which incorporate a representation of verb meaning and which allow the meanings of verbs to be properly associated with the syntactic expressions of their arguments”.

Furthermore, it has already been explained that the FLM favours the organisation of lexical items in terms of lexical knowledge, rather than considering the specific properties of words. To this, Levin’s (1993) approach contributes with an organisation based on groups of verbs which participate in similar constructions and share analogous features.

One of the most common aspects that may be found in Levin (1993, p. 4) is the use of verbs manifesting *extended meanings*. She gives the example of verbs like *whistle* and *roar*, which are ‘sound emission verbs’. Nevertheless, there are some kind of constructions in which these verbs can be used as verbs of directed motion, since they describe something that is moving at the same time that is emitting a sound: *The bullet whistled through the window* or *The car roared up the driveway*.

In her book, she describes many types of alternations¹⁹ that may be relevant depending on the group of verbs they affect. For our group of verbs, Levin (1993, p. 164-168) classifies them as ‘verbs of separating and disassembling’, and they have been clustered in the four groups explained in section 3.1.

If we pay attention to our selection of verbs, we find the verbs in the classes of *separate* verbs (disentangle, divide, part, segregate, separate), and *disassemble* verbs (detach, disassemble, sunder). Accordingly, the possible alternations provided by Levin for these groups, in which the verbs may be involved are: the *Simple Reciprocal Alternation*, the *Causative/Inchoative Alternation*, and the *Middle Alternation*.

¹⁹ An alternation is a variation in the form of a linguistic unit as it occurs in different environments or under different conditions. (Adapted from Alternation [Def.]. (2015). *The free dictionary*. Retrieved June 20, 2015, from The Free Dictionary website: <http://www.thefreedictionary.com/alternation>). In fact, an alternation can be understood as a pair of constructions significantly related as they convey argumental variations of a verb based on meaningful features.

On the one hand, inside the group of *Transitivity Alternations* (Levin, 1993, pp. 25-44), we find the Middle Alternation and the Causative/Inchoative Alternation.

The verbs involved in The Causative /Inchoative Alternation (pp. 27-30) are characterised as verbs of change of state or position.

As it is stated by Wechsler (2015, p. 74), “the ‘causative alternation’ results from optionality of a causer or agent argument”. He considers the following example:

- (50) a. Jonas dried the socks. (causative)
b. The socks dried. (inchoative)

In the example, the causative sentence can be paraphrased using the inchoative sentence if the construction that results involves a verb of causation. Wechsler (2015, p. 74) summarises this with the following sentence: ‘Jonas caused the socks to dry’.

As it is portrayed by Cortés-Rodríguez (2009, pp. 260-261), Ruiz de Mendoza and Mairal (2007b) state that in the inchoativisation of a verb from a causative structure there is a “conceptual mapping where one domain (the source) affords mental access to another domain (the target)”. This is the reason why in an interpretation for *the glass broke* the speaker knows that there is a cause that makes the glasses to break, such as a person, the wind, etc. For example, ‘the wind broke the glass’ or ‘the curtain broke the glass’. In this context we may imagine that there is an open window with curtains, and the wind that blows inside makes the glass to fall and, in consequence, to break.

The Middle Alternation (Levin, 1993, pp. 25-26) is "characterized by a lack of specific time reference and by an understood but unexpressed agent". It often includes adverbials or modal elements that distinguish the middle construction from the inchoative, as it happens in Cortés-Rodríguez & Mairal-Usón's (2013, p. 227) example: *This bread cuts easily*. Furthermore, there is a debate about whether this alternation is different from the causative/inchoative alternation, and whether it should be considered as a single one. This debate is motivated by the fact that the verbs involved in the causative/inchoative alternation are also found in the middle construction, whereas there are some verbs in the middle construction that do not participate in the causative/inchoative one. Furthermore, the middle alternation is restricted to verbs with affected objects.

Cortés-Rodríguez & Mairal-Usón (2013, p. 227) state that “Middles [...] denote a state where the attribute (‘easy’) shows an inherent feature of the attributant, which is the event denoted by the verbal predicate together with its logical object (‘cutting this bread’)”.

They give several examples of the types of verbs which may be candidates for middle structures²⁰:

- a) Activities²¹: *This piano plays easily; this meat cuts like butter.*
- b) Causative states²²: *John persuades easily; John doesn't please easily.*
- c) Causative accomplishments²³: *The chickens kill easily.*
- d) Causative achievements²⁴: *When these materials are cooled below their glass transition they become brittle and shatter easily with a blow.*
- e) Semelfactives²⁵: *These lights would not flash.*

Moreover, they also mention that there is a significant difference between the causative/inchoative and the middle alternation. The subject of inchoative clauses is affected by something, whereas in middle constructions such a restriction does not exist (Cortés-Rodríguez & Mairal-Usón, 2013, p. 232). For instance, they give the following example: *This book reads poorly* (borrowed from Chung, 1996, p. 301), in which nothing is strictly done on “this book”.

On the other hand, within the group of *Alternations Involving Arguments Within the VP* (Levin, 1993, pp. 45-79), we find the Simple Reciprocal Alternation.

The Simple Reciprocal Alternation (pp. 59-60) belongs to the subgroup of reciprocal alternations. The reciprocal alternations (pp. 58-59) are those which do not involve a change in verb transitivity, and the verbs found in the different kinds of reciprocals can appear either with or without a Prepositional Phrase complement. Additionally, another characteristic that

²⁰ The typology corresponds to *The structure of language* (Pavey, 2010).

²¹ Involve action; they are non-static and so can answer the question *What happened* or *What is happening?* Activities have no inherited endpoint.

²² States: usually internal feelings, conditions or properties; they have no inherent endpoint; they do not describe a ‘happening’ or action. Causatives: corresponding cause event or state.

²³ Accomplishments: predicates are like achievements in describing changes of state, but taking a longer period of time. Causatives: corresponding cause event or state.

²⁴ Achievements: instantaneous change of state; they have an inherent endpoint. Causatives: corresponding cause event or state.

²⁵ Represent instantaneous events that take a short period of time but they do not involve a change of state.

the simple reciprocal alternation presents is that when the verb is transitive or intransitive, the preposition *from* is used.

Once the features of different alternations have been sketched, we are going to study our group of verbs applying their characteristics to each of them.

In the first group –*separate* verbs–, Levin (1993, pp. 165-166) uses as criteria for classification the reciprocal and the causative/inchoative alternations. She comes to the conclusion that the *separate* verbs participate in the simple reciprocal alternation, the causative/inchoative alternation (in some of them), and the middle alternation. For example:

(343) Simple Reciprocal Alternation (trans.):

- a. I separated the yolk from the white.
- b. I separated the yolk and the white.

(344) Simple Reciprocal Alternation (intrans.):

- a. The yolk separated from the white.
- b. The yolk and the white separated.

(347) Causative/Inchoative Alternation:

- a. I separated the cream from the milk.
The cream separated from the milk.
- b. I separated the egg yolk and the egg white.

The egg yolk and the egg white separated.

(348) Middle Alternation:

- a. I separated the cream from the milk.
Cream separates easily from milk.
- b. I separated the egg yolks and the egg whites.

Egg yolks and egg whites separate easily.

The verbs from our study that are included in this group are *disentangle*, *divide*, *part*, *segregate*, and *separate*. We have checked the structures our individual verbs may participate in, and have also paid attention to the behaviour they present in the different types of alternations. For this, we have firstly extracted some significant examples from COCA and BNC corpora. Secondly, for each example, alternative realisations in the set of alternations described have been offered, in order to check the behaviour of the verbs under study.

1) **Disentangle:**

19 2008 FIC Bk: PaintTownDeadJudge [...] *He disentangled her arms from his waist and turned toward the door.*

a. Causative/Inchoative alternation:

He disentangled her arms from his waist.

Her arms disentangled from his waist. / Her arms and his waist disentangled²⁶.

b. Middle Alternation:

Her arms and his waist disentangle easily.

c. Simple Reciprocal Alternation (transitive):

He disentangled her arms from his waist.

He disentangled her arms and his waist.

d. Simple Reciprocal Alternation (intransitive):

Her arms disentangled from his waist.

Her arms and his waist disentangled.

2) **Divide:**

67 2011 NEWS SanFranChron [...] *This treatment visually divides the bar from the dining area, but allows the space to feel open.*

a. Causative/Inchoative Alternation:

This treatment visually divides the bar from the dining area.

The bar and the dining area divided. / The bar divided from the dining area.

b. Middle Alternation:

The bar does not divide easily.

²⁶ Note that this sentence can be both reciprocal and inchoative.

c. Simple Reciprocal Alternation (transitive):

This treatment visually divides the bar from the dining area.

This treatment visually divides the bar and the dining area.

d. Simple Reciprocal Alternation (intransitive):

The bar divides from the dining area.

The bar and the dining area divided.

3) Part:

H8R 2783 *Calves harshly parted from their mamas*

a. Causative/Inchoative Alternation:

The farmer parted the calves from their mamas.

Calves harshly parted from their mamas. / Calves and their mamas parted.

b. Middle Alternation:

Calves part easily (context: Calves part easily, they don't offer any resistance).

c. Simple Reciprocal Alternation (transitive):

The farmer parted the calves from their mamas.

The farmer parted the calves and their mamas.

d. Simple Reciprocal Alternation (intransitive):

Calves harshly parted from their mamas.

Calves and their mamas parted.

4) Segregate:

1 2010 NEWS CSMonitor *settlements, including Israeli-only roads and an illegal wall built on our land that de-facto segregates Palestinians from Palestinians, farmers from their farms, and students from their schools.*

a. Causative/Inchoative Alternation:

It segregates farmers from their farms.

Farmers segregate from their farms. / Farmers and farms segregated.

b. Middle Alternation:

Farmers segregate easily from their farms.

c. Simple Reciprocal Alternation (transitive):

It segregates farmers from their farms.

It segregates farmers and their farms.

d. Simple Reciprocal Alternation (intransitive):

Farmers and their farms segregated.

Farmers segregated from their farms.

One interesting feature that the group of *separate* verbs that Levin (1993, p. 165) examines, is that all of the structures (when they are not reciprocals) have in common the preposition *from*. This preposition expresses a fragment of the meaning of the verbs.

If we try to adapt sentences without the influence of the preposition *from*, we will come to the conclusion that it would be hardly possible in any of the structures admitted by the alternations.

One of the features of the Simple Reciprocal Alternation explained previously in this paper is that when the verb is transitive or intransitive, the preposition *from* is used in the non-

reciprocal variant if the alternation²⁷. However, we have also observed that the causative/inchoative alternation works in a similar way. In the structures, there must always be an agent that causes the action, and the preposition *from* implies the participation of two elements which would receive the consequences of such an action. Furthermore, the preposition lexicalises the point of origin of a negative event (“*not to be in any more*”).

Additionally, the grammatical schematic structure for this kind of alternation obtained in the previous examples would be as follows:

- a. Transitive: 1) [sth1 + v + sth2 + *from* sth], 2) [sth1 (agent) + v + sth2 + sth3 (symmetry)]
- b. Intransitive (inchoative): [sth + v]

The concept of *symmetry* takes an important role in the behaviour of this alternation, since it means that A separates from B, and B also separates from A. Furthermore, the preposition *from* adds the meaning of “change of state or place plus negation” to the structure.

When we analyse the Middle Alternation for each of the verbs, they result in simple sentences in which a manner adverb like *easily* usually participates. Middles describe a “state”, and it does not present a relevant distinguishing feature, whereas inchoatives present a change of state.

In the second group –*disassemble* verbs–, Levin (1993, p. 167) also analyses the behaviour of these verbs with regard to the simple reciprocal alternation, the *apart* reciprocal alternation, the causative alternation and the middle alternation. Nevertheless, the only alternation in which this group seems to participate is the middle alternation, whereas the others result in ungrammatical structures.

The example provided by Levin of the middle alternation in this last group is the following:

(360) Middle Alternation:

- a. I unscrewed that new handle (from the box).
- b. That new handle unscrews (*from the box) easily.

The verbs that Levin have considered to belong to this group are *detach*, *disassemble*, and *sunder*:

²⁷ This accounts for the apparent optionality of the (z) argument in several of the examples used in the analysis of our verbs’ selection restrictions.

1) **Detach:**

*He detached the front lamp from its bracket.*²⁸

a. Middle Alternation:

The front lamp detaches (from its bracket) easily.

2) **Disassemble:**

*We had to completely disassemble the engine to find the problem.*²⁹

a. Middle Alternation:

The engine disassembles easily.

3) **Sunder:**

*A universe sundered ages ago in a divine world*³⁰.

a. Middle Alternation:

*The universe sunders easily³¹.

As already stated, the only alternation that can be found in this group of *disassemble* verbs is the Middle Alternation. This is because there is no reciprocity in verbs like those above, since we can understand that A can separate from B, but this does not mean that B separates from A (there is no symmetry). For instance:

a. Calves can part from their mamas and mamas can part from their calves;

b. We can disassemble the engine BUT the engine cannot disassemble from us.

²⁸ This example has been taken from those that were used for the selection restrictions analysis.

²⁹ This example has been taken from those that were used for the selection restrictions analysis.

³⁰ This example has been taken from those that were used for the selection restrictions analysis.

³¹ As it has been already said, this verb is not very common, and consequently the example of the Middle Alternation for this part of the analysis results in a strange construction.

4. Conclusion

The main goal of the analysis for the lexical subdomain of *separate* verbs proposed in this project has been to study the syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations of a specific lexical subdomain, in order to show how these features portrayed by the FLM complement each other to obtain certain results.

The outcome of our analysis may be summarised as follows:

There are several sources that contribute to the analysis of semantic fields, but the results they provide are not as accurate as a joint analysis of several linguistic aspects would produce.

We have seen that Levin's (1993) classification of 'Separate and Disassemble Verbs' in the English language has been essentially syntagmatic, and the meaning of these predicates often experiences an extension of meaning provided by other linguistic items in the construction. Thus, her lexical classes are not based on lexical analysis, but on constructional meaning.

A case in point is her subgroup of *split* verbs, that form part of the general class of *separate* verbs. Their lexemes such as *break* and *cut* are classified as belonging to this group. The reason is that they can appear in sentences with a secondary predicate *apart*, as in:

- a. I broke the twig and the branch apart.
- b. I cut apart the segments of a comic.

As can be seen, the 'fragmentary' meaning is not intrinsic to these verbs, but results from the sum of the meanings of the primary and the secondary predicates in these specific sentences. There is no lexicological support for the existence of the class of *split* verbs.

In fact, the first candidates for our analysis were chosen by terms of meaning, taking all sources of information as a base. Nevertheless, we could see how some of these verbs were deleted after the paradigmatic analysis in section 3.3. because of a lack of a *separate* meaning in them.

We may come to the conclusion that *separate* verbs are not easy to classify. From the very beginning we said that *separate* verbs are verbs of change of state, as the inherited hypernym we found was *change*. Consequently, we may say that the verbs that Levin (1993) classifies as *disassemble* verbs may not be separate verbs at all because 1) they do not participate in the

inchoative alternation (and therefore there is no change of state), and 2) they do not present the feature of symmetry that reciprocals exhibit, like the group of *separate* verbs does.

To finish with our analysis, it is possible to retake the table made at the end of section 3.3 as the final summary of this project. We will add some changes with features that have been relevant in the syntagmatic analysis and in this last step of the project. As a consequence of the explanation given in the previous paragraph, the *disassemble* verbs will be not considered here. Thus, our final classification may be summarised in the following way:

	cause (causative)	be apart (stop being a unit: inchoat.)	move away (inchoat.)	into parts	people	things	symmetry (reciproc.)
separate	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
disentangle	+	+	+	-	-	+	+
disconnect	+	+	+	-	-	+	+
divide	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
part	+	+	+	+	-	+	+
segregate	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

It is interesting to highlight how syntactic constructions have helped to refine semantic analysis, motivating semantic features by constructions. Thus, the parameter ‘cause’ is obviously associated to causative (transitive) structures, whereas changes of state or location typical of inchoatives are reflected in the semes in the second and third columns. Finally, a new feature of ‘symmetry’ was added to the original table to motivate semantically the occurrence of our verbs in reciprocal clauses.

Our analysis reveals that a fragmentary study of meaning is unsatisfactory if a deep understanding of any tiny bit of language (as in this case is the small group of verbs used as the focus of our task) is sought. A more exact picture arises if information from different

levels of analysis and different theoretical approaches is taken into account. In this regard, the types of knowledge that can be acquired in the “linguistic” subjects in the Degree of English Studies may conspire together to achieve a richer understanding of this language.

5. Appendix

5.1. Appendix 1: Definitions of verbs

The meanings of the following verbs have been taken from several sources: *WordReference*, *Cambridge Online Dictionaries*, *The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*, or –in some specific cases– from *Collins English Dictionary* online.

a) Levin's classification:

Separate verbs

- **Decouple:** to end the connection or relationship between two things. *Europe and Japan might decouple from the United States by growing on their own, but right now they're dependent.*
- **Differentiate:** **1** [I or T] to show or find the difference between things that are compared: *We do not differentiate **between** our employees on the basis of their race, religion, or national origin.* **2** [T] to make someone or something different: *The slate roof differentiates this house **from** others in the area.*
- **Disconnect:** to unfasten something, especially to break the connection between a supply of electricity, gas, water, etc. and a device or piece of equipment: *Never try to fix a broken machine without disconnecting it **from** the electricity supply.*
- **Disentangle:** to separate things that have become joined or confused: *It's difficult to disentangle hard fact from myth, or truth from lies. I tried to disentangle the wires under my desk.*
- **Dissociate:** to consider as separate and non-related: *I can't dissociate the man **from** his political opinions – they're one and the same thing.*
- **Distinguish:** [I or T, not continuous] to notice or understand the difference between two things or to make one person or thing seem different from another: *He's colour-blind and can't distinguish (the difference) **between** red and green easily. I sometimes have difficulty distinguishing Spanish **from** Portuguese. It's important to distinguish **between** business and pleasure. It's not the beauty so much as the range of his voice that distinguishes him **from** other tenors.*
- **Divide:** **1** [I or T] to cause (to) separate into parts or groups: *At the end of the lecture, I'd like all the students to divide **into** small discussion groups. After the Second World*

War Germany was divided **into** two separate countries. **2** [T] to share: *I think we should divide (up) the costs equally among/between us.*

- **Divorce:** **1** to separate by divorce: *The judge divorced the couple.* **2** [~ + object] to break the marriage contract between oneself and (one's spouse) by divorce: *She divorced him after twenty years of marriage.* **3** [no object] to get a divorce: *She divorced and remarried later.* **4** to separate; cut off: [no object] *Life and art cannot be divorced.* [~ + object + from + object] *Can you divorce life from art?*
- **Part:** [I or T] to separate or cause something or someone to separate: *The curtains parted, revealing a darkened stage. To be parted **from** him even for two days made her sad.*
- **Segregate:** **1** to separate or set apart from others: [~ + object + from + object] *The hospital segregates patients who are contagious from the others.* [~ + object + and + object] *segregating boys and girls at adolescence.* **2** to require or impose, often with force, the separation of (a certain group) from the body of society: [~ + object + from + object] *segregating one ethnic group from another.*
- **Separate:** **1** [I or T] to (cause to) divide into parts: *The north and south of the country are separated **by** a mountain range. You can get a special device for separating egg whites **from** yolks. The top and bottom sections are quite difficult to separate.* **2** [I or T] to make people move apart or into different places, or to move apart: *At school they always tried to separate Jane and me because we were troublemakers. Somehow, in the rush to get out of the building, I got separated **from** my mother. Perhaps we should separate now and meet up later.* **3** [T] to consider two people or things as different or not related: *You can't separate morality **from** politics.* **4** [I] to start to live in a different place from your husband or wife because the relationship has ended: *My parents separated when I was six and divorced a couple of years later.*
- **Sever:** **1** to break or separate, especially by cutting: *The knife severed an artery and he bled to death. Her foot was severed from her leg in a car accident. Electricity cables have been severed by the storm.* **2** to end a connection with someone or something: *The US severed diplomatic relations with Cuba in 1961. The company has severed its connection/links/relationship/ties with its previous partners.*

Split verbs

- **Blow:** [I or T] to move and make currents of air, or to be moved or make something move on a current of air: *The wind was blowing **harder** every minute. The letter blew **away** and I had to run after it. A gale-force wind had blown the fence **down**. I blew the dust **off** the books. I wish you wouldn't blow smoke **in** my face.*
- **Break:** [I or T] to (cause something to) separate suddenly or violently into two or more pieces, or to (cause something to) stop working by being damaged: *The dish fell to the floor and broke. Charles is always breaking things. She fell and broke her arm (= broke the bone in her arm). I dropped the vase and it broke **into pieces**. I think I've broken your phone. I picked it up and the handle broke **off**. We heard the sound of breaking glass.*
- **Cut:** [I or T] to break the surface of something, or to divide or make something smaller, using a sharp tool, especially a knife: *to cut a slice of bread. I've cut myself/my hand **on** that glass/**with** that knife. Cut the meat **up** into small pieces. This knife doesn't cut very well. Where did you **have** your **hair cut**? [+ obj + adj] Firefighters had to cut the trapped driver **loose/free** (= cut the metal to allow the driver to get out of the car) using special equipment. He fell off the swing and cut his head **open** (= got a deep cut in his head). He cut the cake **in/into** six (pieces) and gave each child a slice.*
- **Draw:**
- **Hack:** **1** [I or T, + adv/prep] to cut into pieces in a rough and violent way, often without aiming exactly: *Three villagers were hacked **to death** in a savage attack. The butcher hacked **off** a large chunk of meat. UK figurative: The article had been hacked **about** (= carelessly changed) so much that it was scarcely recognizable.* **2** [T usually + adv/prep] UK in football and rugby, to kick the ball away or to foul (= act against the rules) by kicking another player in the leg: *He was twice hacked down in the second half by the other team's sweeper.*
- **Hew:** to cut a large piece out of rock, stone, or another hard material in a rough way: *The monument was hewn **out of** the side of a mountain.*
- **Kick:** [I or T] to hit someone or something with the foot, or to move the feet and legs suddenly and violently: *I kicked the ball as hard as I could. He was accused of kicking a man **in** the face. She felt the baby kicking inside her.*

- **Knock:** [I + adv/prep, T] to hit, especially forcefully, and cause to move or fall: *He accidentally knocked the vase off the table. She knocked her head against the wall as she fell. Who knocked over that mug of coffee? [+ obj + adj] Some thug knocked him unconscious/senseless. She took a hammer and knocked a hole in the wall.*
- **Pry:** [T] mainly US to move or lift something by pressing a tool against a fixed point: [+ adj] *The car trunk had been pried open and all her equipment was gone.*
- **Pull:** **1** [T] to take something out of or away from a place, especially using physical effort: *He pulled off his sweater. The dentist pulled both teeth out. I spent the morning pulling up the weeds in the flowerbeds.* **2** [T] to remove or stop something that was going to be published or broadcast, especially because it is found to be offensive or not accurate: *When officials realized the cultural gaffe, the company pulled the ad and apologized.* **2** [I + adv/prep] to move in the stated direction: *During the last lap of the race one of the runners began to pull ahead. We waved as the train pulled out of the station. Our armies are pulling back on all fronts.*
- **Push:** [I or T] to use physical pressure or force, especially with your hands, in order to move something into a different position, usually one that is further away from you: *Can you help me move this table? You push and I'll pull. The window sticks - you have to push hard to open it. He helped me push my car off the road. He pushed his plate away from him, refusing to eat any more. She pushed her hair out of her eyes. I tried to push the door open but it was stuck. It isn't clear whether he fell off the balcony, or was pushed. To turn the television on, you just push (= press) this button. He pushed the money into my hand (= forcefully gave me the money), saying, "Please take it." We pushed the boat off from (= moved the boat forward by using pressure against) the river bank.*
- **Rip:** [I or T] to pull apart; to tear or be torn violently and quickly: *His new trousers ripped when he bent down. I ripped my shirt on a nail. [+ obj + adj] She excitedly ripped the parcel open. The wind ripped the flag to/into shreds (= into little pieces).* **2** [T + adv/prep] to remove something quickly, without being careful: *I wish the old fireplaces hadn't been ripped out. We ripped up the carpets and laid a new wooden floor.*
- **Roll:** **1** [I or T, usually + adv/prep] to (cause something to) move somewhere by turning over and over or from side to side: *The vase rolled off the edge of the table and smashed. The dog rolled over onto its back. I rolled the wheel along the side of the road back to the car.* **2** [I or T, usually + adv/prep] to move somewhere easily and

without sudden movements: *A tear rolled down his cheek. A wave of cigarette smoke rolled towards me. The piano's on wheels, so we can roll it into the room.*

- **Saw:** **1** [I or T] to cut wood or other hard material using a saw: *They sawed the door in half. He sawed through the pipe.* **2** [I + adv/prep] to move something backwards and forwards as if using a saw: *He was sawing **away** at his violin, making a terrible noise!*
- **Shove:** [I or T] to push someone or something forcefully: *She was jostled and shoved by an angry crowd as she left the court. Just wait your turn - there's no need to shove. Reporters pushed and shoved as they tried to get close to the princess.*
- **Slip:** [I] to slide without intending to: *She slipped on the ice. Careful you don't slip - there's water on the floor. The razor slipped while he was shaving and he cut himself.*
- **Split:** [I or T] to (cause to) divide into two or more parts, especially along a particular line: *The prize was split between Susan and Kate. Split the aubergines in half and cover with breadcrumbs. The teacher split the children (up) into three groups. Informal I'll split (= share) this croissant with you. His trousers split when he tried to jump the fence. [+ obj + adj] The woman had split her head open (= got a long, deep wound in her head) when she was thrown off the horse.*
- **Tear:** [I or T] to pull or be pulled apart, or to pull pieces off: *You have to be very careful with books this old because the paper tends to tear very easily. I tore my skirt on the chair as I stood up. A couple of pages had been torn **out of/from** the book.*
- **Tug:** to pull something quickly and usually with a lot of force: *Tom tugged **at** his mother's arm.*
- **Yank:** [T usually + adv/prep] informal to pull something forcefully with a quick movement: *He tripped over the wire and yanked the plug **out**. She yanked open the cupboard and everything fell out.*

Disassemble verbs

- **Detach:** to separate or remove something from something else that it is connected to: *You can detach the hood if you prefer the coat without it. Detach the lower part of the form **from** this letter and return it to the above address.*
- **Disassemble:** **1** [T] to separate something into its different parts: *This video shows you how to disassemble a television set.* **2** [I] (of a group of people) to move apart and go away in different directions: *the concert ended and the crowd disassembled.*

- **Disconnect:** to unfasten something, especially to break the connection between a supply of electricity, gas, water, etc. and a device or piece of equipment: *Never try to fix a broken machine without disconnecting it **from** the electricity supply.*
- **Partition:** **1** to divide one part of a room from another with a thin wall: *Why don't you partition that large room **into** a lounge and a dining-room?* **2** to divide a country into separate areas of government: *Ireland was partitioned in 1921.*
- **Sift:** (SEPARATE) to put flour, sugar, etc. through a sieve (= wire net shaped like a bowl) to break up large pieces: *When the cake is cooked, sift some icing sugar over the top of it.*
- **Sunder:** **1** [~ + object] to separate; part; divide; sever: *to sunder all ties to his previous country.* **2** [archaic or literary] to break or cause to break apart or in pieces.
- **Unbolt:** **1** to open (a door, window, etc.) by or as if by removing a bolt; unlock; unfasten. **2** to release, as by the removal of threaded bolts: *He unscrewed the nuts and unbolted the inspection cover.*
- **Unbuckle:** to release the buckle (= metal fastener) of a shoe, belt, etc. so that you can remove it.
- **Unbutton:** [~ + object] to unfasten or undo the buttons of (a piece of clothing).
- **Unchain:** **1** (*transitive*) to remove a chain or chains from. **2** to set at liberty; make free.
- **Unclamp:** (*transitive*) to remove a clamp from.
- **Unclasp:** **1** to undo the clasp or clasps of; unfasten: *to unclasp the buckles.* **2** to release or relax (from) the grasp: *unclasped her hands.*
- **Unclip:** **1** (*intransitive*) to become unclipped: *The back of the roof can unclip and pull up. I feel stimulated but relaxed as I unclip from the rope.* **2** (*transitive*) to detach (one thing from another) by undoing a clip: *He was tempted to unclip his safety harness.* **3** (*transitive*) to undo the clip of: *All I remember is managing to unclip the seatbelt as the car went over on its roof.*
- **Unfasten:** to (cause to) be undone or opened: [~ + object] *He unfastened his seat belt.* [no object] *The seat belt unfastened by itself.*
- **Unglue:** (*transitive*) to remove adhesive from.
- **Unhinge:** **1** to remove from hinges: *to unhinge a door.* **2** to throw into confusion or turmoil; upset: *threats that could unhinge a timid soul.*
- **Unhitch:** (*transitive*) to untie, unfasten, or detach: *They unhitched his mooring ropes. Perdue began to unhitch the horses.*

- **Unhook:** **1** to unfasten or detach by or as if by undoing a hook or hooks: [~ + object] *to unhook railroad cars.* [no object] *The caboose unhooked and rolled down the hill.* **2** [~ + object] to remove or detach from a hook.
- **Unlace:** (transitive) **1** to loosen or undo the lacing of (shoes, garments, etc). **2** to unfasten or remove garments of (oneself or another) by or as if by undoing lacing.
- **Unlatch:** to open or unfasten or come open or unfastened by the lifting or release of a latch.
- **Unlock:** **1** to undo the lock of: [~ + object] *to unlock a car; to unlock a door.* **2** [no object] *The door unlocks easily.* **3** [~ + object] to make open; disclose: *to unlock the secrets of one's heart.*
- **Unleash:** [~ + object] to release from or as if from a leash; let loose: *He unleashed the dogs. The storm unleashed its fury.*
- **Unpeg:** **1** to remove the pegs from. **2** to open, unfasten, or unfix by or as if by removing a peg. **3** (Business) to stop pegging (commodity prices, exchange rates, etc.).
- **Unpin:** **1** [~ + object] to remove pins from: *to unpin her long hair.* **2** to unfasten or loosen by or as if by removing a pin; detach.
- **Unscrew:** **1** [~ + object] to loosen a screw from (a hinge, bracket, etc.). **2** to unfasten or pull out by turning, such as a screw or lid. **3** to open (a jar, bottle, etc.) by turning the lid or cover.
- **Unshackle:** [~ + object] to free from or as if from chains or shackles.
- **Unstaple**³²: take the staples off; "unstaple the piece of paper from the receipt".
- **Unstitch:** **1** (transitive) to remove or undo the stitches of : *Unstitch the covering strip and trim the cord so the edges butt together well.* **2** to undo (work that has been done): *They have been working ceaselessly behind the scenes to unstitch all that progress.*
- **Untie:** [~ + object] **1** to loose or unfasten (anything tied); let or set loose by undoing a knot: *to untie a prisoner.* **2** to undo the string or cords of: *to untie (the strings of) a package.*
- **Unzip:** to (cause to) be opened or unfastened by or as if by means of a zipper: [~ + object] *She had trouble unzipping the dress.* [no object] *The zipper won't unzip.*

³² Exceptionally, this definition has been taken from *The Free Dictionary*:
<http://www.thefreedictionary.com/unstaple>

Differ verbs

- **Differ:** **1** to be not like something or someone else, either physically or in another way: *The twins look alike, but they differ **in** temperament. His views differ considerably **from** those of his parents. The findings of the various studies differ **significantly/markedly/radically**. The incidence of the illness differs greatly **between** men and women.* **2** [FORMAL] to disagree: *Economists differ **on** the cause of inflation. I **beg to differ with** you on that point.*
- **Diverge:** to follow a different direction, or to be or become different: *They walked along the road together until they reached the village, but then their paths diverged. Although the two organizations have worked together for many years, their objectives have diverged recently.*

b) Longman Lexicon of Contemporary English:

- **disconnect:** [T1 (from)] (technology) to separate (one thing from another): *He disconnected the wires/our telephone.*
- **separate:** **1** trans: cause to move or be apart. *The police separated two rioting mobs.* **2** divided into constituents or distinct elements. Intrans: *The processed milk had separated curds and whey.* Obj (trans) *Separate the eggs.*
- **part:** **1** (Intrans) (Of two things) Move away from each other: *His lips parted in a smile.* **2** Divided two and leave a central space. Intrans: *At the moment the mist parted.* Trans: *She parted to the ferns and cooked between them.*
- **divided:** Separate or be separated into parts. Trans: *He divided the magazines in categories.*
- **sunder:** literary meaning: split apart. Trans: *A universe sundered ages ago in a divine world.*
- **disengage:** Trans. Separate or release (someone or something) from something to which they are attached or connected: *I disengaged his hand from mine.*
- **detach:** **1** trans disengage (something or part of something) and remove it: *He detached the front lamp from its bracket.* **2** (detach oneself from) leave or separate oneself from (a group or place): *A figure in brown detached itself from the shadows.*
- **partition:** to divide into parts. Trans: *An agreement was reached to partition the country.* Divide (a room) into smaller rooms or areas by erecting partitions: *The hall was partitioned to contain the noise of the computers.*

- **branch:** (Of a road or path) divide into one or more subdivisions. Intrans: *Follow this track south until it branches into two.*
- **slice:** cut (something, especially food) into slices. Trans: *Slice the onion into rings.*
- **chop:** cut (something) into pieces with repeated sharp blows of an axe or knife. *They chopped the carrots into thin pieces.*
- **whittle:** to cut (wood) to a smaller size by taking off small thin pieces: *He was whittling a piece of wood.*
- **segment:** divide (something) into separate parts or sections. Trans: *The unemployed are segmented into two groups.* Intrans: *The market is beginning to segment into a number of well-defined categories.*

c) FrameNet:

The frame of ‘separating’: “Refer to separating a whole into parts, or separating one part from another. The separation is made by an Agent or Cause and may be made on the basis of some criterion”:

- **Separate**
- **Divide:** **1** **DIVIDED** *the class into groups in alphabetical order.*
- **Split**
- **Section:** **1** to divide into sections. **2** to cut through so as to show a section.
- **Bisect:** **1** to cut or divide into two approximately equal parts: *Use your compass to bisect an angle.* **2** [*~ + object*] to intersect or cross: *The highway bisects the road at this point.* **3** [*no object*] to split into two, as a road; fork: *The road bisects here.*
- **Part**
- **Partition**
- **Segment**
- **Segregate:** **1** to separate or set apart from others: [*~ + object + from + object*] *The hospital segregates patients who are contagious from the others.* [*~ + object + and + object*] *segregating boys and girls at adolescence.* **2** to require or impose, often with force, the separation of (a certain group) from the body of society: [*~ + object + from + object*] *segregating one ethnic group from another.* [*~ + object + and + object*] *It is illegal to segregate blacks and whites.* [*no object*] *a society that segregates on the basis of religion.*
- **Sever**

The frame of ‘forming relationships’– is that in which “Partner_1 interacts with Partner_2 (also collectively expressible as Partners) to change their social relationship”:

- **Separate:** to stop living together but without divorce: *He and his wife separated last year.*
- **Divorce:** **1** to separate by divorce: *The judge divorced the couple.* **2** [~ + object] to break the marriage contract between oneself and (one's spouse) by divorce: *She divorced him after twenty years of marriage.* **3** [no object] to get a divorce: *She divorced and remarried later.* **4** to separate; cut off: [no object] *Life and art cannot be divorced.* [~ + object + from + object] *Can you divorce life from art?*
- **Leave:** [T] ~ **sb (for sb)** to leave your wife, husband or partner permanently: *She's leaving him for another man.*

The frame of ‘becoming separated’: “A **Whole** separates into **Parts**, or one part of a whole, called **Part_1**, becomes separate from the remaining portion, **Part_2**”:

- **Divide**
- **Separate:** *Just crack one open and if the yoke quickly from the whites, they are probably bad.*
- **Split:** *This small channel meanders through marsh and wetland,*

The fame of ‘differentiation’: “have to do with a **Cognizer** being aware (or not being aware) of the difference between two **Phenomena**, which may be expressed jointly or disjointly”:

- **Separate**
- **Differentiate:** **1** to form or mark differently from other such things; distinguish: [~ + object + from + object] *The chrome trim and tinted glass differentiate the high-price model from the standard one.* **2** to see, understand, recognize, or perceive the difference in or between: [~ + between] *learned to differentiate between French and German wines;* [~ + object + from + object] *learned to differentiate a French wine from a German wine.*
- **Discriminate:** **1** to make a distinction for or against a person on the basis of the group or class to which the person belongs, rather than according to merit: [no object] *No company should expect to discriminate today and get away with it;* [~ + against + object] *Those employers discriminated against women for higher-*

paying jobs; [~ + in favor of] Is it acceptable to discriminate in favor of certain groups? 2 to make, take note of, or observe a difference: [~ + between/among] He has trouble discriminating between red and green.

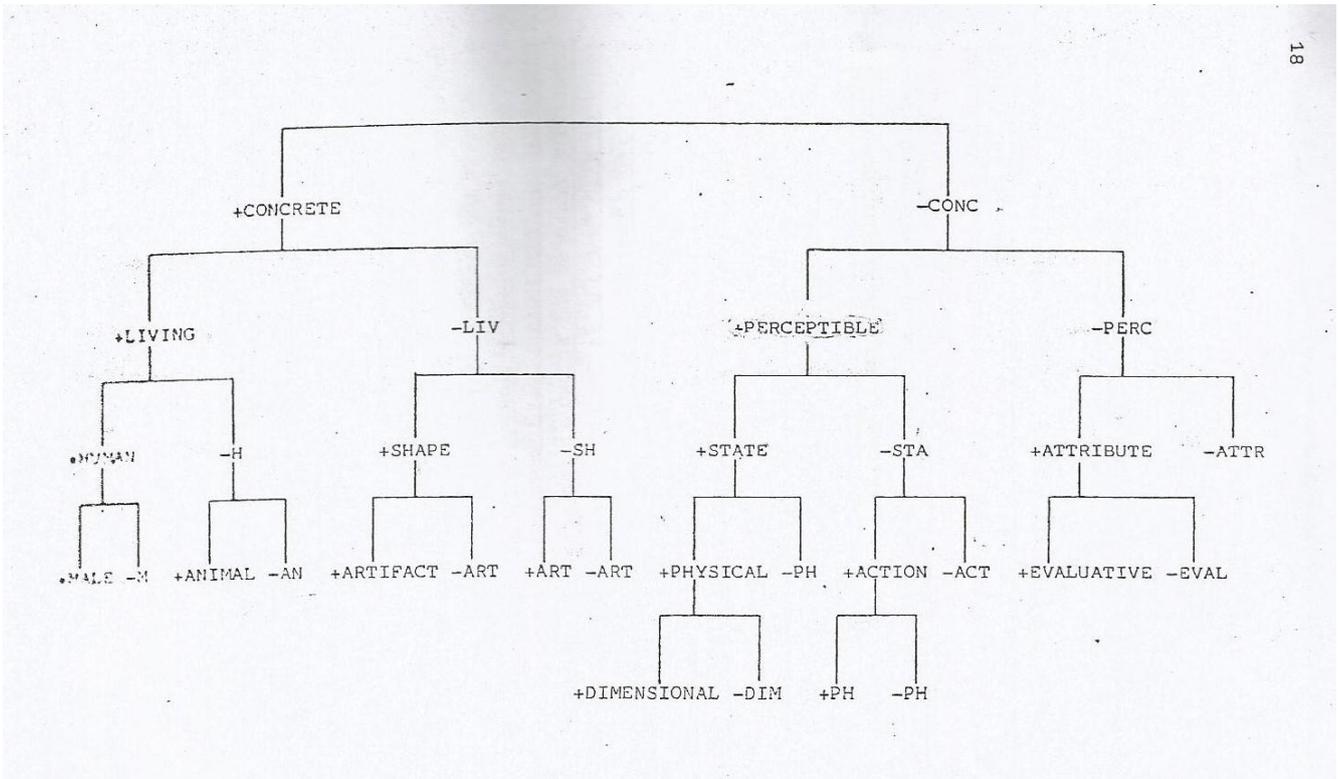
- **Distinguish:** **1** to mark off as different; show a difference: *His height distinguishes him from the other boys.* **2** to recognize as distinct or different: [~ + between + object] *I couldn't distinguish between some of the French vowels;* [~ + object + from + object] *Can you distinguish right from wrong?* **2** to perceive or sense clearly by the senses; recognize: [~ + object] *Without my glasses I can't distinguish certain signs on the road.* **3** to set apart as different; characterize: [~ + object] *Her Italian accent distinguishes her.* **4** to make prominent or eminent: [~ + oneself] *He distinguished himself in the arts.*

It is very difficult for people to visually DISTINGUISH between living and non-living things from such a great distance.

- **Know:** to be able to distinguish: [~ + object + from + object] *old enough to know right from wrong.*
- **Sort:** **1** to arrange or separate according to kind or class: [~ + object] *to sort socks into matching pairs.* **2** (computing) to place (a group of mixed objects, data, etc.) in order, as by number or alphabetical sequence: [~ + object] *The computer is sorting the database now;* [~ + through + object] *to sort through the database.*
- **Tell apart and tell from:**

In the case on these verbs, *FrameNet* classifies them directly as phrasal verbs. However, according to the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (2010) the lexical verb 'tell' has a meaning of 'distinguish', and also includes both phrasal verbs: [T] (not used in the progressive tenses or in the passive) to distinguish one thing or person from another: ~ **sth** *It was hard to tell the difference between the two versions;* ~ **A from B** *Can you tell Tom from his twin brother?;* ~ **A and B apart** *It's difficult to tell them apart;* ~ **which, what, etc...** *The kittens look exactly alike – how can you tell which is which?*

5.2. Appendix 2: Higher-level primary features



(Fig. 2.1: Aarts & Calbert, 1979, p. 18)

CONCRETE. The feature [+CONC] represents concepts referring to whatever has substance and/or shape in its own right, or by virtue of our perceiving it that way.

Examples no lexical items available; that is, all nouns having the feature [+CONC] also have other HPRIM features dominated by it.

LIVING. The feature [+LIV] does not represent the concept 'alive', but 'living-being'. In fact, [+LIV] serves as the contextual restriction for the adjective dead.

Examples [+LIV]: creature; [-LIV]: no lexical items available.

HUMAN. Examples [+HUM]: person, (teacher, inhabitant); [-HUM]: no lexical items available.

SHAPE. [+SH] represents concepts referring to any object, whether artifact or not, that has size and perceptible outline. Examples [+SH]: thing, object; [-SH]: matter, substance.

MALE. Examples [+M]: man, (boy, husband); [-M]: woman, (girl, aunt).

ANIMAL. [+AN] and [-AN] distinguish between the animal and vegetable worlds. Examples [+AN]: animal, (fox, elephant); [-AN]: plant, (tree, shrub, flower).

(Aart & Calbert, 1979, pp. 22-23)

ARTIFACT. [+ART] represents concepts referring to any object or substance made by human agency. Examples [+SH, +ART]: article, (chair, desk, gun, book, car, house, prison, statue, bracelet); [+SH, -ART]: (rock, mountain, cloud, leaf, strawberry); [-SH, +ART]: material, (plastic, silk, mortar, asphalt, drug, poison); [-SH, -ART]: (water, rain, snow, sand, clay, dew).

PERCEPTIBLE. [+PERC] represents concepts referring to everything which is [-CONC] and pertains to sensory, emotional or intellectual experience; [-PERC] denotes concepts referring to everything which is [-CONC] and is an intellectual abstraction. Examples [+PERC]: phenomenon; [-PERC]: concept, idea, notion.

STATE. [+STA] represents concepts referring to a mental or physical condition; [-STA] refers to concepts denoting a process. Examples [+STA]: state, property, (characteristic); [-STA]: process, proceeding.

(Aart & Calbert, 1979, p. 23)

ACTION. [+ACT] represents concepts referring to any process normally involving volition, [-ACT] denotes concepts referring to processes not involving volition. Examples [+ACT]: action, (smile, walk, murder, attention, decision); [-ACT]: event, (accident, fall, tempest).

PHYSICAL. [+PH] represents concepts referring to states or actions perceived by the senses, [-PH] to those which pertain to the emotions or to intellectual activity. Examples [+STA, -PH]: (mood, jealousy, sadness, joy, hate, modesty, intelligence, stupidity, smartness, courage, patience, harshness); [+ACT, +PH]: act, (tap, slap, kick, dance, cry, shout, scream, flight, drive, work, walk, look, expression, glance); [+ACT, -PH]: (intention, understanding, plan, plot, compromise, accusation, attention, request, refusal, acceptance, decision, thought).

(Aart & Calbert, 1979, p. 24)

DIMENSIONAL. [+DIM] applies to concepts denoting the spatial as well as temporal dimensions; [-DIM] refers to other physical states. Examples [+DIM]: (mile, depth, length, height, space, volume, evening, night, day, hour, week); [-DIM]: (darkness, drought, humidity, weight, fatigue, health, temperature).

ATTRIBUTE. [+ATTR] represents any quality which is not inherent in an object, state or process, but attributed to it by the mind, [-ATTR] everything which is not a property of something, but an abstract entity.

Examples [+ATTR]: attribute; [-ATTR]: abstraction, (reward, sin, tribute, benefit, advantage, eternity, democracy, community, christianity, society, government).

EVALUATIVE. [+EVAL] represents attributes which are exclusively ameliorative or pejorative and therefore mainly emotive in character, [-EVAL] refers to attributes which are based on intellectual judgment. Examples [+EVAL]: (goodness, badness, excellence, perfection); [-EVAL]: (informativeness, vagueness, abstruseness, abstractness, ambiguity, intelligibility, lucidity).

(Aart & Calbert, 1979, p. 24)

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