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Chapter 1

LEXICOLOGY AS A SCIENCE

Problems for debating

1. Lexicology as a branch of Linguistics dealing with the vocabulary of the language
2. The Object of Lexicology
3. The theoretical and practical value of Lexicology
4. Types of Lexicology.
5. Subdivisions of Lexicology
6. The connection of Lexicology with other branches of Linguistics.
7. The word as the basic unit of the language
8. The relationships existing between words

Lexicology is a branch of linguistics which studies the vocabulary of a language. By the vocabulary of a language is understood the total sum of its words. Another term for the same is the stock of words.

Its basic task is to study the origin, the different properties of the vocabulary of a language. In other words, lexicology is concerned with words and set phrases which function in speech. Lexicology also studies all kinds of semantic relations (synonyms, antonyms etc) and semantic grouping (semantic fields). Etymologically the word «lexicology» is a Greek word: «Lexic» means «word» and «logos»-learning.

The theoretical value of Lexicology is determined by its subject matter - the vocabulary of language, which forms one of the 3 main aspects of language. Lexicology meets the needs of many different branches of applied Linguistics, namely of lexicography, and other departments of knowledge.

There are 5 types of lexicology: 1) general; 2) special; 3) descriptive; 4) historical; 5) comparative.

General lexicology is a part of general linguistics which studies the general properties of words, the specific features of words of any particular language. It studies the peculiarities of words common to all the languages. General lexicology attempts to find out the universals of vocabulary development and patterns. Linguistic phenomena and properties common to all languages are generally called language universals.

Special lexicology deals with the words of a definite language.

Descriptive lexicology studies the words at a synchronic aspect. It is concerned with the vocabulary of a language as they exist at the present time.

Historical or diachronic lexicology deals with the development of the vocabulary and the changes it has undergone. *Ex.* In descriptive lexicology the words *to take, to adopt* are considered as being English not differing from such

native words as *child, foot, stone*, etc. But in historical lexicology they are treated as borrowed words.

Comparative lexicology deals with the properties of the vocabulary of two or more languages. In comparative lexicology the main characteristic features of the words of two or more languages are compared. Ex .Russian-English lexicology, English- French lexicology and etc.

Lexicology has some subdivisions such as:

- 1) **Semasiology** (deals with the meaning of the word);
- 2) **Word formation** (studies all possible ways of the formation of new words in English);
- 3) **Etymology** (studies the origin of words);
- 4) **Phraseology** (studies the set-expressions, phraseological units);
- 5) **Lexicography** (studies compiling dictionaries).

Comparative study of different peculiarities of English words with words of other languages shows that there are various symptoms of this contrast between English and other languages.

Lexicology is closely connected with other aspects of the language: grammar, phonetics, the history of the language and stylistics.

Lexicology is connected with grammar because the word seldom occurs in isolation. Words alone do not form communication. It is only when words are connected and joined by the grammar rules of a language communication becomes possible. On the other hand grammatical form and function of the word affect its lexical meaning. *For example:* When the verb «go» in the continuous tenses is followed by «to» and an infinitive, it expresses a future action. Ex.: *He is not going to read this book.* Participle II of the verb «go» following the link verb «be» denotes the negative meaning. Ex.: *The house is gone.*

So the lexical meanings of the words are grammatically conditioned.

The word, as it has already been stated, is studied in several branches of linguistics and not in lexicology only, and the latter, in its turn, is closely connected with general linguistics, the history of the language, phonetics, stylistics, grammar and such new branches of our science as sociolinguistics, paralinguistics, pragmalinguistics and some others.

Lexicology is linked with phonetics because the order and the arrangement of phonemes are related to its meaning. Ex.: the words «tip»and «pit» consist of the same phonemes and it is the arrangement of phonemes alone which determines the meaning of the words. The arrangement of phonemes in the words «increase»is the same. Only stress determines the difference in meaning.

Lexicology is also closely linked with the history of the language. In examining the word «information»in terms of its historical development we establish its French origin and study the changes in its semantic and morphological structures. If we don't know the history of the language it will be

very difficult to establish different changes in the meaning and form of the words which have undergone in the course of the historical development of the language.

There is also a close relationship between lexicology and stylistics. The words «to begin» and »to commence» mean one and the same meaning but they can never be used interchangeable because they have different stylistic references.

The branch of linguistics, dealing with causal relations between the way the language works and develops, on the one hand, and the facts of social life, on the other, is termed *sociolinguistics*. Some scholars use this term in a narrower sense, and maintain that it is the analysis of speech behaviour in small social groups that is the focal point of sociolinguistic analysis. A. D. Schweitzer has proved that such microsociological approach alone cannot give a complete picture of the sociology of language. It should be combined with the study of such macrosociological factors as the effect of mass media, the system of education, language planning, etc. An analysis of the social stratification of languages takes into account the stratification of society as a whole.

The relationship existing between words may be either syntagmatic or paradigmatic. The syntagmatic relationship is found in the context. The context is the minimum stretch of speech which is necessary to bring out the meaning of a word. Ex. *take tea* (пить чай), *take tram* (ехать на трамвае).

The paradigmatic relationship is the relations between words within the vocabulary: polysemy, synonymy, antonymy of words etc. There are two approaches to the study of the vocabulary of a language—diachronic and synchronic.

One further important objective of lexicological studies is the study of the vocabulary of a language as a system. The vocabulary can be studied *synchronically*, that is, at a given stage of its development, or *diachronically*, that is, in the context of the processes through which it grew, developed and acquired its modern form. The opposition of the two approaches accepted in modern linguistics is nevertheless disputable as the vocabulary, as well as the word which is its fundamental unit, is not only what it is now, at this particular stage of the language's development, but, also, what it was centuries ago and has been throughout its history.

Synchronic approach deals with the vocabulary as it exists at a given time, at the present time. The diachronic approach studies the changes and the development of vocabulary in the course of time

Ex.: Synchronically the words *help*, *accept*, *work*, and *produce* are all the English words. But diachronically they came from different languages. Such words as *childhood*, *kingdom*, *friendship*, *freedom* were at one time compound words because the suffixes *-dom*, *-hood*, *-ship* were independent words but

synchronically they are derived words because «dom» and «hood» became suffixes.

What do we know about the nature of the word?

First, the word is a unit of speech which, as such, serves the purposes of human communication. Thus, the word can be defined as a unit of communication.

Secondly, the word can be perceived as the total of the sounds which comprise it.

Third, the word, viewed structurally, possesses several characteristics.

The modern approach to word studies is based on distinguishing between the external and the internal structures of the word.

By external structure of the word we mean its **morphological structure**. For example, in the word *post-impressionists* the following morphemes can be distinguished: the prefixes *post-*, *im-*, the root *press*, the noun-forming suffixes *-ion*, *-ist*, and the grammatical suffix of plurality *-s*. All these morphemes constitute the external structure of the word *post-impressionists*.

The internal structure of the word, or its meaning, is nowadays commonly referred to as the word's **semantic structure**. This is certainly the word's main aspect. Words can serve the purposes of human communication solely due to their meanings, and it is most unfortunate when this fact is ignored by some contemporary scholars who, in their obsession with the fetish of structure tend to condemn as irrelevant anything that eludes mathematical analysis. And this is exactly what meaning, with its subtle variations and shifts, is apt to do.

The area of lexicology specialising in the semantic studies of the word is called semantics.

Phraseology is the branch of lexicology specialising in word-groups which are characterised **by stability of structure and transferred meaning**, e. g. *to take the bull by the horns*, *to see red*, *birds of a feather*, etc.

Another structural aspect of the word is its unity. The word possesses both **external (or formal) unity** and **semantic unity**. Formal unity of the word is sometimes inaccurately interpreted as indivisibility. The example of *post-impressionists* has already shown that the word is not, strictly speaking, indivisible.

All that we have said about the word can be summed up as follows.

The word is a speech unit used for the purposes of human communication, materially representing a group of sounds, possessing a meaning, susceptible to grammatical employment and characterised by formal and semantic unity.

The term *u n i t* means one of the elements into which a whole may be divided or analysed and which possesses the basic properties of this whole. The units of a vocabulary or lexical units are two-facet elements possessing form and meaning. The basic unit forming the bulk of the vocabulary is the word. Other

units are morphemes that is parts of words, into which words may be analysed, and set expressions or groups of words into which words may be combined.

Words are the central elements of language system, they face both ways: they are the biggest units of morphology and the smallest of syntax", and what is more, they embody the main structural properties and functions of the language. Words can be separated in an utterance by other such units and can be used in isolation. Unlike words, morphemes cannot be divided into smaller meaningful units and are functioning in speech only as constituent parts of words. Words are thought of as representing integer concept, feeling or action or as having a single referent. The meaning of morphemes is more abstract and more general than that of words and at the same time they are less autonomous.

Set expressions are word groups consisting of two or more words whose combination is integrated so that they are introduced in speech, so to say, ready-made as units with a specialised meaning of the whole that is not understood as a mere sum total of the meanings of the elements.

Paradigmatic and syntagmatic studies of meaning are functional because the meaning of the lexical unit is studied first not through its relation to referent but through its functions in relation to other units.

Functional approach is contrasted to referential or onomasiological approach, otherwise called theory of nomination, in which meaning is studied as the interdependence between words and their referents, that is things or concepts they name, i.e. various names given to the same sense. The onomasiological study of lexical units became especially prominent in the last two decades. The revival of interest in onomasiological matters is reflected in a large volume of publications on the subject. An outline of the main trends of current research will be found in the monographs on the Theory of Nomination issued by the Institute of Linguistics of the Academy of Sciences.

The study of the lexical system must also include the study of the words' combinatorial possibilities - their capacity to combine with one another in groups of certain patterns, which serve to identify meanings. Most modern research in linguistics attaches great importance to what is variously called valency, distributional characteristics, colligation and collocation, combining power or otherwise. This research shows that combinatorial possibilities of words play an important part in almost every lexicological issue.

Syntagmatic relationships being based on the linear character of speech are studied by means of contextual, valency, distributional, transformational and some other types of analysis.

Paradigmatic linguistic relationships determining the vocabulary system are based on the interdependence of words within the vocabulary (synonymy,

antonymy, hyponymy, etc.).

Diachronically the interdependence of words within the lexical subsystem may be seen by observing shifts in the meaning of existing words that occur when a new word is introduced into their semantic sphere. This interdependence is one of the reasons why historical linguistics can never achieve any valuable results if it observes only the development of isolated words.

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Questions for discussion:

1. In what way can one analyse a word a) socially, b) linguistically?
2. What are the structural aspects of the word?
3. What is the external structure of the word irresistible? What is the internal structure of this word?
4. What is understood by formal unity of a word? Why is it not quite correct to say that a word is indivisible?
5. Explain why the word *blackboard* can be considered a unity and why the combination of words a *black board* doesn't possess such a unity.
6. What is understood by the semantic unity of a word? Which of the following possesses semantic unity — a *bluebell* (R. колокольчик) or a *blue bell* (R. синий бубенчик).
7. Give a brief account of the main characteristics of a word.
8. What are the main problems of lexicology?
9. What are the main differences between studying words syntagmatically and paradigmatically?

Chapter 2

THE MORPHOLOGICAL STRUCTURE OF ENGLISH WORDS

1. Morphemes. The morphemic structure of the word
2. The difference between the morpheme, the phoneme and the word
3. The morphemic analysis of the word with the help of I.C. method
4. Types of morphemes
5. The stem and its types
6. Synchronic and diachronic approaches to the analysis of the stem of the word

7. The morphological analysis. Levels of morphological analysis: morphemic and derivational.

8. The main structural types of English words

A morpheme is the smallest indivisible meaningful language unit within the structure of the word. Most of the words have a composite nature and they are made up morphemes - the smallest indivisible, two-faced language unit. Morphemes might be divided into phonemes. But if we divide morphemes into phonemes, phonemes unlike morphemes have no meaning. (ex.: t/ea/ch/er - teacher). Phonemes are used to make up morphemes. So the difference between morphemes is that morphemes have meaning but phonemes have not. A morpheme differs from a word too. Unlike a word a morpheme does not occur separately in speech. It occurs in speech as a constituent part of a word.

Morphemes are subdivided into roots and affixes. The root-morpheme is the lexical nucleus of a word and a common part of a word-building cluster. Affixes are classified into prefixes, suffixes and infixes. According to their function and meaning affixational morphemes are subdivided into: grammatical affixes, serving to form new grammatical forms of the same word and derivational, building new words. Structurally morphemes fall into free and bound. Semi-free or semi-bound morphemes (semi-affixes) are identical to roots in their form, but have acquired the functional and semantic characteristics of derivational affixes to a certain degree, e.g. *waterproof*, *fireproof*, *childproof*, etc. The positional variants of a morpheme are called allomorphs.

The morpheme is the smallest meaningful language unit. The morpheme consists of a class of variants, allomorphs, which are either phonologically or morphologically conditioned, e.g. *please*, *pleasant*, *pleasure*.

Morphemes are divided into two large groups: lexical morphemes and grammatical (functional) morphemes. Both lexical and grammatical morphemes can be free and bound. Free lexical morphemes are roots of words which express the lexical meaning of the word, they coincide with the stem of simple words. Free grammatical morphemes are function words: articles, conjunctions and prepositions (the, with, and).

Bound lexical morphemes are affixes: *prefixes (dis-)*, *suffixes (-ish)* and also **blocked (unique) root morphemes** (e.g. *Fri-day*, *cran-berry*). **Bound grammatical morphemes** are inflexions (endings), e.g. *-s* for the Plural of nouns, *-ed* for the Past Indefinite of regular verbs, *-ing* for the Present Participle, *-er* for the Comparative degree of adjectives.

How do we analyze the composite nature of words? The method by which the segmentation of words into morphemes is carried out is known as I.C. analysis (the immediate constituents method). Let's analyze the word «denationalize» with the help of I.C. method.

de/nation/al/ize

When we analyze the word we compare the word with other words which have the same morphemes. The word «denationalize» may be divided into «de» and «nationalize», because «de» can be found in the structure of such words as «deform», «denature», «denominate». The remaining part «nationalize» can be broken into «national» and «ize»: the reason is the same (organize, humanize, standardize etc). «National»-into «nation» and «al» because «al» occurs in a number of words such as: (occupational, musical, conditional etc). At each stage of the process we receive two ultimate constituents. The part of the word «denationalize»- *de*, *-nation*, *-al*, *-ize*, are ultimate constituents because they can not be divided further. They are morphemes. This analysis of word structure is known as *the morphemic analysis*.

Morphemes are divided into two: *free* and *bound*. Free morpheme is a morpheme which is identical with the word form. In our example only «nation» can be said as a free morpheme, as it is like a word form and can be used in isolation, *de-*, *-al*, *-ize*, are bound morphemes because they can't be used separately and do not coincide with word forms.

There are three structural types of stems: *simple, derived and compound*. A simple stem is a part of the word which is identical with a root morpheme and to which the grammatical elements are added. *Ex. book, tram, teach, table, girl, boy*. A derived stem is a stem which can be divided into a root and an affix: *girlish, agreement, acceptable, teacher*. But derived stems are not always polymorphemic. *Ex.* The stem of the verb «to fish» though it has no affix in its structure it should be considered to be a derived stem as it is felt by the native speaker as more complex and semantically dependant on the simple stem of the noun «fish». Compound stems are stems which consist of two or more stems *Ex. match-box, paint-box, bookcade, doorhandle* etc.

We must differ two approaches to the analysis of word-structure: diachronic and synchronic. Words like «kingdom», «childhood», «friendship» are called words which have a derived stem because in modern English the elements «dom», «hood», «ship» are suffixes. However they consisted of two root morphemes in Old English and they were compound words Synchronically the word «lord» has a simple stem but diachronically it had a compound stem (O.E. *hlafweard*). The verbs «disappoint», «return», «remark» and other have no derived stems but simple stems in Modern English these words are not divided into re-turn, dis-appoint etc. because there are no semantic relations between «disappoint» (разочаровываться) and «appoint», «return» and «turn» etc.

There are two levels of the morphological analysis of words: the level of a morphemic analysis and the level of a derivational, or word-building analysis. The morphemic analysis aims at breaking a word into constituent morphemes, determining their number and types. The procedure used for segmenting words into constituent morphemes is the Method of Immediate and Ultimate

Constituents. According to their segmentability words in English are classified into segmentable (polymorphic) and non-segmentable (monomorphic root-words). There are three types of segmentability: complete, conditional and defective.

The derivational analysis reveals how the word was constructed. The basic units of the derivative structure of words are a derivational base, a derivational pattern and derivational elements (affixes). The derivational base is the constituent of a word to which a rule of word-building is applied. A derivational pattern is a structure revealing the order and the nature of the derivational bases and derivational elements. Derivational patterns representing the derivative structure at different levels of generalization can be structural and structural-semantic.

According to the number of morphemes words are divided into monomorphemic and polymorphemic. Monomorphemic words consist of one root-morpheme. *Ex. boy, girl, dog, cat.* Polymorphemic words consist of more than two morphemes. *Ex.: teach/er, un/reason/able.* Morphemes are arranged in the word according to certain rules. The relations within the word and the interrelations between different types and classes of words are called derivational relations. The basic unit at the derivational level is the stem. **The stem** is a part of the word which remains unchanged throughout its paradigm. In the word forms «talk, talks, talked, talking» we can receive the stem «talk». The stem which comes in the paradigm boy, boys, boy's, boys' is boy. In «teacher», «teacher's», «teachers», «teachers» the stem is «teacher».

According to the nature and the number of morphemes constituting a word there are different structural types of words in English: *simple, derived, compound, compound-derived.*

Simple words consist of one root morpheme and an inflexion (in many cases the inflexion is zero), e.g. «seldom», «chairs», «longer», «asked».

Derived words consist of one root morpheme, one or several affixes and an inflexion, e.g. «derestricted», «unemployed».

Compound words consist of two or more root morphemes and an inflexion, e.g. «baby-moons», «wait-and-see (policy)».

Compound-derived words consist of two or more root morphemes, one or more affixes and an inflexion, e.g. «middle-of-the-roaders», «job-hopper».

When speaking about the structure of words stems also should be mentioned. **The stem** is the part of the word which remains unchanged throughout the paradigm of the word, e.g. the stem «hop» can be found in the words: «hop», «hops», «hopped», «hopping». The stem «hippie» can be found in the words: «hippie», «hippies», «hippie's», «hippies'». The stem «job-hop» can be found in the words: «job-hop», «job-hops», «job-hopped», «job-hopping».

So stems, the same as words, can be *simple, derived, compound* and *compound-derived*. Stems have not only the lexical meaning but also grammatical (part-of-speech) meaning, they can be noun stems («girl» in the adjective «girlish»), adjective stems («girlish» in the noun «girlishness»), verb stems («expell» in the noun «expellee») etc. They differ from words by the absence of inflexions in their structure; they can be used only in the structure of words.

Sometimes it is rather difficult to distinguish between simple and derived words, especially in the cases of phonetic borrowings from other languages and of native words with blocked (unique) root morphemes, e.g. «perestroika», «cranberry», «absence» etc.

As far as words with splinters are concerned it is difficult to distinguish between *derived words* and compound-shortened words. If a splinter is treated as an affix (or a semi-affix) the word can be called *derived*, e.g., «telescreen», «maxi-taxi», «shuttlegate», «cheeseburger».

But if the splinter is treated as a lexical shortening of one of the stems, the word can be called *compound-shortened word* formed from a word combination where one of the components was shortened, e.g. «busnapper» was formed from «bus kidnapper», «minijet» from «miniature jet».

In the English language of the second half of the twentieth century there developed so called *block compounds*, that is compound words which have a uniting stress but a split spelling, such as «chat show», «penguin suit» etc. Such compound words can be easily mixed up with word-groups of the type «stone wall», so called *nominative binomials*. Such linguistic units serve to denote a notion which is more specific than the notion expressed by the second component and consists of two nouns, the first of which is an attribute to the second one. If we compare a nominative binomial with a compound noun with the structure N+N we shall see that a nominative binomial has no unity of stress. The change of the order of its components will change its lexical meaning, e.g. «vid kid» is «a kid who is a video fan» while «kid vid» means «a video-film for kids» or else «lamp oil» means «oil for lamps» and «oil lamp» means «a lamp which uses oil for burning».

Among language units we can also point out *word combinations* of different structural types of idiomatic and non-idiomatic character, such as «the first fiddle», «old salt» and «round table», «high road». There are also sentences which are studied by grammarians.

Thus, we can draw the conclusion that in Modern English the *following language units* can be mentioned: *morphemes, splinters, words, nominative binomials, non-idiomatic* and *idiomatic word-combinations, sentences*.

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Questions for discussion:

1. What is understood by the diachronic approach to the analysis of the word structure?

2. What is understood by the synchronic approach to the analysis of the word structure?

Chapter 3

WORDFORMATION, AFFIXATION THE PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Word-building (WB) in English. Major and minor means of word-building in English

2. The Subject matter of word formation

3. Diachronic and synchronic study of word formation

4. Types of word formation

5. Ways of word formation

6. Affixation and its subdivision - Dead and living affixes; Productive and the frequency of affixes; Classification of affixes according to their structure; Classification of affixes according to their meaning; The deviation of affixes according to what part of speech they from.

7. The stylistic reference of affixes.

8. The difference between suffixes

9. The origin of affixes

10. Homonymic and synonymic affixes

11. The polysemy of affixes

12. Conversion

13. Composition. Types of compounds

Word-building is one of the main ways of enriching vocabulary. There are four main ways of word-building in modern English: **affixation, composition, conversion, abbreviation.** There are also secondary ways of word-building:

sound interchange, stress interchange, sound imitation, blends, back formation.

WB is the process of creating new words in a language with the help of its inner sources. The most productive, or major means of WB in Modern English are affixation, conversion and composition. Minor means of WB in English include less productive and non-productive means of WB: back-formation, blending, reduplication, sound-imitation, sound-interchange, shift of stress, etc. Shortening occupies the intermediate position between major and minor means of WB.

So the subject of study of word formation is to study the patterns on which the English language builds words.

Word formation is the creation of new words from the elements existing in the language. Every language has its own structural patterns of word formation. Words like «writer», «worker», «teacher», «manager» and many others follow the structural pattern of word formation «V+er».

Word formation may be studied synchronically and diachronically. Synchronically we study those of word formation which characterize the present-day English linguistic system, while diachronically we investigate the history of word formation. The synchronic type of word formation does not always coincide with the historical system of word formation.

Ex. the words childhood, kingdom were compound words: hood> OE had (state, rank), dom>OE dom condemn. But synchronically they are considered as derived words because «-dom», «-hood» became. The words «return» and «turn» historically had semantic relations and «return» was considered as a word derived from «turn». But synchronically these words have no semantic relations and we can't say that «return» is derived from «turn».

Synchronically the most important and the most productive ways of word formation are: affixation, conversion, and word composition. Beside them there are other types of word formation such as: shortening, sound interchange, blending, backformation. In the course of the historical development of a language the productivity of this or that way of word formation changes.

Ex. sound interchange (blood-bleed, strike-stroke) was a productive way of word formation in old English and it is an important subject-matter for a diachronic study of the English language. Sound interchange has lost its productivity in Modern English and no new words can be formed by means of sound interchange. Affixation on the contrary was productive in Old English and is still one of the most productive ways of word formation in Modern English.

Two types of word formation may be distinguished: word derivation and word-composition. Words formed by **word-derivation** have only one stem and or more derivational affixes (ex. *kindness* from *kind*). Some derived words have no affixes because derivation is achieved through conversion (ex. *to paper* from

paper). Words formed by **word composition** have two or more stems (ex. *bookcase, note-book*). Besides there are words created by derivation and composition. Such words are called **derivational compounds** (ex. *long-legged*).

Affixation is one of the most productive ways of word-building throughout the history of English. It consists in adding an affix to the stem of a definite part of speech. Affixation is divided into suffixation and prefixation.

Affixation is the formation of new words by adding a derivational affix to a derivational base. Affixation is represented by prefixation and suffixation. According to their productivity affixes are classified into productive and non-productive, according to their origin – into native and borrowed. Affixes may be polysemantic, there are synonymous and homonymous affixes in English.

Affixation is the formation of words with the help of derivational affixes. Affixation is subdivided into prefixation and suffixation. *Ex.* if a prefix «dis» is added to the stem»like» (*dislike*) or suffix «ful» to»law» (*lawful*) we say a word is built by an affixation. Derivational morphemes added before the stem of a word are called **prefixes** (Ex. un+like) and the derivational morphemes added after the stem of the word are called suffixes (hand+ful). Prefixes modify the lexical meaning of the stem meaning i.e. the prefixed derivative mostly belongs to the same part of speech. *Ex.* *like* (v.) - *dislike* (v.); *kind* (adj.) - *unkind* (adj.) but suffixes transfer words to a different part of speech, ex. *teach* (v.) - *teacher* (n.). But new investigations into the problem of prefixation in English showed interesting results. It appears that the traditional opinion, current among linguists that prefixes modify only the lexical meaning of words without changing the part of speech is not quite correct. In English there are about 25 prefixes which can transfer words to a different part of speech. *Ex.*- *head* (n) - *behead* (v), *bus* (n)- *debus* (v), *brown* (adj.) – *embrown* (v), *title* (n)- *entitle* (v), *large* (adj.)- *enlarge* (v), *camp* (n).- *encamp* (v), *war* (n).- *prewar* (adj). If it is so we can say that there is no functional difference between suffixes and prefixes. Besides there are linguists who treat prefixes as a part of word - composition. They think that a prefix has the same function as the first component of a compound of a word. Other linguists consider prefixes as derivational affixes which differ essentially from root - morphemes and stems. From the point of view of their origin affixes may be native and borrowed. The suffixes **-ness, -ish, dom,-ful, -less, -ship** and prefixes **be-, mis-, un-, fore-**, etc are of native origin. But the affixes **-able, -ment, -ation, -ism, -ist, re-, anti-, dis-**, etc are of borrowed origin. They came of the Greek, Latin and French languages. Many of the suffixes and prefixes of native origin were independent words. In the course of time they have lost their independence and turned into derivational affixes. *Ex.* - *dom-* *hood.* / O. E. had-state / the adjective forming suffix «-ly» has developed from the noun «lic» (*body, shape*). The prefixes *out-, under-, over-* etc also have developed out of independent words.

Another problem of the study of affixes is homonymic affixes. Homonymic affixes are affixes which have the same sound form, spelling but different meanings and they are added to different parts of speech.

Ex. -ful (1) forms adjectives from a noun: love (v)- loveful (adj/), man (n), manful (adj).

-ful (2) forms adjective from a verb: forget (v.)-for-getful, (adj)thank (v.)-thankful (adj).

-ly (1) added to an adjective stem is homonymous to the adjective forming suffix -ly (2) which is added to a noun stem. *Ex.* quickly, slowly, and lovely, friendly.

The verb suffix -en (1) added to a noun and adjective stem is homonymous to the adjective forming suffix -en (2)

which is added to a noun stem. *Ex* to strengthen, to soften, and wooden, golden. The prefix un-(!) added to a noun and a verb stem is homonymous to the prefix **un-**(2) which is added to an adjective stem. *Ex.* *unshoe, unbind, unfair, untrue.*

In the course of the history of English as a result of borrowings there appeared many synonymous affixes in the language. *Ex.* the suffixes **-er, -or, -ist, -ent, -ant, -eer, -ian, -man, -ee, -ess** from synonymous affixes denoting the meaning «agent». Having the meaning of negation the prefixes **un-, in-, non-, dis-, mis-** from synonymic group of prefixes. It is interesting to point out that the synonymous affixes help us to reveal different lexico-semantic groupings of words. *Ex.* the words formed by the suffixes **-man, -er, -or, -ian, -ee, -eer, -ent, -ant** etc. belong to the lexico-semantic groupings of words denoting «doer of the action». The affixes may also undergo semantic changes, they may be polysemantic. *Ex.* the noun forming suffix «-er» has the following meanings:

1) persons following some special trade and profession (driver, teacher, hunter);

2) persons doing a certain action at the moment in question (packer, chooser, giver);

3) tools (blotter, atomizer, boiler, transmitter).

The adjective forming suffix «-y» also has several meanings:

1) composed of, full of (bony, stony)

2) characterized by (rainy, cloudy)

3) having the character of resembling what the stem denotes (inky, bushy etc.).

Thus, affixes have different characteristic features.

There are different classification of affixes in linguistic literature. Affixes may be divided into dead and living. Dead affixes are those which are no longer felt in Modern English as component parts of words. They can be singled out

only by an etymological analysis. *Ex.* admit (from L ad+mittere); deed, seed, seed (-d) flight, bright (-t).

Living affixes are easily singled out from a word. *Ex.* freedom, childhood, marriage.

Living affixes are traditionally in their turn divided into productive and non-productive. Productive affixes are those which are characterized by their ability to make new words. *Ex.* -er (baker, lander-косм.корабль (космик кеме));-ist(leftist-левый (шип т1реп) -ism, -ish (baldish) -ing, -ness, -ation, -er, -ry, -or, -ance, -ic are productive suffixes -re-, un-, non-, anti- etc are productive prefixes.

Non-productive affixes are those which are not used to form new words in Modern English. *Ex.* -ard, -cy, -ive, -en, -dom, -ship, -ful, -en, -ify etc. are not productive suffixes; in(il) ir (im-), mis-dis-, are non-productive prefixes. These affixes may occur in a great number of words but if they are not used to form new words in Modern English they are not productive.

But recent investigations prove that there are no productive and non-productive affixes because each affix plays a certain role in word formation. There are only affixes with different degrees of productivity, besides that productivity of affixes should not be mixed up with their frequency of occurrence in speech. Frequency of affixes is characterized by the occurrence of an affix in a great number of words. But productivity is the ability of a given suffix or prefix to make new words. An affix may be frequent but not productive, *ex.* the suffix «ive» is very frequent but non-productive.

Some linguists¹ distinguish between two types of prefixes:

1) those which are like functional words (such as prepositions or adverbs) (*ex.* out-, over-, up-.)

2) those which are not correlated with any independent words. (*ex.* un-, dis-, re-, mis-, etc).

Prefixes out-, over-, up-, under-, etc are considered as semi-bound morphemes. However, this view is doubtful because these prefixes are quite frequent in speech and like other derivational affixes have a generalized meaning. They have no grammatical meaning like the independent words. We think they are bound morphemes and should be regarded as homonyms of the corresponding independent words, *ex.* the prefix «out-» in outdoor, outcome, outbreak etc is homonymous to the preposition «out» in «out of door» and the adverb «out» in «He went out».

Prefix and suffixes may be classified according to their meaning.

1) prefixes of negative meaning such as: de-, non-, un-, in-, ir-, im-, dis- (*ex.* defeat, decentralize, disappear, impossible, discomfort etc); 2) prefixes denoting space and time relations: after-, under-for-, pre-, post-, over-, super-

(ex. prehistory, postposition, superstructure, overspread, afternoon, forefather);
3) prefixes denoting relation of an action such as: re- (ex. reread, remake).

Like prefixes the suffixes are also classified according to their meaning:

1) the agent suffixes: -er, -or, -ist, -ee etc. (baker, sailor, typist, employee);
2) appurtenance: -an, -ian, -ese (Arabian, Russian, Chinese, Japanese); 3) collectivity: -age, -dom, -hood, -ery (peasantry, marriage, kingdom, childhood);
4) diminutiveness: -let, -ock, -ie etc (birdie, cloudlet, hillock); 5) quantitiveness¹: -ful, -ous, -y, -ive, -ly, -some.

Suffixes may be divided into different groups according to what part of speech they form:

1) noun-forming, i. e. those which are formed from nouns: -er, -dom, -ness, -ation, -ity, -age, -ance/. -ence, -ance, -ist, -hood, -ship, -ment etc; 2) adjective-forming: -able/. -ible/. -ible, -al, -ian, -ese, -ate, -ed, -ful, -ive, -ous, -y etc; 3) numeral-forming: -teen, -th, -ty etc; 4) verb-forming: -ate, -en, -ify, -ize etc; 5) adverb-forming: -ly, -ward, -wise etc.

Suffixes may be added to the stem of different parts of speech. According to this point of view they may be:

1) those added to verbs; -er, -ing, -ment, -able; 2) those added to nouns; -less, -ish, -ful, -ist, some etc; 3) those added to adjectives; -en, -ly, -ish, -ness etc.

Suffixes are also classified according to their stylistic reference; 1) suffixes, which characterize neutral stylistic reference: -able, -er, -ing (ex. dancer, understandable (helping)); 2) suffixes which characterize a certain stylistic reference: -oid, -form, -tron etc (astroid, rhomboid, cruciform, cyclotron etc).

SUFFIXATION

The main function of suffixes in Modern English is to form one part of speech from another; the secondary function is to change the lexical meaning of the same part of speech. (e.g. «educate» is a verb, «educatee» is a noun, and «music» is a noun, «musicdom» is also a noun).

There are different classifications of suffixes:

1. **Part-of-speech classification.** Suffixes which can form different parts of speech are given here: a) noun-forming suffixes, such as: **-er** (*criticizer*), **-dom** (*officialdom*), **-ism** (*ageism*), b) adjective-forming suffixes, such as: **-able** (*breathable*), **less** (*symptom less*), **-ous** (*prestigious*), c) verb-forming suffixes, such as **-ize** (*computerize*), **-ify** (*micrify*), d) adverb-forming suffixes, such as: **-ly** (*singly*), **-ward** (*tableward*), e) numeral-forming suffixes, such as **-teen** (*sixteen*), **-ty** (*seventy*).

2. **Semantic classification.** Suffixes changing the lexical meaning of the stem can be subdivided into groups, e.g. noun-forming suffixes can denote: a) the agent of the action, e.g. **-er** (*experimenter*), **-ist** (*taxist*), **-ent** (*student*), b)

nationality, e.g. **-ian** (*Russian*), **-ese** (*Japanese*), **-ish** (*English*), c) collectivity, e.g. **-dom** (*moviedom*), **-ry** (*peasantry*), **-ship** (*readership*), **-ati** (*literati*), d) diminutiveness, e.g. **-ie** (*horsie*), **-let** (*booklet*), **-ling** (*gooseling*), **-ette** (*kitchenette*), e) quality, e.g. **-ness** (*copelessness*), **-ity** (*answerability*).

3. Lexico-grammatical character of the stem. Suffixes which can be added to certain groups of stems are subdivided into: a) suffixes added to verbal stems, such as: **-er** (*commuter*), **-ing** (*suffering*), **-able** (*flyable*), **-ment** (*involvement*), **-ation** (*computerization*), b) suffixes added to noun stems, such as: **-less** (*smogless*), **-ful** (*roomful*), **-ism** (*adventurism*), **-ster** (*pollster*), **-nik** (*filmnik*), **-ish** (*childish*), c) suffixes added to adjective stems, such as: **-en** (*weaken*), **-ly** (*pinkly*), **-ish** (*longish*), **-ness** (*clannishness*).

4. Origin of suffixes. Here we can point out the following groups: a) native (Germanic), such as **-er**, **-ful**, **-less**, **-ly**. b) Romanic, such as: **-tion**, **-ment**, **-able**, **-eer**. c) Greek, such as: **-ist**, **-ism**, **-ize**. d) Russian, such as **-nik**.

5. Productivity. Here we can point out the following groups: a) productive, such as: **-er**, **-ize**, **-ly**, **-ness**. b) semi-productive, such as: **-eer**, **-ette**, **-ward**. c) non-productive, such as: **-ard** (*drunkard*), **-th** (*length*).

Suffixes can be polysemantic, such as: **-er** can form nouns with the following meanings: agent, doer of the action expressed by the stem (*speaker*), profession, occupation (*teacher*), a device, a tool (*transmitter*). While speaking about suffixes we should also mention compound suffixes which are added to the stem at the same time, such as **-ably**, **-ibly**, (*terribly*, *reasonably*), **-ation** (*adaptation* from *adapt*).

There are also disputable cases whether we have a suffix or a root morpheme in the structure of a word, in such cases we call such morphemes **semi-suffixes**, and words with such suffixes can be classified either as derived words or as compound words, e.g. **-gate** (*Irangate*), **-burger** (*cheeseburger*), **-aholic** (*workaholic*) etc.

PREFIXATION

Prefixation is the formation of words by means of adding a prefix to the stem. In English it is characteristic for forming verbs. Prefixes are more independent than suffixes. Prefixes can be classified according to the nature of words in which they are used: **prefixes used in notional words** and **prefixes used in functional words**. Prefixes used in notional words are **proper prefixes** which are **bound morphemes**, e.g. **un-** (*unhappy*). Prefixes used in functional words are **semi-bound morphemes** because they are met in the language as words, e.g. **over-** (*overhead*) (cf. *over the table*).

The main function of prefixes in English is to change the lexical meaning of the same part of speech. But the recent research showed that about twenty-five prefixes in Modern English form one part of speech from another (*bebutton*, *interfamily*, *postcollege*, etc).

Prefixes can ***be classified*** according to different principles:

1. Semantic classification: a) prefixes of negative meaning, such as: *in-* (*invaluable*), *non-* (*nonformals*), *un-* (*unfree*), etc, b) prefixes denoting repetition or reversal actions, such as: *de-* (*decolonize*), *re-* (*revegetation*), *dis-* (*disconnect*), c) prefixes denoting time, space, degree relations, such as: *inter-* (*interplanetary*), *hyper-* (*hypertension*), *ex-* (*ex-student*), *pre-* (*pre-election*), *over-* (*overdrugging*) etc.

2. Origin of prefixes: a) native (Germanic), such as: *un-*, *over-*, *under-* etc.

b) Romanic, such as: *in-*, *de-*, *ex-*, *re-* etc. c) Greek, such as: *sym-*, *hyper-* etc.

When we analyze such words as : adverb, accompany where we can find the root of the word (verb, company) we may treat *ad-*, *ac-* as prefixes though they were never used as prefixes to form new words in English and were borrowed from Romanic languages together with words. In such cases we can treat them as derived words. But some scientists treat them as simple words. Another group of words with a disputable structure are such as: *contain*, *retain*, *detain* and *conceive*, *receive*, *deceive* where we can see that *re-*, *de-*, *con-* act as prefixes and *-tain*, *-ceive* can be understood as roots. But in English these combinations of sounds have no lexical meaning and are called ***pseudo-morphemes***. Some scientists treat such words as simple words, others as derived ones.

There are some prefixes which can be treated as root morphemes by some scientists, e.g. *after-* in the word *afternoon*. American lexicographers working on Webster dictionaries treat such words as compound words. British lexicographers treat such words as derived ones.

Conversion may be treated as a semantico-morphological-syntactical process. ***Conversion*** is a process of coining a new word in a different part of speech and with a different distributional characteristic but without adding any derivative elements so that the basic form of the original and the basic form of the derived words are homonymous (identical). There are certain semantic relations between the words within a conversion pair, e.g. *to find* (action) – *a find* (result of the action).

Composition is the production of a new word by means of uniting two or more stems which usually occur in the language as free forms. Compound words possess semantic integrity and structural cohesion. According to the type of composition and the linking element compounds are classified into neutral, morphological and syntactic. According to the degree of idiomaticity they fall into idiomatic (non-motivated) and non-idiomatic (motivated). The criteria serving for distinguishing compounds from word-combinations are: graphic, phonetic, grammatical, semantic.

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Questions for discussion:

1. Give the definition of “affixation”, “suffixation”, “prefixation”?
2. What criteria serve for distinguishing compounds from word-combinations?

Chapter 4

CONVERSION. WORDCOMPOSITION

PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Different points of view to the study of conversion.
2. The study of conversion on the diachronic level.
3. The study of conversion on the synchronic level.
4. The most common types of conversion.
5. The connection of derived and underlying word in converted pairs.
6. Compound words and their meanings.
7. The motivation of compounds.
8. The classification of compound words.
9. The types of relations of components in compound words.
10. The difference between the compound words and word groups.
11. Synchronic and diachronic approaches to the study of compounds.

Conversion is a very productive way of forming new words, chiefly verbs and not so often-nouns. This type of word formation presents one of the characteristic features of Modern English. By conversion we mean derivation of a new word from the stem of a different part of speech without the addition of

any formatives. As a result the two words are homonymous, having the same morphological structure and belonging to different parts of speech.

Verbs may be derived from the stem of almost any part of speech, but the commonest is the derivation from noun stems as: (a) *tube-* (to) *tube*; (a) *doctor-* (to) *doctor*; (a) *face-* (to) *face*; (a) *waltz-* (to) *waltz*; (a) *star* -(to) *star*; from compound noun stems as: (a) *buttonhole* - (to) *buttonhole*; *week-end* - (to) *week-end*. Derivations from the stems of other parts of speech are less common: *wrong* - (to) *wrong*; *up* - (to) *up*; *down* - (to) *down*; *encore* - (to) *encore*. Nouns are usually derived from verb stems and may be instanced by such nouns as: (to) *make* - a *make*; (to) *cut* - (a) *cut*; *to bite* - (a) *bite*, (to) *drive* - (a) *drive*; *to smoke* - (a) *smoke*; (to) *walk* - (a) *walk*. Such formations frequently make part of verb - noun combinations as: *to take a walk*, *to have a smoke*, *to have a drink*, *to take a drive*, *to take a bite*, *to give a smile* and others.

Nouns may be also derived from verb-postpositive phrases. Such formation are very common in Modern English, as for instance: (to) *make up* - (a) *make-up*; (to) *call up* - (a) *call-up*; (to) *pull over* - (a) *pullover*.

New formations by conversion from simple or root stems are quite usual, derivatives from suffixes stems are rare. No verbal derivation from prefixed stems is found.

The derived word and the deriving word are connected semantically. The semantic relations between the derived and the deriving word are varied and sometimes complicated. To mention only some of them: a) the verb signifies the act accomplished by or by means of the thing denoted by the noun, as; *to finger* means 'to touch with the finger, turn about in fingers'; *to hand* means 'to give or help with the hand, to deliver, transfer by hand'; b) the verb may have the meaning 'to act as the person denoted by the noun does', as: *to dog* means 'to follow closely', *to cook* - 'to prepare food for the table, to do the work of a cook'; c) the derived verbs may have the meaning 'to go by ' or 'to travel by the thing denoted by the noun', as, *to train* means 'to go by train', *to bus* - 'to go by bus', *to tube* - 'to travel by tube'; d) 'to spend, pass the time denoted by the noun', as, *to winter* 'to pass the winter', *to weekend* - 'to spend the week-end'.

Derived nouns denote: a) the act, as *a knock*, *a hiss*, *a smoke*; or b) the result of an action, as *a cut*, *a find*, *a call*, *a sip*, *a run*.

A characteristic feature of Modern English is the growing frequency of new formations by conversion, especially among the verbs.

Conversion is a characteristic feature of the English word-building system. It is also called affixless derivation or zero-suffixation. The term «conversion» first appeared in the book by Henry Sweet «New English Grammar» in 1891. Conversion is treated differently by different scientists, e.g. prof. A.I. Smirnitsky treats conversion as a morphological way of forming words when one part of speech is formed from another part of speech by changing its paradigm, e.g. to

form the verb «to dial» from the noun «dial» we change the paradigm of the noun (*a dial, dials*) for the paradigm of a regular verb (*I dial, he dials, dialed, dialing*). A. Marchand in his book «The Categories and Types of Present-day English» treats conversion as a morphological-syntactical word-building because we have not only the change of the paradigm, but also the change of the syntactic function, e.g. *I need some good paper for my room.* (The noun «paper» is an object in the sentence). *I paper my room every year.* (The verb «paper» is the predicate in the sentence).

Conversion is the main way of forming verbs in Modern English. Verbs can be formed from nouns of different semantic groups and have different meanings because of that, e.g. a) verbs have **instrumental meaning** if they are formed from nouns denoting parts of a human body e.g. *to eye, to finger, to elbow, to shoulder* etc. They have instrumental meaning if they are formed from nouns denoting tools, machines, instruments, weapons, e.g. *to hammer, to machine-gun, to rifle, to nail*, b) verbs can denote **an action characteristic** of the living being denoted by the noun from which they have been converted, e.g. *to crowd, to wolf, to ape*, c) verbs can denote **acquisition, addition or deprivation** if they are formed from nouns denoting an object, e.g. *to fish, to dust, to peel, to paper*, d) verbs can denote **an action performed at the place** denoted by the noun from which they have been converted, e.g. *to park, to garage, to bottle, to corner, to pocket*, e) verbs can denote **an action performed at the time** denoted by the noun from which they have been converted e.g. *to winter, to week-end*.

Verbs can be also converted from adjectives, in such cases they denote **the change of the state**, e.g. *to tame (to become or make tame), to clean, to slim*, etc.

Nouns can also be formed by means of conversion from verbs. **Converted nouns** can denote: a) **instant of an action** e.g. *a jump, a move*, b) **process or state**, e.g. *sleep, walk*, c) **agent of the action** expressed by the verb from which the noun has been converted, e.g. *a help, a flirt, a scold*, d) **object or result of the action** expressed by the verb from which the noun has been converted, e.g. *a burn, a find, a purchase*, e) **place of the action** expressed by the verb from which the noun has been converted, e.g. *a drive, a stop, a walk*.

Many nouns converted from verbs can be used only in the Singular form and denote **momentaneous actions**. In such cases we have **partial conversion**. Such deverbal nouns are often used with such verbs as: to have, to get, to take etc., e.g. *to have a try, to give a push, to take a swim*.

WORDCOMPOSITION

Modern English is very rich in compound words. Compound words are made up by joining two or more stems.

Ex. *taxi-driver, paint-box, bookcase*.

A compound word has a single semantic structure. We distinguish the meaning of the compound words from the combined lexical meanings of its components. Ex. «pencil-case» is a case for pencils. The meaning of the compound words is derived not only from the combined lexical meanings of its components but also from the order and arrangement of the stems. A change in the order of components of compound words brings a change in their lexical meaning.

Ex. *life-boat*- a boat of special construction for saving lives. *boat-life*- life on board of a ship.

a fruit-market-market where fruit is sold, *market-fruit*-fruit for selling.

Compound words are classified into completely motivated, partially motivated and non-motivated compound words. In completely motivated compound words the lexical meaning of compound is easily deduced from the lexical meanings of the stems.

Ex. *book-case*, *foot-step*, *door-handle*, *bottle-opener*.

The compound words *a flower-bed*, *walk-up* are partially motivated compounds because we can guess their meaning partially. The compounds in which the connection between the meaning and structure and the meanings of components of compounds can not be seen from the meaning of its components are called non-motivated compound words.

Ex. *wall-flower* -a woman who remains at wall and is not invited to a dance.

Night-cap -drink taken before going to bed at night.

Compound words may be classified from the functional point of view or according to their belonging to different parts of speech.

Many of English compounds belong to nouns and adjectives. N- *armchair*, *sitting-room*, *looking-glass*, *blackboard*, *pickpocket* (a thief), *bench-mark*, *homework*, *grammar-school*.

ADJ- *social-economic*, *hard-working*, *man-made*, *well-behaved*, *well-read*, *dry-drink*, V- *whitewash*, *housekeep*, etc.

ADV- *indoors*, *within*, *outside*.

From the point of view how the components are joined together the compound words may be classified into: compounds whose components are joined with a linking element – infix, element within the word, in the middle of the word. (*Afro-Asian*, *Anglo-Saxon*, *sportsman*, *speedometer*, *handicraft*, *statesman*, *landsman*) and without a linking element (*snowball*, *rain-coat*, *door-handle*, *reading-room*, *paint-box*, *door-step*).

Compound words are also classified according to different ways of compounding. In this case we divide them into two groups:

1) **compound words proper**. Such kind of compounds are formed by joining together stems of words and these compounds have no derivational affix. The components of such compounds are simple stems.

Ex. *door-step, looking-glass, table-cloth, whitewash, book-case, bookshelf*.

2) **derivational compound**. These compounds have a derivational affix: *long-legged, kind-hearted, schoolboyishness, blue-eyed, absentminded*.

There are *two types of relationship* in linguistic literature: that of **coordination** and **subordination** and accordingly compound words may be classified into **coordinative** and **subordinative**. In coordinative compounds the components are structurally and semantically independent (ex. reduplicative: *goody-goody, fifty-fifty*).

In subordinative compounds the components are based on the domination of one component over the other.

Ex. *road-building, baby-sitter, woman-doctor*.

Subordinative compounds may be syntactic which depends on syntactic rules. Ex. *mad-doctor, bluebell, a slow-coach* (adj+ n) and asyntactic. Ex. *red-hot, oil-rich, long-legged* (adj+adj) there is no syntactic rule and it does not depend on the syntactic rules.

Compound words differ from word-groups, they are inseparable vocabulary units. Compound words structurally, phonetically and graphically are inseparable.

Structurally compounds are inseparable because if we change the places of components of compounds we see change of meaning in compounds or they will not be compounds.

Ex. *boat-life* -life on ship, *life-boat* - a boat which is used for saving. If we change the places of components of compound word long-legged in this way «legged long» it will be not a compound word. So the inseparability in structure of compounds can be seen in their specific order and arrangement of stems.

The compounds are phonetically inseparable as the components of them have only one stress. Mostly the first component is stressed. Ex. *pen-knife, book-case, doorway, bookshelf*. There are some compounds which have a double stress. In this case we have the primary stress on the first component and a weaker secondary stress on the second component.

Ex. 'mad-' doctor, 'washing -' machine, 'money -' order etc. These stress patterns in many cases may be used as a criteria of distinguishing compound words from free word groups. As we know both components of free word groups are always stressed.

Ex. A 'green-house, a 'green 'house (word group) - a house that is painted green, 'dancing-girl- a dancer, dancing 'girl -a girl who is dancing. Graphically compounds have two types of spelling-they are written either together or with a hyphen.

This is also one of the criteria of distinguishing of compounds from word groups. Some linguists advocate the semantic criterion. They define a compound word as a combination of words expressing a single idea. This point of view causes some doubt because it does not give us sufficient ground to distinguish between the cases of compound words and idiomatic set phrases.

According to the nature and the number of morphemes constituting a word there are different structural types of words in English: *simple, derived, compound, compound-derived*.

Simple words consist of one root morpheme and an inflexion (in many cases the inflexion is zero), e.g. «seldom», «chairs», «longer», «asked».

Derived words consist of one root morpheme, one or several affixes and an inflexion, e.g. «derestricted», «unemployed».

Compound words consist of two or more root morphemes and an inflexion, e.g. «baby-moons», «wait-and-see (policy)».

Compound-derived words consist of two or more root morphemes, one or more affixes and an inflexion, e.g. «middle-of-the-roaders», «job-hopper».

When speaking about the structure of words stems also should be mentioned. ***The stem*** is the part of the word which remains unchanged throughout the paradigm of the word, e.g. the stem «*hop*» can be found in the words: «*hop*», «*hops*», «*hopped*», «*hopping*». The stem «*hippie*» can be found in the words: «*hippie*», «*hippies*», «*hippie's*», «*hippies'*». The stem «*job-hop*» can be found in the words: «*job-hop*», «*job-hops*», «*job-hopped*», «*job-hopping*».

So stems, the same as words, can be *simple, derived, compound* and *compound-derived*. Stems have not only the lexical meaning but also grammatical (part-of-speech) meaning, they can be noun stems («girl» in the adjective «*girlish*»), adjective stems («*girlish*» in the noun «*girlishness*»), verb stems («*expell*» in the noun «*expellee*») etc. They differ from words by the absence of inflexions in their structure; they can be used only in the structure of words.

Sometimes it is rather difficult to distinguish between simple and derived words, especially in the cases of phonetic borrowings from other languages and of native words with blocked (unique) root morphemes, e.g. «perestroika», «cranberry», «absence» etc.

As far as words with splinters are concerned it is difficult to distinguish between ***derived words*** and compound-shortened words. If a splinter is treated as an affix (or a semi-affix) the word can be called ***derived***, e.g., «telescreen», «maxi-taxi», «shuttle-gate», «cheeseburger».

But if the splinter is treated as a lexical shortening of one of the stems, the word can be called ***compound-shortened word*** formed from a word combination

where one of the components was shortened, e.g. «busnapper» was formed from «bus kidnapper», «minijet» from «miniature jet».

In the English language of the second half of the twentieth century there developed so called **block compounds**, that is compound words which have a uniting stress but a split spelling, such as «*chat show*», «*penguin suit*» etc. Such compound words can be easily mixed up with word-groups of the type «stone wall», so called **nominative binomials**. Such linguistic units serve to denote a notion which is more specific than the notion expressed by the second component and consists of two nouns, the first of which is an attribute to the second one. If we compare a nominative binomial with a compound noun with the structure N+N we shall see that a nominative binomial has no unity of stress. The change of the order of its components will change its lexical meaning, e.g. «*vid kid*» is «a kid who is a video fan» while «*kid vid*» means «a video-film for kids» or else «*lamp oil*» means «oil for lamps» and «*oil lamp*» means «a lamp which uses oil for burning».

Among language units we can also point out **word combinations** of different structural types of idiomatic and non-idiomatic character, such as «*the first fiddle*», «*old salt*» and «*round table*», «*high road*». There are also sentences which are studied by grammarians.

Composition is the way of word building when a word is formed by joining two or more stems to form one word. The structural unity of a compound word depends upon: a) the unity of stress, b) solid or hyphenated spelling, c) semantic unity, d) unity of morphological and syntactical functioning. These are characteristic features of compound words in all languages. For English compounds some of these factors are not very reliable. As a rule English compounds have one uniting stress (usually on the first component), e.g. *hard-cover*, *best-seller*. We can also have a double stress in an English compound, with the main stress on the first component and with a secondary stress on the second component, e.g. *blood-vessel*. The third pattern of stresses is two level stresses, e.g. *snow-white*, *sky-blue*. The third pattern is easily mixed up with word-groups unless they have solid or hyphenated spelling.

Spelling in English compounds is not very reliable as well because they can have different spelling even in the same text, e.g. *war-ship*, *blood-vessel* can be spelt through a hyphen and also with a break, *insofar*, *underfoot* can be spelt solidly and with a break. All the more so that there has appeared in Modern English a special type of compound words which are called **block compounds**, they have one uniting stress but are spelt with a break, e.g. *air piracy*, *cargo module*, *coin change*, *penguin suit* etc.

The semantic unity of a compound word is often very strong. In such cases we have **idiomatic compounds** where the meaning of the whole is not a sum of meanings of its components, e.g. *to ghostwrite*, *skinhead*, *brain-drain*, etc.

In nonidiomatic compounds semantic unity is not strong, e. g., *airbus*, *to bloodtransfuse*, *astrodynamics*, etc.

English compounds have the unity of morphological and syntactical functioning. They are used in a sentence as one part of it and only one component changes grammatically, e.g. *These girls are chatter-boxes*. «Chatter-boxes» is a predicative in the sentence and only the second component changes grammatically.

There are two characteristic features of English compounds:

a) Both components in an English compound are free stems, that is they can be used as words with a distinctive meaning of their own. The sound pattern will be the same except for the stresses, e.g. «a green-house» and «a green house». Whereas for example in Russian compounds the stems are bound morphemes, as a rule.

b) English compounds have a two-stem pattern, with the exception of compound words which have form-word stems in their structure, e.g. *middle-of-the-road*, *off-the-record*, *up-and-doing*, etc. The two-stem pattern distinguishes English compounds from German ones.

CLASSIFICATIONS OF ENGLISH COMPOUNDS

1. According to the parts of speech compounds are subdivided into: a) **nouns**, such as : *baby-moon*, *globe-trotter*, b) **adjectives**, such as : *free-for-all*, *power-happy*, c) **verbs**, such as : *to honey-moon*, *to baby-sit*, *to henpeck*, d) **adverbs**, such as: *down-deep*, *headfirst*, e) **prepositions**, such as: *into*, *within*, f) **numerals**, such as : *fifty-five*.

2. According to the way components are joined together compounds are divided into: a) **neutral**, which are formed by joining together two stems without any joining morpheme, e.g. *ball-point*, *to window-shop*, b) **morphological** where components are joined by a linking element: vowels «o» or «i» or the consonant «s», e.g. {«*astro-space*», «*handicraft*», «*sportsman*»), c) **syntactical** where the components are joined by means of form-word stems, e.g. *here-and-now*, *free-for-all*, *do-or-die* .

3. According to their structure compounds are subdivided into:

a) **compound words proper** which consist of two stems, e.g. *to job-hunt*, *train-sick*, *go-go*, *tip-top*,

b) **derivational compounds**, where besides the stems we have affixes, e.g. *ear-minded*, *hydro-skimmer*,

c) compound words consisting of three or more stems, e.g. *cornflower-blue*, *eggshell-thin*, *singer-songwriter*,

d) **compound-shortened words**, e.g. *boatel*, *tourmobile*, *VJ-day*, *motocross*, *intervision*, *Eurodollar*, *Camford*.

4. According to the relations between the components compound words are subdivided into:

a) **subordinate compounds** where one of the components is the semantic and the structural centre and the second component is subordinate; these subordinate relations can be different: with comparative relations, e.g. *honey-sweet, eggshell-thin*, with limiting relations, e.g. *breast-high, knee-deep*, with emphatic relations, e.g. *dog-cheap*, with objective relations, e.g. *gold-rich*, with cause relations, e.g. *love-sick*, with space relations, e.g. *top-heavy*, with time relations, e.g. *spring-fresh*, with subjective relations, e.g. *foot-sore*, etc.

b) **coordinative compounds** where both components are semantically independent. Here belong such compounds when one person (object) has two functions, e.g. *secretary-stenographer, woman-doctor, Oxbridge*, etc. Such compounds are called **additive**. This group includes also compounds formed by means of reduplication, e.g. *fifty-fifty, no-no*, and also compounds formed with the help of rhythmic stems (reduplication combined with sound interchange) e.g. *criss-cross, walkie-talkie*.

5. According to the order of the components compounds are divided into compounds with direct order, e.g. *kill-joy*, and compounds with indirect order, e.g. *nuclear-free, rope-ripe*.

Thus, we can draw the conclusion that in Modern English the **following language units** can be mentioned: **morphemes, splinters, words, nominative binomials, non-idiomatic and idiomatic word-combinations, sentences**.

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Questions for discussion:

1. Give the definition of the word "composition".
2. What types of English compounds do you know?

Chapter 5

SHORTENING AND MINOR MEANS OF WORD-BUILDING

1. Shortening in English: clipping and abbreviation
2. Minor means of word-building in English: back formation, blending, reduplication, sound imitation, sound interchange, shift of stress

Compound words in English can be formed not only by means of composition but also by means of : a) **reduplication**, e.g. *too-too*, and also by means of **reduplication combined with sound interchange** , e.g. *rope-ripe*, b) **conversion** from word-groups, e.g. to *Mickey-mouse*, *can-do*, *makeup*, etc, c) **back formation** from compound nouns or word-groups, e.g. to *blood transfuse*, *to fingerprint*, etc , d) **analogy**, e.g. *lie-in* (on the analogy with *sit-in*) and also *phone-in*, *brawn-drain* (on the analogy with *brain-drain*) etc.

In the process of communication words and word-groups can be shortened.

The causes of shortening can be **linguistic** and **extra-linguistic**. By extra-linguistic causes changes in the life of people are meant. In Modern English many new **abbreviations**, **acronyms**, **initials**, **blends** are formed because the tempo of life is increasing and it becomes necessary to give more and more information in the shortest possible time.

There are also linguistic causes of abbreviating words and word-groups, such as the demand of rhythm, which is satisfied in English by monosyllabic words. When borrowings from other languages are assimilated in English they are shortened. Here we have modification of form on the basis of analogy, e.g. the Latin borrowing «fanaticus» is shortened to «fan» on the analogy with native words: *man*, *pan*, *tan*, etc.

There are two main types of shortenings: **graphical** and **lexical**.

Shortening has become quite active in recent decades. Shortening is the creation of a new word by subtraction from a full word. Shortening is represented by clipping, or curtailment, and abbreviation. Clipping is the formation of a word by cutting off one or several syllables of a word. There are three main types of clipping according to the position of a clipped part

Abbreviation is the formation of words consisting of the initial letters of a phrase or a word. There are initial abbreviations pronounced as a series of letters, and those read as ordinary English words (acronyms).

GRAPHICAL ABBREVIATIONS

Graphical abbreviations are the result of shortening of words and word-groups only in written speech while orally the corresponding full forms are used. They are used for the economy of space and effort in writing.

The oldest group of graphical abbreviations in English is of Latin origin. In Russian this type of abbreviation is not typical. In these abbreviations in the spelling Latin words are shortened, while orally the corresponding English equivalents are pronounced in the full form, *e.g. for example* (Latin *exempli gratia*), *a.m.* - *in the morning* (*ante meridiem*), *No* - *number* (*numero*), *p.a.* - *a year* (*per annum*), *d* - *penny* (*dinarius*), *lb* - *pound* (*libra*), *i. e.* - *that is* (*id est*), etc.

Some graphical abbreviations of Latin origin have different English equivalents in different contexts, e.g. *p.m.* can be pronounced «in the afternoon» (*post meridiem*) and «after death» (*post mortem*).

There are also graphical abbreviations of native origin, where in the spelling we have abbreviations of words and word-groups of the corresponding English equivalents in the full form. We have several semantic groups of them :

- a) days of the week, e.g. *Mon* - Monday, *Tue* - Tuesday, etc
- b) names of months, e.g. *Apr* - April, *Aug* - August, etc.
- c) names of counties in UK, e.g. *Yorks* - Yorkshire, *Berks* - Berkshire, etc
- d) names of states in USA, e.g. *Ala* - Alabama, *Alas* - Alaska, etc.
- e) names of address, e.g. *Mr.*, *Mrs.*, *Ms.*, *Dr.*, etc.
- f) military ranks, e.g. *capt.* - captain, *col.* - colonel, *sgt* - sergeant, etc.
- g) scientific degrees, e.g. *B.A.* - Bachelor of Arts, *D.M.* - Doctor of Medicine. (Sometimes in scientific degrees we have abbreviations of Latin origin, e.g., *M.B.* - *Medicinae Baccalaurus*).
- h) units of time, length, weight, e.g. *f.* / *ft* - foot/feet, *sec.* - second, *in.* - inch, *mg.* - milligram, etc.

The reading of some graphical abbreviations depends on the context, e.g. «m» can be read as: *male*, *married*, *masculine*, *metre*, *mile*, *million*, *minute*, «l.p.» can be read as *long-playing*, *low pressure*.

INITIAL ABBREVIATIONS

Initialisms are the bordering case between graphical and lexical abbreviations. When they appear in the language, as a rule, to denote some new offices they are closer to graphical abbreviations because orally full forms are used, e.g. *J.V.* - *joint venture*. When they are used for some duration of time they acquire the shortened form of pronouncing and become closer to lexical abbreviations, e.g. *BBC* is as a rule pronounced in the shortened form.

In some cases the translation of initialisms is next to impossible without using special dictionaries. Initialisms are denoted in different ways. Very often they are expressed in the way they are pronounced in the language of their origin, e.g. *ANZUS* (*Australia, New Zealand, United States*) is given in Russian as *АНЗУС*, *SALT* (*Strategic Arms Limitation Talks*) was for a long time used in Russian as *СОЛТ*, now a translation variant is used (*ОСВ - Договор об ограничении стратегических вооружений*). This type of initialisms borrowed into other languages is preferable, e.g. *UFO* - *НЛО*, *СП* - *Ю*, etc.

There are three types of initialisms in English: a) initialisms with alphabetical reading, such as *UK*, *BUP*, *CND*, etc b) initialisms which are read as if they are words, e.g. *UNESCO*, *UNO*, *NATO* etc. c) initialisms which coincide with English words in their sound form, such initialisms are called acronyms, e.g. *CLASS* (*Computer-based Laboratory for Automated School System*).

Some scientists unite groups b) and c) into one group which they call acronyms. Some initialisms can form new words in which they act as root

morphemes by different ways of word building: a) affixation, e.g. *AWALism*, *ex-rafer*, *ex-POW*, *to waafize*, *AIDSophobia*, etc. b) conversion, e.g. *to raff*, *to fly IFR* (*Instrument Flight Rules*), c) composition, e.g. *STOLport*, *USAFman*, etc. d) there are also **compound-shortened words** where the first component is an initial abbreviation with the alphabetical reading and the second one is a complete word, e.g. *A-bomb*, *U-pronunciation*, *V-day*, etc. In some cases the first component is a complete word and the second component is an **initial abbreviation** with the alphabetical pronunciation, e.g. *Three -Ds* (*Three dimensions*) - стереофильм.

ABBREVIATIONS OF WORDS

Abbreviation of words consists in clipping a part of a word. As a result we get a new lexical unit where either the lexical meaning or the style is different from the full form of the word. In such cases as »fantasy» and «fancy», «fence» and «defence» we have different lexical meanings. In such cases as «laboratory» and «lab», we have different styles.

Abbreviation does not change the part-of-speech meaning, as we have it in the case of conversion or affixation, it produces words belonging to the same part of speech as the primary word, e.g. *prof* is a noun and *professor* is also a noun. Mostly nouns undergo abbreviation, but we can also meet abbreviation of verbs, such as *to rev* from *to revolve*, *to tab* from *to tabulate* etc. But mostly abbreviated forms of verbs are formed by means of conversion from abbreviated nouns, e.g. *to taxi*, *to vac* etc.

Adjectives can be abbreviated but they are mostly used in school slang and are combined with suffixation, e.g. *comfy*, *dilly*, *mizzy*, etc. As a rule pronouns, numerals, interjections, conjunctions are not abbreviated. The exceptions are: *fif* (*fifteen*), *teen-ager*, *in one's teens* (**apheresis** from numerals from 13 to 19).

Lexical abbreviations are classified according to the part of the word which is clipped. Mostly the end of the word is clipped, because the beginning of the word in most cases is the root and expresses the lexical meaning of the word. This type of abbreviation is called **apocope**. Here we can mention a group of words ending in «o», such as *disco* (*dicotheque*), *expo* (*exposition*), *intro* (*introduction*) and many others. On the analogy with these words there developed in Modern English a number of words where «o» is added as a kind of a suffix to the shortened form of the word, e.g. *combo* (*combination*) - *небольшой эстрадный ансамбль*, *Afro* (*African*)-*прическа под африканца*, etc. In other cases the beginning of the word is clipped. In such cases we have **apheresis**, e.g. *chute* (*parachute*), *varsity* (*university*), *copter* (*helicopter*), *thuse* (*enthuse*), etc. Sometimes the middle of the word is clipped, e.g. *mart* (*market*), *fanzine* (*fan magazine*) *maths* (*mathematics*). Such abbreviations are called **syncope**. Sometimes we have a combination of **apocope** with apheresis, when

the beginning and the end of the word are clipped, e.g. *tec* (*detective*), *van* (*avanguard*), etc.

Sometimes shortening influences the spelling of the word, e.g. «c» can be substituted by «k» before «e» to preserve pronunciation, e.g. *mike* (*microphone*), *Coke* (*coca-cola*, etc. The same rule is observed in the following cases: *fax* (*facsimile*), *teck* (*technical college*), *trank* (*tranquilizer*), etc. The final consonants in the shortened forms are substituted by letters characteristic of native English words.

Minor types of word-building include *back formation* (*back-derivation, or reversion*), *blending* (*telescoping*), *reduplication*, *sound imitation*, *sound interchange*, *shift of stress* (*or distinctive stress*).

In the second half of the twentieth century the *English word building system* was enriched by creating so called *splinters* which scientists include in the affixation stock of the Modern English word building system.

Splinters are the result of clipping the end or the beginning of a word and producing a number of new words on the analogy with the primary word-group. For example, there are many words formed with the help of the splinter mini- (apocopy produced by clipping the word «miniature»), such as «miniplane», «minijet», «minicycle», «minicar», «miniradio» and many others. All of these words denote objects of smaller than normal dimensions.

On the analogy with «mini-» there appeared the splinter «maxi»- (apocopy produced by clipping the word «maximum»), such words as «maxi-series», «maxi-sculpture», «maxi-taxi» and many others appeared in the language.

When European economic community was organized quite a number of neologisms with the splinter Euro- (apocopy produced by clipping the word «European») were coined, such as: «Euratom» «Euro card», «Euromarket», «Europlug», «Eurotunnel» and many others. These splinters are treated sometimes as prefixes in Modern English.

There are also splinters which are formed by means of *aphaeresis* that is clipping the beginning of a word. The origin of such splinters can be variable, e.g. the splinter «burger» appeared in English as the result of clipping the German borrowing «Hamburger» where the morphological structure was the stem «Hamburg» and the suffix -er. However in English the beginning of the word «Hamburger» was associated with the English word «ham», and the end of the word «burger» got the meaning «a bun cut into two parts». On the analogy with the word «hamburger» quite a number of new words were coined, such as: «baconburger», «beefburger», «cheeseburger», «fishburger» etc.

The splinter «cade» developed by *clipping* the beginning of the word «cavalcade» which is of Latin origin. In Latin the verb with the meaning «to ride a horse» is «cabalicare» and by means of the inflexion -ata the corresponding Participle is formed. So the element «cade» is a combination of the final letter of

the stem and the inflexion. The splinter «cade» serves to form nouns with the meaning «connected with the procession of vehicles denoted by the first component», e.g. «aircade» - «a group of airplanes accompanying the plane of a VIP» , «autocade» - «a group of automobiles escorting the automobile of a VIP», «musicade» - «an orchestra participating in a procession».

In the seventieths of the twentieth century there was a political scandal in the hotel «Watergate» where the Democratic Party of the USA had its pre-election headquarters. Republicans managed to install bugs there and when they were discovered there was a scandal and the ruling American government had to resign. The name «Watergate» acquired the meaning «a political scandal», «corruption». On the analogy with this word quite a number of other words were formed by using the splinter «gate» (apheresis of the word «Watergate»), such as: «Irangate», »Westlandgate», »shuttlegate», »milliongate» etc. The splinter «gate» is added mainly to Proper names: names of people with whom the scandal is connected or a geographical name denoting the place where the scandal occurred.

The splinter «mobile» was formed by clipping the beginning of the word «automobile» and is used to denote special types of automobiles, such as: «artmobile», «bookmobile», «snowmobile», «tourmobile» etc.

The splinter «napper» was formed by clipping the beginning of the word «kidnapper» and is used to denote different types of crimesters, such as: «busnapper», «babynapper», «dognapper» etc. From such nouns the corresponding verbs are formed by means of backformation, e.g. «to busnap», «to babynap», «to dognap».

The splinter «omat» was formed by clipping the beginning of the word «automat» (a cafe in which meals are provided in slot-machines). The meaning «self-service» is used in such words as «laundromat», «cashomat» etc.

Another splinter «eteria» with the meaning «self-service» was formed by clipping the beginning of the word «cafeteria». By means of the splinter «eteria» the following words were formed: «grocery», «booketeria», «booteteria» and many others.

The splinter «quake» is used to form new words with the meaning of «shaking», «agitation». This splinter was formed by clipping the beginning of the word «earthquake». The following words were formed with the help of this splinter: «Marsquake», «Moonquake», «youthquake» etc.

The splinter «rama(ama)» is a clipping of the word «panorama» of Greek origin where «pan» means «all» and «horama» means «view». In Modern English the meaning «view» was lost and the splinter «rama» is used in advertisements to denote objects of supreme quality, e.g. «autorama» means «exhibition-sale of expensive cars», «trouserama» means «sale of trousers of supreme quality» etc.

The splinter «scape» is a clipping of the word «landscape» and it is used to form words denoting different types of landscapes, such as: «moonscape», «streetscape», «townscape», «seascape» etc.

Another case of splinters is «tel» which is the result of clipping the beginning of the word «hotel». It serves to form words denoting different types of hotels, such as: «motel» (motor-car hotel), «boatel» (boat hotel), «floatel» (a hotel on water, floating), «airtel» (airport hotel) etc.

The splinter «theque» is the result of clipping the beginning of the word «apothèque» of Greek origin which means in Greek «a store house». In Russian words: «библиотека», «картотека», «фильмотека» the element «тека» corresponding to the English «theque» preserves the meaning of storing something which is expressed by the first component of the word. In English the splinter «theque» is used to denote a place for dancing, such as: «discotheque», «jazzotheque».

The splinter «thon» is the result of clipping the beginning of the word «marathon». «Marathon» primarily was the name of a battle-field in Greece, forty miles from Athens, where there was a battle between the Greek and the Persian. When the Greek won a victory a Greek runner was sent to Athens to tell people about the victory. Later on the word «Marathon» was used to denote long-distance competitions in running. The splinter «thon (athon)» denotes «something continuing for a long time», «competition in endurance» e.g. «dancathon», «telethon», «speakathon», «readathon», «walkathon», «moviethon», «swimathon», «talkathon», «swearthon» etc.

Splinters can be the result of clipping adjectives or substantivized adjectives. The splinter «aholic» (holic) was formed by clipping the beginning of the word «alcoholic» of Arabian origin where «al» denoted «the», «koh'l» - «powder for staining lids». The splinter «(a)holic» means «infatuated by the object expressed by the stem of the word», e.g. «bookaholic», «computerholic», «coffeeholic», «cheesaholic», «workaholic» and many others.

The splinter «genic» formed by clipping the beginning of the word «photogenic» denotes the notion «suitable for something denoted by the stem», e.g. «allergenic», «cardiogenic», «mediagenic», «telegenic» etc.

As far as verbs are concerned it is not typical of them to be clipped that is why there is only one splinter to be used for forming new verbs in this way. It is the splinter «cast» formed by clipping the beginning of the verb «broadcast». This splinter was used to form the verbs «telecast» and «abroadcast».

Splinters can be called pseudo morphemes because they are neither roots nor affixes; they are more or less artificial. In English there are words which consist of two splinters, e.g. «telethon», therefore it is more logical to call words with splinters in their structure «compound- shortened words consisting of two clippings of words».

Splinters have only one function in English: they serve to change the lexical meaning of the same part of speech, whereas prefixes and suffixes can also change the part-of-speech meaning, e.g. the prefix «en-» and its allomorph «em» can form verbs from noun and adjective stems («embody», «enable», «endanger»), «be-» can form verbs from noun and adjective stems («becloud», «benumb»), «post-» and «pre-» can form adjectives from noun stems («pre-election campaign», «post-war events»).

SECONDARY WAYS OF WORDBUILDING

SOUND INTERCHANGE

Sound interchange is the way of word-building when some sounds are changed to form a new word. It is non-productive in Modern English, it was productive in Old English and can be met in other Indo-European languages. The causes of sound interchange can be different. It can be the result of Ancient Ablaut which cannot be explained by the phonetic laws during the period of the language development known to scientists, e.g. *to strike - stroke, to sing - song* etc. It can be also the result of Ancient Umlaut or vowel mutation which is the result of palatalizing the root vowel because of the front vowel in the syllable coming after the root (regressive assimilation), e.g. *hot - to heat (hotian), blood - to bleed (blodian)* etc.

In many cases we have vowel and consonant interchange. In nouns we have voiceless consonants and in verbs we have corresponding voiced consonants because in Old English these consonants in nouns were at the end of the word and in verbs in the intervocalic position, e.g. *bath - to bathe, life - to live, breath - to breathe* etc.

STRESS INTERCHANGE

Stress interchange can be mostly met in verbs and nouns of Romanic origin: nouns have the stress on the first syllable and verbs on the last syllable, e.g. *ˈaccent - to accent*. This phenomenon is explained in the following way: French verbs and nouns had different structure when they were borrowed into English, verbs had one syllable more than the corresponding nouns. When these borrowings were assimilated in English the stress in them was shifted to the previous syllable (the second from the end). Later on the last unstressed syllable in verbs borrowed from French was dropped (the same as in native verbs) and after that the stress in verbs was on the last syllable while in nouns it was on the first syllable.

As a result of it we have such pairs in English as: *to afˈfix - ˈaffix, to conˈflict - ˈconflict, to exˈport - ˈexport, to exˈtract - ˈextract* etc. As a result of stress interchange we have also vowel interchange in such words because vowels are pronounced differently in stressed and unstressed positions.

SOUND IMITATION

It is the way of word-building when a word is formed by imitating different sounds. There are some semantic groups of words formed by means of sound imitation a) sounds produced by human beings, such as : *to whisper, to giggle, to mumble, to sneeze, to whistle*, etc. b) sounds produced by animals, birds, insects, such as: *to hiss, to buzz, to bark, to moo, to twitter*, etc. c) sounds produced by nature and objects, such as: *to splash, to rustle, to clatter, to bubble, to ding-dong, to tinkle* etc.

The corresponding nouns are formed by means of conversion, e.g. *clang* (of a bell), *chatter* (of children) etc.

BLENDINGS

Blends are words formed from a word-group or two synonyms. In blends two ways of word-building are combined: **abbreviation** and **composition**. To form a blend we clip the end of the first component (apocope) and the beginning of the second component (apheresis). As a result we have a compound-shortened word. One of the first blends in English was the word «smog» from two synonyms: smoke and fog which means smoke mixed with fog. From the first component the beginning is taken, from the second one the end, «o» is common for both of them.

Blends formed from two synonyms are: *slanguage, to hustle, gasohol* etc.

Mostly blends are formed from a word-group, such as: *acromania* (acronym mania), *cinemadict* (cinema addict), *chunnel* (channel, canal), *dramedy* (drama comedy), *detectifiction* (detective fiction), *faction* (fact fiction) (fiction based on real facts), *informecial* (information commercial), *Medicare* (medical care), *magalog* (magazine catalogue) *slimnastics* (slimming gymnastics), *sociolite* (social elite), *slanguist* (slang linguist) etc.

BACK FORMATION

It is the way of word-building when a word is formed by dropping the final morpheme to form a new word. It is opposite to suffixation, that is why it is called back formation. At first it appeared in the language as a result of misunderstanding the structure of a borrowed word. Prof.Yartseva explains this mistake by the influence of the whole system of the language on separate words. E.g. it is typical of English to form nouns denoting the agent of the action by adding the suffix **-er** to a verb stem (*speaking- speaker*). So when the French word «*beggar*» was borrowed into English the final syllable «**ar**» was pronounced in the same way as the English **-er** and Englishmen formed the verb «to beg» by dropping the end of the noun. Other examples of back formation are: *to accreditate* (from *accreditation*), *to bach* (from *bachelor*), *to collocate* (from *collocation*), *to enthuse* (from *enthusiasm*), *to compute* (from *computer*), *to emote* (from *emotion*) *to reminisce* (from *reminiscence*), *to televise* (from *television*) etc.

As we can notice in cases of back formation the part-of-speech meaning of the primary word is changed, verbs are formed from nouns.

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Questions for discussion:

1. Give the definition of the “abbreviation”.
2. What types of abbreviations do you know?

Chapter 6

SEMASIOLOGY

THE SEMANTIC STRUCTURE OF THE WORD

1. Semasiology. The main approaches to the study of word meaning
2. Types of word meaning: grammatical, lexical, lexico-grammatical. The main components of lexical meaning
3. Semasiology and its subject matter.
4. The definition of the tern « meaning of the word».
5. Referential and functional approaches to the study of meaning.
6. Types of meanings.
7. Motivation and its different types.
8. Polysemy in English and its causes. The semantic structure of a polysemantic word
9. Levels of the semantic analysis: lexico-semantic, componential, contextual.

The branch of lexicology which deals with the meaning is called *semasiology*.

Every word has two aspects: *the outer aspect* (its sound form) and *the inner aspect* (its meaning). Sound and meaning do not always constitute a constant unit even in the same language. E.g. the word «*temple*» may denote «*a part of a human head*» and «*a large church*». In such cases we have homonyms. One and the same word in different syntactical relations can develop different meanings, e.g. the verb «*treat*» in sentences: a) *He treated my words as a joke.* b) *The book treats of poetry.* c) *They treated me to sweets.* d) *He treats his son cruelly.*

In all these sentences the verb «*treat*» has different meanings and we can speak about polysemy.

On the other hand, one and the same meaning can be expressed by different sound forms, e.g. «*pilot*», and «*airman*», «*horror*» and «*terror*». In such cases we have synonyms.

Both the meaning and the sound can develop in the course of time independently. E.g. the Old English /*lufian*/ is pronounced /l[^]v / in Modern English. On the other hand, «*board*» primarily means «*a piece of wood sawn thin*» It has developed the meanings: *a table, a board of a ship, a stage, a council* etc.

The part of Lexicology which studies the meaning and the development of meaning of words is called Semasiology. The subject matter of Semasiology is the semantic structure of a word and the changes in it. There are different approaches to the problem of word meaning in modern Semasiology: the referential, or denotational approach; functional, or contextual approach; and the new cognitive approach.

Semasiology is concerned with the meaning of words, studies the types of meaning the change of meaning, the semantic structure of words, semantic groupings, synonyms, antonyms, homonyms etc. There is no generally accepted definition of the term «meaning of the word». F. de Saussure, a well-known Swiss linguist, says that the meaning is the relation between the object or nation named and the name itself.

L. Bloomfield, a well-known American linguist, points out that the meaning is the situation in which the word is uttered. The situations prompt people to utter speech.

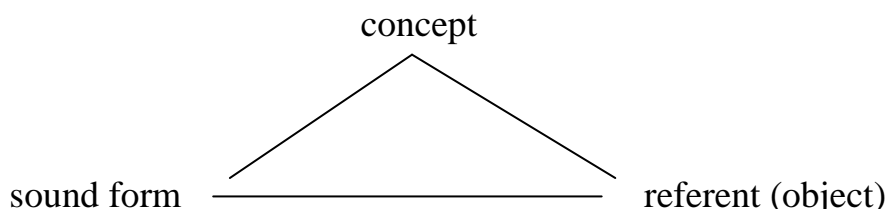
Ex. if we want to know the meaning of the word «apple» we must make a situation for it.

Some linguists say that the meaning is the realization of the notion by means of a definite language system (by a linguistic aspect).

So the term «meaning» is a subject of discussion among the linguists. There are two main approaches to the study of the meaning of a word.

1) Referential approach, 2) functional approach.

The referential approach treats the meaning of a word as a relation between the object (the referent), notion and its name (the word)



ex. *dove*.

As can be seen from the diagram the sound form of the word (ex. «dove») is connected with our concept of the bird which it denotes and through it with the referent. Treating the meaning of a word by the referential approach is not quite clear. This point of view can hardly be accepted because meaning is not identical with the referent, there are words which do not denote a referent, ex. angel [eind3il] Besides one and the same referent may be denoted by different words.

The functional approach treats the meaning as the relation of one word to another. By this approach the meaning can be studied only through context, through its relation to other words. Ex. to take the tram (a taxi), to take off, to take care of, to take ill, to take a degree, to take cold, to take it easy, to take it easy, to take on, to take place, to take tea, to take a bath, to take five minutes, to take notice, to take part in, to take a book, etc.

to make	a table	to	look	forward
	a teacher			at
	smb do			after
	out			for
	up			through
	up one's mind			pale
				like.

There are two main types of meaning:

1) the grammatical meaning, 2. the lexical meaning.

The grammatical meaning is the formal meaning of a word. It is defined as the meaning belonging to the lexico-grammatical classes and grammatical categories. It is expressed by the word's form. Every word belongs to a definite part of speech and every part of speech has a certain grammatical categories. Ex. verbs have tense, voice, mood, person etc. Nouns have the categories of case, number etc. Ex. the words «asked», «thought», «talked», «took, ran» have the grammatical meaning of tense. The grammatical meaning unites words into big groups such as parts of speech.

The lexical meaning is the material meaning of a word. This is a meaning which gives the concept of a word. By the lexical meaning the word expresses the basic properties of the thing the word denotes.

The *lexical meaning* of a word falls into two:

1) *the denotational meaning*, 2) *the connotational meaning*.

Denotational meaning makes communication possible because words denote things, concepts, they name them. Ex. the denotational meaning of the word «table» is a piece of furniture consisting of a flat top with four supports (called legs). *The connotational meaning* is a meaning which has a stylistic shade. It serves to express all sorts of emotions, expressiveness. Connotation may be shortly defined as emotional and evaluative component of the lexical meaning, Comparing the meanings of English words «well-known», «famous», «notorious» we see that all these words express the denotational meaning «widely known». But the word «famous» has a positive evaluative meaning and «notorious» has a negative evaluation. So, the words «well-known», «famous», «notorious» differ in their emotional colouring and evaluation.

Connotational meaning consists of such constituents as: *emotion, evaluation* and *intensity (intensifying connotation)*. The word takes the emotional connotation in contexts corresponding to emotional situations. The denotational meaning is associated with emotions (ex. He besought a favour of the judge: Here the word «beseech» means «to ask eagerly and also anxiously»).

Evaluative connotation denotes approval or disapproval relations to the thing or phenomena, Ex. colt a young male horse used for a young inexperienced person; pup- a young dog used for a person. These words have negative evaluation. But in English we have words which have positive evaluation (ex. *bunny* – кролик (коян), *bunting-лапочка* (жаным)).

Intensifying connotational is the reinforcement of the sing: it indicates the special importance of the thing expressed. Ex. *awfully glad, terribly important*.

The connotational meaning may be expressed also either in the emotive charge or in stylistic reference.

Ex. «*aunt*» and «*auntie*». These words have the same denotational meaning but the word «*aunt*» has no emotive charge but «*auntie*» has it.

Stylistically words can be subdivided into literary, neutral and colloquial layers. Neutral words are words of general use. Ex. the words «to begin» (начинать) and «to commence»(начинать) «*dad*» and «*father*» have the same denotational meanings but «to begin» and «*father*» are stylistically neutral words, whereas «*dad*» is a colloquial word and «*to commence*» stylistically is a literary word.

Besides the lexical and grammatical meanings we can observe differential, functional and distributional meanings of a word. Differential meaning is the

semantic component that serves to distinguish one word from other in words containing the same (identical) morphemes.

Ex. «*note-book*». The morpheme «note» serves to distinguish the word from other words: exercise-book, copy-book or: bookshelf, bookcase. The functional meaning may be seen in derivational morphemes. If we see the words with the suffixes *-ment, -er, -ity, -or*, we say that they are nouns.

Eg. *establishment, plurality, teacher, translator, sailor*.

If *-ful, -less, -able, -al* etc. are present in words we say adjectives. Ex. *helpful, handless, guiltless, readable, national, writable, operational, operable, proposal*.

The distributional meaning is found in all words having more than one morpheme. It is found in the arrangement and order of morphemes making up the word.

Ex. «teacher» but not*erteach. «boyishness» but not *nessboyish.

Different types of the lexical meaning of one and the same word are considered its lexico-semantic variants. Lexico-semantic variants in their correlations and interconnection form the semantic structure of the word. In the semantic structure of the word there is a special information on the members and the conditions of communication. The intercourse and personal contacts in real situations may reveal the pragmatic aspect of the lexical meaning of the word.

Ex. «Hallo» is used in unofficial situations giving a signal at the same time to the friendly relations of the members of the communication.

The meaning of a word may be realized by its structure. A direct connection between the structural pattern of the word and its meaning is called the motivation of a word.

Motivation may be morphological, phonetic and semantic.

The relationship between morphemic structure and meaning is called morphological motivation. From this point of view the words may be motivated and non-motivated. Ex. sing, tell, eat, open, read, go are non-motivated words because each of them have simple stem and morpheme. If we can see a direct connection between the structural pattern of the word and its meaning we say that this word is motivated.

So in most cases the derived and compound words are motivated and simple words are non-motivated. Ex. eatable, readable, reader, doll-faced, singer are motivated but eat, read doll, sing are non-motivated: ring, finger are non-motivated but finger-ring is motivated. The words may be partially motivated. Ex. «cranberry» is partially motivated because the morpheme «cran» has no meaning.

If we see the connection between the phonetic structure of a word and its meaning we say that the word is phonetically motivated. Ex. cuckoo, boom, cock-a doodle-doo, bow-wow, mew-mew, etc.

When the meaning of a word is metaphorically extended or when a word is used as a metaphorically extension of the central meaning we say the word is semantically motivated.

Ex. «He is my mother». Here «mother» is used metaphorically, the whole sentence means that « he looks after me like my mother». So the word « mother» is semantically motivated. «He is a fox». («He is cunning»), fox is semantically motivated.

We must differ two approaches to the study of motivation; 1) Diachronic, 2) synchronic.

Ex. the word «essex», «norfolk», «sutton» were non-motivated in old English. But «East-Saxon», «North+Folk», «South Town» in Modern English are motivated. If we compare the motivation of words in different languages it may differ considerably.

Ex. long- haired- длинноволосый - motivated in 3 languages. But «overcoat»-is motivated in English, «пальто»-non-motivated, «curtain»-non-motivated, «занавес»-motivated, «перде» -non-motivated.

Word meaning is represented by different types of meaning: grammatical, lexical, lexico-grammatical. ***Grammatical meaning*** is the component of word meaning, recurrent in identical sets of individual forms of different words. It is an expression in speech of relationships between words based on contrastive features of arrangements in which they occur. Lexico-grammatical meaning is the common denominator of all the meanings of the words belonging to a certain lexico-grammatical class or group of words. ***Lexical meaning*** is the meaning proper to the word as a linguistic unit. ***Lexical meaning*** is the component of word meaning recurrent in all the forms of the word and in all the possible distributions of these forms. The lexical meaning of the word is individual and different for each separate word.

The main components of lexical meaning are: ***denotational (denotative)***, ***connotational (connotative)*** and ***pragmatic***. ***The denotational meaning*** of words is the same for all the speakers. It makes communication possible, because it is the realization of the concept by means of the given language. ***The connotational meaning*** is optional. It conveys the speaker's attitude toward what he is speaking about. There are ***4 main types of connotations*** which may occur in a word in different combinations: ***emotional, evaluative, intensifying (emphatic or expressive), stylistic***. In fact, the stylistic connotation participates in shaping the pragmatic aspect of lexical meaning dealing with the register of communication, characterizing the participants. The pragmatic aspect of lexical meaning is the part of meaning, that conveys information on the situation of communication. The pragmatic aspect of lexical meaning is closely connected with the ethno-cultural component some lexical units possess.

LEXICAL MEANING - NOTION

The lexical meaning of a word is the realization of a notion by means of a definite language system. A word is a language unit, while a notion is a unit of thinking. A notion cannot exist without a word expressing it in the language, but there are words which do not express any notion but have a lexical meaning. Interjections express emotions but not notions, but they have lexical meanings, e.g. *Alas!* /disappointment/, *Oh, my buttons!* /surprise/ etc. There are also words which express both, notions and emotions, e.g. *girlie, a pig* /when used metaphorically/.

The term «*notion*» was introduced into lexicology from logics. A notion denotes the reflection in the mind of real objects and phenomena in their relations. Notions, as a rule, are international, especially with the nations of the same cultural level. While meanings can be nationally limited. Grouping of meanings in the semantic structure of a word is determined by the whole system of every language. E.g. the English verb «*go*» and its Russian equivalent «*идти*» have some meanings which coincide: to move from place to place, to extend /the road goes to London/, to work /Is your watch going?/. On the other hand, they have different meanings: in Russian we say: «*Вот он идет*», in English we use the verb «*come*» in this case. In English we use the verb «*go*» in the combinations: «*to go by bus*», «*to go by train*» etc. In Russian in these cases we use the verb «*ехать*».

The number of meanings does not correspond to the number of words, neither does the number of notions. Their distribution in relation to words is peculiar in every language. The Russian has two words for the English «*man*»: «*мужчина*» and «*человек*». In English, however, «*man*» cannot be applied to a female person. We say in Russian: «*Она хороший человек*». In English we use the word «*person*» /*She is a good person*/

Development of lexical meanings in any language is influenced by the whole network of ties and relations between words and other aspects of the language.

POLYSEMY

The word «*polysemy*» means «plurality of meanings». It exists only in the language, not in speech. A word which has more than one meaning is called polysemantic.

Different meanings of a polysemantic word may come together due to the proximity of notions which they express. E.g. the word «*blanket*» has the following meanings: *a woolen covering used on beds, a covering for keeping a horse warm, a covering of any kind /a blanket of snow/, covering all or most cases* /used attributively/, e.g. we can say «*a blanket insurance policy*».

There are some words in the language which are monosemantic, such as most terms, /*synonym, molecule, bronchitis*/, some pronouns /*this, my, both*/, numerals.

There are two processes of the semantic development of a word: **radiation** and **concatenation**. In cases of radiation the primary meaning stands in the centre and the secondary meanings proceed out of it like rays. Each secondary meaning can be traced to the primary meaning. E.g. in the word «*face*» the primary meaning denotes «*the front part of the human head*» connected with the front position the meanings: *the front parts of a watch, the front part of a building, the front part of a playing card* were formed.

Connected with the word «*face*» itself the meanings: expressions of the face, outward appearance are formed.

In cases of concatenation secondary meanings of a word develop like a chain. In such cases it is difficult to trace some meanings to the primary one. E.g. in the word «*crust*» the primary meaning «*hard outer part of bread*» developed a secondary meaning «*hard part of anything /a pie, a cake/*», then the meaning «*harder layer over soft snow*» was developed, then «*a sullen gloomy person*», then «*impudence*» were developed. Here the last meanings have nothing to do with the primary ones. In such cases homonyms appear in the language. It is called **the split of polysemy**.

In most cases in the semantic development of a word both ways of semantic development are combined.

The term “polysemy” means plurality of meanings. Polysemy is the ability of a word to have more than one meaning. The bulk of English words are polysemantic. Polysemy exists only in language, not in speech. A word in one of its meanings in which it is used in speech is called a lexico-semantic variant (LSV). The meanings, or lexico-semantic variants, of a polysemantic word form its semantic structure. The semantic structure of a polysemantic word presents a set of interrelated and interdependent lexico-semantic variants. There are two main processes of the semantic development of a word: radiation and concatenation. The analysis of the number and types of LSVs and interrelations between the LSVs of a polysemantic word is called a lexico-semantic analysis. The seme is the smallest further indivisible unit of meaning. The analysis of the meaning into these components, or semes, is called a componential analysis.

Polysemy is the existence within one word of several connected meanings. These meanings appeared as a result of the development and change of its original meaning. Words are divided into two: polysemantic and monosemantic words. Polysemantic words are words which have more than two meanings. Monosemantic words have only one meaning. Ex. The word «*man*» has eleven meanings in modern English.

1) человек, 2) адвокат, 3) мужчина, 4) мужественный человек, 5) человечество, 6) слуга, 7) рабочий, 8) муж, 9) рядовые матросы, 10) вассал, 11) пешка.

The word «*room*» has 3 meanings:

1) комната, 2) место, 3) возможность.

Ex. *She is the picture of her mother, to form a clear picture of smith, living pictures in the air.*

Monosemantic words are mostly scientific terms: hydrogen, laser, etc. Polysemy may be analyzed from two ways: diachronically and synchronically. If polysemy is analyzed diachronically it is understood as the development of the semantic structure of the word or we establish how the meaning of the word has changed whether it has got new meanings in the course of the development of the language. From the historical point of view one of the meanings of the word will be **primary meaning**; that is such a meaning of a word which was first registered. All other meanings are secondary meanings. The term **secondary meaning** shows that the meaning appeared in the language after the primary meaning was already established.

Ex. the primary meaning of the word «fox» is *лиса, лисица* but such meanings of this word as *лисий мех, первокурсник* are secondary meanings. Here are other examples: *eye* the primary meaning is «глаз», secondary is *взгляд, глазок в двери, ушко иголки, петельки*; «father» - the primary meaning is *отец*, secondary is *старейший член, родоначальник, духовный отец* etc. «fish» - the primary meaning is *рыба*, secondary is *нахал, наглец*.

Synchronically polysemy is understood as the coexistence of various meanings of the word at a certain historical period of the development of English.

Synchronically the main problem of polysemy is to establish whether all the meanings of a word are equally important. We divide the meanings of a word into two: the major (or basic) meaning of a word and the minor meaning. In most cases the surrounding context points out quite clearly which of the meanings of a word is intended.

Ex. 1. *It is a fox.* Here «it» shows that the word «fox» is used in the meaning «лиса».

2. *He is a fox.* The presence of «he» shows that «fox» is in the meaning of «хитрый».

3. *She will fox him.* We find the meaning from the position of «fox». It stands after the auxiliary verb «will» and the direct object «him». Here it is used in the meaning of *обманывать*.

The meaning which is not dependent on context is the major (or basic) meaning of the word and the meanings which are dependent on the context are minor meanings. By context we mean the minimal stretch of speech determining each individual meaning of the word. Ex. «to make» means «to produce smth». This is its basic meaning but other meanings are minor meanings because they can be found only in a context.

The meaning of a word may be determined either by its lexical or by its grammatical context.

Ex. the verb «to take» in such lexical distributions as: *take+tea (coffee, medicine)* -its meaning is *пить*; *take+care* -*заботиться*; *take+off* - *раздеваться* ; *to take + tram, the metro, a bus-* *сесть на ...*; The meaning «*больной*» of the adjective «*ill*» is brought out only by a syntactical pattern in which «*ill*» is used as a predicative (ex. *the man is ill*) while the syntactical pattern in which the word «*ill*» is used as an attribute, brings out the meaning- *плохой, вредный, an ill man - плохой человек.*

The comparative study of the frequency value of different meanings of polysemantic words shows that the frequency value of individual meanings is different. Ex. the meaning of the word «*table*»- *стол* (a piece of furniture) possesses the highest frequency value and comprises 52 % of all uses of this word. The meanings of polysemantic words have different stylistic references. Ex. «*jerk*» in the meaning of «*sudden movement*» belongs to a neutral style but in the meaning of «*an odd person*» it is slang (mostly expressive and ironical words). Stylistically neutral meanings are very frequent. In any historical period as a result of semantic development the secondary meaning of the word may become the central (major meaning of the word). Ex. revolution M. E. 1360-1460 meant «*the revolving motion of celestial bodies*», the meaning «*революция*» was the secondary, minor meaning. Now the meaning «*революция*» is the major meaning.

The semantic structure of a word is the system and unity of all the types of meaning that a certain word possesses. The semantic structure has the national character.

The semantic structure of correlated words of two different languages can never cover each other. The major meaning is in most cases identical in two languages but others usually differ. The meaning «*male child*» can be found both in the English word «*boy*».

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Questions for discussion:

1. Give the definition of the words “Semasiology”, “polysemy”.
2. What is understood by the diachronically analysis of polysemy?
3. What is understood by the synchronically analysis of polysemy?
4. What is understood by the primary meaning of a word? Secondary meaning of a word?

Chapter 7

THE DEVELOPMENT AND CHANGE OF THE SEMANTIC STRUCTURE OF THE WORD

1. Causes of the semantic change.
2. The main semantic processes of the development and change of meaning:
 - specialization, or narrowing of meaning
 - generalization, or widening of meaning
 - elevation, or amelioration of meaning
 - degradation, or degeneration, or pejoration of meaning
 - metaphoric and metonymic transfers

During the historical development of the English language many words have changed their semantic structure. *The causes of semantic changes* are grouped under two headings: *extralinguistic* and *linguistic*. *The linguistic causes* of the semantic change include differentiation of synonyms, phraseological connections, or fixed context, and ellipsis.

The main semantic processes of the development and change of meaning are: *specialization, or narrowing; generalization, or widening of meaning; elevation, or amelioration; degradation, or degeneration, or pejoration of meaning; metaphoric and metonymic transfers.*

Specialization (narrowing) of meaning indicates that the word passes from general usage and acquires some special meaning. When the meaning is specialized, the scope of the notion is narrowed, i.e. the word can name fewer objects, it has fewer referents, but the content of the notion is enriched, the notion will include a greater number of relevant features. *Generalization (widening) of meaning* is the reverse to the former: the word having a special meaning due to extensive use gets widened in meaning. In case of generalization the scope of the new notion is wider than that of the original one, but the content of the notion becomes poorer.

Elevation (amelioration) and *degradation (pejoration)* of meaning are the semantic changes determined by social evaluation of the thing or phenomenon named and emotional tone. As the referent of the word comes up or down the social scale, its meaning is either elevated or becomes pejorative.

Transference of name based on similarity or likeness is called a metaphoric change of meaning (**metaphor**). *Metaphoric transference* may be based on: *similarity of appearance, position, movement, sound*, etc. *Metonymy* is the transference of name based on contiguity. Metonymic transference may be based on: using the name of a receptacle for its content, using the name of a place for its inhabitants, using the name of an instrument for its function or its user, etc.

The study of the semantic changes of the word shows that they occur in accordance with the development of human thought and society and serve the purpose of communication.

SEMANTIC CHANGES

The meaning of a word can change in the course of time. Changes of lexical meanings can be proved by comparing contexts of different times.

Transfer of the meaning is called *lexico-semantic word-building*. In such cases the outer aspect of a word does not change.

The causes of semantic changes can be *extra-linguistic* and *linguistic*, e.g. the change of the lexical meaning of the noun «pen» was due to extra-linguistic causes. Primarily «pen» comes back to the Latin word «penna» (a feather of a bird). As people wrote with goose pens the name was transferred to steel pens which were later on used for writing. Still later any instrument for writing was called «a pen».

On the other hand causes can be *linguistic*, e.g. the conflict of synonyms when a perfect synonym of a native word is borrowed from some other language one of them may specialize in its meaning, e.g. the noun «tide» in Old English was polysemantic and denoted «time», «season», «hour». When the French words «time», «season», «hour» were borrowed into English they ousted the word «tide» in these meanings. It was specialized and now means «regular rise and fall of the sea caused by attraction of the moon». The meaning of a word can also change due to ellipsis, e.g. the word-group «a train of carriages» had the meaning of «a row of carriages», later on «of carriages» was dropped and the noun «train» changed its meaning, it is used now in the function and with the meaning of the whole word-group.

Semantic changes have been classified by different scientists. The most complete classification was suggested by a German scientist Herman Paul in his work «Prinzipien der Sprachgeschichte». It is based *on the logical principle*. He distinguishes two main ways where the semantic change is *gradual (specialization and generalization)*, two momentary conscious semantic

changes (*metaphor* and *metonymy*) and also secondary ways: *gradual* (*elevation* and *degradation*), *momentary* (*hyperbole* and *litotes*).

SPECIALIZATION

It is a gradual process when a word passes from a general sphere to some special sphere of communication, e.g. «case» has a general meaning «circumstances in which a person or a thing is». It is specialized in its meaning when used in law (a law suit), in grammar (a form in the paradigm of a noun), in medicine (a patient, an illness). The difference between these meanings is revealed in the context.

The meaning of a word can specialize when it remains in the general usage. It happens in the case of the conflict between two absolute synonyms when one of them must specialize in its meaning to remain in the language, e.g. the native word «meat» had the meaning «food», this meaning is preserved in the compound «sweetmeats». The meaning «edible flesh» was formed when the word «food», its absolute synonym, won in the conflict of absolute synonyms (both words are native). The English verb «starve» was specialized in its meaning after the Scandinavian verb «die» was borrowed into English. «Die» became the general verb with this meaning because in English there were the noun «death» and the adjective «dead». «Starve» got the meaning «to die of hunger».

The third way of specialization is the formation of Proper names from common nouns, it is often used in toponimics, e.g. *the City* - the business part of London, *Oxford* - university town in England, *the Tower* -originally a fortress and palace, later -a prison, now - a museum.

The fourth way of specialization is *ellipsis*. In such cases primarily we have a word-group of the type «attribute + noun», which is used constantly in a definite situation. Due to it the attribute can be dropped and the noun can get the meaning of the whole word-group, e.g. «room» originally meant «space», this meaning is retained in the adjective «roomy» and word combinations: «no room for», «to take room», «to take no room». The meaning of the word «room» was specialized because it was often used in the combinations: «dining room», «sleeping room» which meant «space for dining», «space for sleeping».

GENERALIZATION

It is a process contrary to specialization; in such cases the meaning of a word becomes more general in the course of time.

The transfer from a concrete meaning to an abstract one is most frequent, e.g. «ready» (a derivative from the verb «ridden» - «ride») meant «prepared for a ride», now its meaning is «prepared for anything». «Journey» was borrowed from French with the meaning «one day trip», now it means «a trip of any duration».

All *auxiliary verbs* are cases of generalization of their lexical meaning because they developed a grammatical meaning: «have», «be», «do», «shall», «will» when used as auxiliary verbs are devoid of their lexical meaning which they have when used as notional verbs or modal verbs, e.g. cf. «I have several books by this writer» and «I have read some books by this author». In the first sentence the verb «have» has the meaning «possess», in the second sentence it has no lexical meaning, and its grammatical meaning is to form Present Perfect.

METAPHOR

It is **a transfer of the meaning on the basis of comparison**. Herman Paul points out that *metaphor* can be based on different types of similarity:

a) similarity of shape, e.g. *head* (of a cabbage), *bottleneck*, *teeth* (of a saw, a comb);

b) similarity of position, e.g. *foot* (of a page, of a mountain), *head* (of a procession);

c) similarity of function, behaviour e.g. a *whip* (an official in the British Parliament whose duty is to see that members were present at the voting);

d) similarity of colour, e.g. *orange*, *hazel*, *chestnut* etc.

In some cases we have a complex similarity, e.g. *the leg of a table* has a similarity to *a human leg* in its shape, position and function.

Many metaphors are based on parts of a human body, e.g. *an eye of a needle*, *arms and mouth of a river*, *head of an army*.

A special type of metaphor is when Proper names become common nouns, e.g. *philistine* - a mercenary person, *vandals* - destructive people, *a Don Juan* - a lover of many women, etc.

METONYMY

It is a **transfer of the meaning on the basis of contiguity**.

There are different types of metonymy:

a) the material of which an object is made may become the name of the object, e.g. *a glass*, *boards*, *iron*, etc;

b) the name of the place may become the name of the people or of an object placed there, e.g. *the House* - members of Parliament, *Fleet Street* - bourgeois press, *the White House* - the Administration of the USA etc;

c) names of musical instruments may become names of musicians, e.g. *the violin*, *the saxophone*;

d) the name of some person may become a common noun, e.g. «*boycott*» was originally the name of an Irish family who were so much disliked by their neighbours that they did not mix with them, «*sandwich*» was named after Lord Sandwich who was a gambler. He did not want to interrupt his game and had his food brought to him while he was playing cards between two slices of bread not to soil his fingers.

e) names of inventors very often become terms to denote things they invented, e.g. «*watt*», «*ohm*», «*roentgen*», etc.

f) some geographical names can also become common nouns through metonymy, e.g. *Holland* (linen fabrics), *Brussels* (a special kind of carpets), *china* (porcelain), *astrakhan* (a sheep fur), etc.

ELEVATION

It is a transfer of the meaning when it becomes better in the course of time, e.g. «*knight*» originally meant «*a boy*», then «*a young servant*», then «*a military servant*», then «*a noble man*». Now it is a title of nobility given to outstanding people; «*marshal*» originally meant «*a horse man*» now it is the highest military rank etc.

DEGRADATION

It is a transfer of the meaning when it becomes worse in the course of time. It is usually connected with nouns denoting common people, e.g. «*villain*» originally meant «*working on a villa*» now it means «*a scoundrel*».

HYPERBOLE

It is a transfer of the meaning when the speaker uses exaggeration, e.g. «*to hate*» (doing something), (not to see somebody) «*for ages*». Hyperbole is often used to form phraseological units, e.g. «*to make a mountain out of a molehill*», «*to split hairs*» etc.

LITOTE

It is a transfer of the meaning when the speaker expresses affirmative with the negative or vice versa, e.g. *not bad*, *no coward*, etc.

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Questions for discussion:

1. What is understood by the semantic change?
2. What principle is the classification of the semantic changes given by the German scientist Herman Pau based on?
3. Give the definition and examples of “metaphor”, “metonymy”.

Chapter 8

SEMANTIC PARADIGMATIC RELATIONS OF WORDS IN ENGLISH HOMONYMS IN ENGLISH

1. Definition of homonyms
2. Causes of homonymy and sources of homonyms in English
3. Classification of homonyms
4. The problem of homonymy in English

Homonymy may be described as the sameness of form associated with the difference of meaning. Homonyms are words identical in sound and/or in spelling but different in meaning. The intense development of homonymy in English is due to the monosyllabic character of its vocabulary and the analytical structure of the English language. Different sources of homonymy in English may be subdivided into two main groups: 1) homonymy which developed due to convergent sound development (etymological, or heterogeneous homonyms); 2) homonymy which developed from polysemy through divergent sense development. In other terms this case is called disintegration or split of polysemy (semantic or homogeneous homonyms). The majority of homonyms in English are etymologically different.

The traditional classification of homonyms recognizes: perfect homonyms, or homonyms proper, homophones, homographs. Besides the traditional classification of homonyms there are other ways of classifying homonyms. 1. All the cases of homonymy may be divided into full homonymy, or the homonymy of words having identical paradigms, and partial homonymy, or the homonymy of word-forms. 2. According to Professor Smirnitsky's classification all homonyms may be divided into lexical homonyms which differ only in lexical meaning; lexico-grammatical homonyms which differ both in lexical and in grammatical meanings; grammatical homonyms which differ only in grammatical meaning. 3. Homonyms belonging to one and the same part of speech are called simple. Complex homonyms are those belonging to different parts of speech.

One of the most debatable problems in Semasiology is the demarcation line between polysemy and homonymy, i.e. between different meanings of a polysemantic word and the meanings of different homonymous words.

To solve the problem a number of criteria may be applied: etymological and semantic criteria and the formal criteria of distribution, spelling and pronunciation. Sometimes only the combination of several criteria may solve the problem. Besides, linguists try to develop new more efficient criteria and methods of differentiating homonymy and polysemy.

HOMONYMS

Homonyms are words different in meaning but identical in sound or spelling, or both in sound and spelling.

Homonyms can appear in the language not only as the result of the split of polysemy, but also as the result of leveling of grammar inflexions, when different parts of speech become identical in their outer aspect, e.g. «*care*» from «*caru*» and «*care*» from «*carian*». They can be also formed by means of conversion, e.g. «*to slim*» from «*slim*», «*to water*» from «*water*».

They can be formed with the help of the same suffix from the same stem, e.g. «*reader*» / *a person who reads and a book for reading*/.

Homonyms can also appear in the language accidentally, when two words coincide in their development, e.g. two native words can coincide in their outer aspects: «*to bear*» from «*beran*»/to carry/ and «*bear*» from «*bera*»/an animal/. A native word and a borrowing can coincide in their outer aspects, e.g. «*fair*» from Latin «*feria*» and «*fair*» from native «*fager*» /blond/. Two borrowings can coincide e.g. «*base*» from the French «*base*» /Latin basis/ and «*base*» /low/ from the Latin «*bas*» /Italian «*basso*»/.

Homonyms can develop through shortening of different words, e.g. «*cab*» from «*cabriolet*», «*cabbage*», «*cabin*».

Classifications of homonyms

Walter Skeat classified homonyms according to their spelling and sound forms and he pointed out three groups: perfect homonyms that is words identical in sound and spelling, such as: «*school*» - «*косяк рыбы*» and «*школа*» ; homographs, that is words with the same spelling but pronounced differently, e.g. «*bow*» -/bau/ - «*поклон*» and /bou/ - «*лук*»; homophones that is words pronounced identically but spelled differently, e.g. «*night*» - «*ночь*» and «*knight*» - «*рыцарь*».

Another classification was suggested by A.I Smirnitsky. He added to Skeat's classification one more criterion: **grammatical meaning**. He subdivided the group of perfect homonyms in Skeat's classification into two types of homonyms: perfect which are identical in their spelling, pronunciation and their grammar form, such as: «*spring*» in the meanings: *the season of the year, a leap, a source*, and homofoms which coincide in their spelling and pronunciation but have different grammatical meaning, e.g. «*reading*» - *Present Participle, Gerund, Verbal noun, to lobby - lobby*.

A more detailed classification was given by I.V. Arnold. She classified only perfect homonyms and suggested four criteria of their classification: lexical meaning, grammatical meaning, basic forms and paradigms.

According to these criteria I.V. Arnold pointed out the following groups: a) homonyms identical in their grammatical meanings, basic forms and paradigms and different in their lexical meanings, e.g. «*board*» in the meanings «*a council*»

and «*a piece of wood sawn thin*»; b) homonyms identical in their grammatical meanings and basic forms, different in their lexical meanings and paradigms, e.g. *to lie - lied - lied*, and *to lie - lay - lain*; c) homonyms different in their lexical meanings, grammatical meanings, paradigms, but coinciding in their basic forms, e.g. «*light*» / «*lights*»/, «*light*» / «*lighter*», «*lightest*»/; d) homonyms different in their lexical meanings, grammatical meanings, in their basic forms and paradigms, but coinciding in one of the forms of their paradigms, e.g. «*a bit*» and «*bit*» (from «*to bite*»).

In I. V. Arnold's classification there are also patterned homonyms, which, differing from other homonyms, have a common component in their lexical meanings. These are homonyms formed either by means of conversion, or by leveling of grammar inflexions. These homonyms are different in their grammar meanings, in their paradigms, identical in their basic forms, e.g. «*warm*» - «*to warm*». Here we can also have unchangeable patterned homonyms which have identical basic forms, different grammatical meanings, a common component in their lexical meanings, e.g. «*before*» an adverb, a conjunction, a preposition. There are also homonyms among unchangeable words which are different in their lexical and grammatical meanings, identical in their basic forms, e.g. «*for*» - «*для*» and «*for*» - «*ибо*».

Two or more words identical in sound and spelling but different in meaning are called homonyms.

Ex. ball₁-бал, ball₂-мяч
 toast₁- поджаривать хлеб
 toast₂- провозглашать тост
 rose₁- роза (роза)
 Rose₂- имя девушки
 sound₁- звук
 sound₂- пролив
 bark₁-лай собаки
 bark₂- плывущий корабль.

Homonyms must be studied diachronically and synchronically. Diachronically we study the origin of homonyms, the sources of homonyms, the time of their appearance in the language. Synchronically we analyze the present peculiarities of homonyms, their classification etc.

Homonyms are classified into: 1) homonyms proper; 2) homophones; 3) homographs.

Homonyms proper are words identical in pronunciation and spelling and different in meaning.

Ex. fast₁ -quickly, fast₂- to do smth. quickly.
 back₁- назад
 back₂- спина

spring₁- пружина

spring₂-весна

spring₃- родник

Homophones are words of the same sound form but of different spelling and meaning.

Ex. air- воздух

him -hymn

heir - наследник knight -night

pail- ведро piece- peace

pale- бледный write- right

son- сын see- sea

sun- солнце read- reed

pray- prey.

Homographs are words which are different in sound and in meaning but identical in spelling.

Ex. lead [li:d]

lead [led]

tear [tɛ1]

tear [ti1]

wind [wind]

wind [waind]

bow [bou]

bow [bau].

Prof. Smirnitsky has suggested his classification of homonyms based on the lexico-grammatical principle.

He distinguished the following types of homonyms:

1) lexical homonyms are those words which belong to one part of speech but they differ only in their lexical meaning.

Ex. seal n -a sea animal

seal n - a design printed on paper, stamp.

hair_n- hare_n, ball_n - ball_n

2) lexico-grammatical homonyms are those words which differ in their lexical and grammatical meanings.

Ex. sea to see seal n - a sea animal to seal v - to close tightly, work n - to work v, well adv - well n-колодец (ЗудыЗ). There may be cases when lexico-grammatical homonyms are observed within the same part of speech.

Ex. The words «found» (past tense of «to find») and «found (present tense of ‘to found») differ both grammatically and lexically.

3) grammatical homonymy is the homonymy of the different word forms of one and the same word (part of speech).

Ex. boys - boy's, asked,- past tense asked, p.

There are some of homonyms. They are:

1) divergent meanings development of one polysemantic word. Different meanings of the same word move so far away from each other (differ from each other) and they become two different word Ex. spring₁-пружина, spring₂-родник, spring₃-весна, can be etymologically traced back to the same source,

«flower» and «flour» which originally were one word (M . E . flour). The meaning was « the flower» and « the finest part of wheat», now they are different words.

2) many homonyms came as a result of converging sound development. Ex. OE ic and OE aȝe have become identical in pronunciation. I pron and eye (n), love (v) - love n (OE lufu-lufian)

3) many homonyms arose from conversion, they have related meanings. Ex. paper- to paper, support- to support.

Some linguists think that converted pairs must not be included in homonyms. This question demands further investigation.

4) The formation of different grammatical forms may cause homonyms: girl's-girls.

5) borrowed words may become homonyms as a result of phonetic convergence.

Ex. Scandinavian « ras» and French rase are homonymous in English: rase-сорязание, rase- рейс

case₁-падеж, case₂-чемодан, case₃-случай

Homonymy and polysemy are different categories. In polysemy we deal with the different meanings of the same word. In homonymy we have different words which have their own meanings. The problem of difference between polysemy and homonymy is a subject of discussion among the linguists.

Some scientists say that the substitution of different meanings of words by the synonyms may help to differ homonyms from polysemantic words.

Ex. voice₁-sounds uttered in speaking (sound)

voice₂- mode of uttering sounds in speaking (sound)

voice₃-the vibration of the vocal cords in sounds uttered (sound)

voice₄ -the form of the verb that express the relation of the subject to the action.

voice₁-voice₂-voice₃- are not homonyms although they have different meaning because they can be substituted by the synonym « sound ». As far as «voice₄» is concerned it is a homonym because it can't be substituted by the word «sound». V . Abeyev gave etymological criterion. He says homonyms are words which have different sources and only coincided phonetically.

Ex. rase₁(O. N. ras), (F. rase). I(O, E. ic)-eye(O, E.eaȝe)

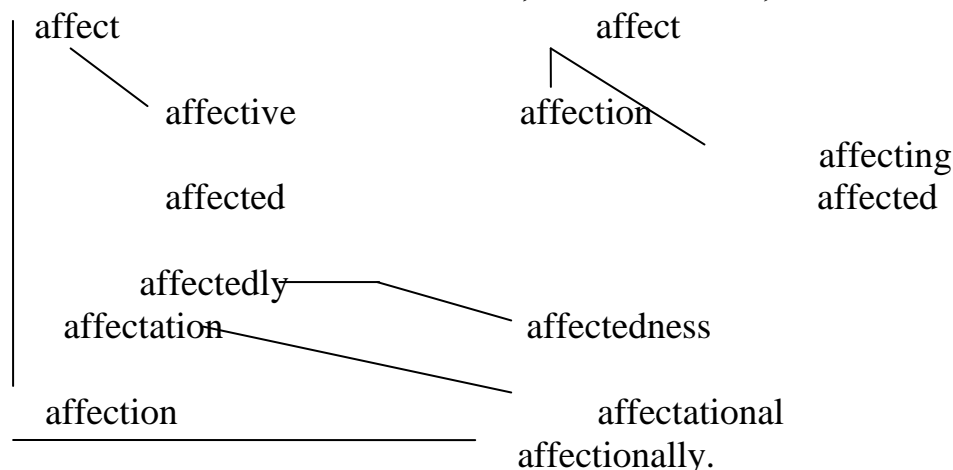
So this question demands further investigation.

In Modern English homonyms are spread. Homonymic relation can be found not only in words but also: 1) between morphemes, ex. It's raining. Flattering won't help. Fill your glasses. All is well that ends well: 2) between words and morphemes. Ex. He couldn't get over the shock. The watch is shockproof; 3) between words and word-combinations. Ex. Don't run away. The

runaway was caught; 4) between words and sentences. Ex. I don't care. He took and I don't care attitude.

Homonyms differ in their word formational activity.

Ex. «affect₁»-has 8 derivatives whereas, «affect₂» has 3;



The interdependence and interrelations of different peculiarities of homonymic pairs demand further investigation.

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Questions for discussion:

1. Which words do we call homonyms?
2. Why can't homonyms be regarded as expressive means of the language?
3. What is the traditional classification of homonyms? Illustrate your answer with examples.
4. What are the distinctive features of the classification of homonyms suggested by Professor A. I. Smirnitsky?
5. What types of homonymy do you know?

Chapter 9

THE VOCABULARY OF A LANGUAGE AS A SYSTEM SYNONYMS AND ANTONYMS IN ENGLISH. HYPONYMS

1. Synonyms in English:

- a) Synonyms and synonymic sets, functions of synonyms in speech
 - b) Types of synonyms
 - c) Sources of synonyms in English
 - d) Euphemisms as a specific type of synonyms
2. Antonyms, the definition and classification
 3. Hyponyms in English
 4. Neologisms, archaisms and obsolete words.
 5. Emotionally coloured words.
 6. Semantic fields.

Words can be classified in different ways. The classification of words may be based upon: similarity of meanings and polarity of meanings of words. The similarity of meanings is found in synonymic groups.

Synonyms are words different in their outer aspects, but identical or similar in their inner aspects. In English there are a lot of synonyms, because there are many borrowings, e.g. *hearty* / *native* - *cordial* / *borrowing*/. After a word is borrowed it undergoes desynonymization, because absolute synonyms are unnecessary for a language. However, there are some absolute synonyms in the language, which have exactly the same meaning and belong to the same style, e.g. *to moan*, *to groan*; *homeland*, *motherland* etc.

In cases of desynonymization one of the absolute synonyms can specialize in its meaning and we get semantic synonyms, e.g. «*city*» /borrowed/, «*town*» /native/. The French borrowing «*city*» is specialized. In other cases native words can be specialized in their meanings, e.g. «*stool*» /native/, «*chair*» /French/.

Sometimes one of the absolute synonyms is specialized in its usage and we get stylistic synonyms, e.g. «*to begin*» / native/, «*to commence*» /borrowing/. Here the French word is specialized. In some cases the native word is specialized, e.g. «*welkin*» /bookish/, «*sky*» /neutral/.

Stylistic synonyms can also appear by means of abbreviation. In most cases the abbreviated form belongs to the colloquial style, and the full form to the neutral style, e.g. «*examination*», «*exam*».

Among stylistic synonyms we can point out a special group of words which are called euphemisms. These are words used to substitute some unpleasant or offensive words, e.g. «*the late*» instead of «*dead*», «*to perspire*» instead of «*to sweat*» etc.

There are also **phraseological synonyms**; these words are identical in their meanings and styles but different in their combining with other words in the sentence, e.g. «*to be late for a lecture*» but «*to miss the train*», «*to visit museums*» but «*to attend lectures*» etc.

In each group of synonyms there is a word with the most general meaning, which can substitute any word in the group, e.g. «*piece*» is the synonymic

dominant in the group «*slice*», «*lump*», «*morsel*». The verb «*to look at*» is the synonymic dominant in the group «*to stare*», «*to glance*», «*and to peep*». The adjective «*red*» is the synonymic dominant in the group «*purple*», «*scarlet*», «*crimson*».

When speaking about the sources of synonyms, besides desynonymization and abbreviation, we can also mention the formation of phrasal verbs, e.g. «*to give up*» - «*to abandon*», «*to cut down*» - «*to diminish*».

Synonyms are words belonging to the same part of speech different in morphemic composition and phonemic shape but identical or similar in meaning and interchangeable at least in some contexts. Ex. jump, hop, leap, spring, defend, protect, guard shield; absence, privation, lack, want; error, mistake; go, leave, depart. Complete synonyms do not exist. Bloomfield says each linguistic form has a constant and specific meaning.

Polysemantic words can be synonymous in all their meanings. Ex. The verb «look» is a synonym of see, watch, observe, in the meaning of «смотреть» but in another of its meaning it is synonymous with the verbs seem, appear (to look pale).

Each synonymic group contains one word the meaning of which has no additional connotational (it can be used in different styles). This word is called a synonymic dominant. Ex. In the group: change, alter, very, modify the word «change» is the synonymic dominant.

Synonyms may be divided into:

1) ideographic synonyms; 2) stylistic synonyms.

Synonyms which differ in their denotational meanings are called ideographic synonyms. If the difference lies in their stylistic difference the synonyms are said to be stylistic. Ex. beautiful (usually about girls) and handsome (usually about men). These are ideographic synonyms but «to die- to pass away», «to begin - to commence», «to see - to behold», «to end - to complete», «horse - steed» are stylistic synonyms.

neutral words	stylistically coloured words
to see	to behold (bookish)
a girl	a maiden (poetic)
money	dough (colloquial)
food	grub (colloquial)
to live	to hand out (colloquial)

Prof. Aznaurova E. S. points out that stylistic synonyms carry emotional evaluative information.

Synonyms are distributionally different words. Ex. «too», «also» «as well» are synonyms. They always occur in different surroundings. The synonyms differ in their collocability. Ex. We compare the collocability of synonyms «to book» and «to buy».

possible	impossible
to book in advance	to buy in advance
to book somebody	to buy somebody
to book seats	to buy seats
to buy cheaply	to book cheaply
to buy from a person	to book from a person
to buy a house	to book a house

The main sources of synonyms are:

1) borrowings: to ask - to question: (F) - to interrogate. (L) to begin (A, S) - to commence (F) -to initiate (L) -rise (F) - ascend (L);

2) The formation of verb+ adverb (V+adv) combinations like «have a smoke».

to rest - to have a rest, to swim- to have a swim, to smoke - to have a smoke;

3) shortening: vacation - vac, doctor -doc, sister -sis;

4) conversion: laughter -laugh, 5) many set expressions consisting of a verb with a postpositive element form synonyms: ex. to choose - to pick out, to continue to go on, to return - to bring back.

6) euphemisms, i. e. words which are used instead of unpleasant words: ex: drunk-merry, lodger-paying guest, to die - to go away, commandment - command.

7) slang. i. e. emotionally coloured words which are the secondary names of objects.

Ex. сокрушатель, - crusher (полицейский), тюрьма - can (дословно консервная банка), убить - to bump off - (дословно пристукнуть), казнить - to fry - (дословно зажарить), голова - bean (дословно боб) или mug (дословно кружка).

Synonyms are usually defined as words similar in meaning, as words, that express the same idea. English is very rich in synonyms. A group of synonyms is called a synonymic set. Each synonymic set has a word which expresses the most general idea and holds a commanding position over other words. It is called the synonymic dominant.

In traditional linguistics synonyms are defined on the basis of the notional criterion. According to it synonyms are “words of the same category of parts of speech conveying the same notion, but differing either in shades of meaning or in stylistic characteristics” (V.V. Vinogradov).

The definition of synonyms based on the semantic criterion runs as follows. Lexical synonyms are different words of the same part of speech (having the same grammatical distribution) which have some common denotational component(s) in their semantic structure, but differ either in some denotational

component(s) or in some connotational component(s) and thus usually have different lexical collocability (E.B. Cherkasskaya).

In modern research on synonyms the criterion of interchangeability is sometimes applied. According to it, synonyms are defined as words which are interchangeable at least in some contexts without any considerable alteration in denotational meaning. The application of this criterion is limited.

Synonyms have three main functions in speech: the function of substitution; the function of precision in meaning; the expressive, stylistic function.

Synonyms are traditionally divided into ideographic, stylistic and absolute.

The following points are usually considered as sources of synonyms: borrowings, dialectisms, word-building, euphemisms.

Antonyms are words belonging to the same part of speech, identical in style, expressing contrary or contradictory notions.

V.N. Comissarov in his dictionary of antonyms classified them into two groups: absolute or root antonyms /»late» - «early»/ and derivational antonyms / «to please» - «to displease»/. Absolute antonyms have different roots and derivational antonyms have the same roots but different affixes. In most cases negative prefixes form antonyms /*un-*, *dis-*, *non-*/. Sometimes they are formed by means of suffixes *-ful* and *-less*.

The number of antonyms with the suffixes *ful-* and *-less* is not very large, and sometimes even if we have a word with one of these suffixes its antonym is formed not by substituting *-ful* by *less-*, e.g. «*successful*» - »*unsuccessful*», «*selfless*» - «*selfish*». The same is true about antonyms with negative prefixes, e.g. «to man» is not an antonym of the word «to unman», «to disappoint» is not an antonym of the word «to appoint».

The difference between derivational and root antonyms is not only in their structure, but in semantics as well. Derivational antonyms express contradictory notions, one of them excludes the other, e.g. «*active*»- «*inactive*». Absolute antonyms express contrary notions. If some notions can be arranged in a group of more than two members, the most distant members of the group will be absolute antonyms, e.g. «*ugly*», «*plain*», «*good-looking*», «*pretty*», «*beautiful*», the antonyms are «*ugly*» and «*beautiful*».

Leonard Lipka in the book «Outline of English Lexicology» describes different types of oppositeness, and subdivides them into three types: a) *complementary*, e.g. *male -female, married -single*, b) *antonyms*, e.g. *good - bad*, c) *converseness*, e.g. *to buy - to sell*.

In his classification he describes complementarity in the following way: the denial of the one implies the assertion of the other, and vice versa.

«*John is not married*» implies that «*John is single*». The type of oppositeness is based on yes/no decision. Incompatibility only concerns pairs of lexical units.

Antonymy is the second class of oppositeness. It is distinguished from complementarity by being based on different logical relationships. For pairs of antonyms like *good/bad*, *big/small* only the second one of the above mentioned relations of implication holds. The assertion containing one member implies the negation of the other, but not vice versa. «*John is good*» implies that «*John is not bad*», but «*John is not good*» does not imply that «*John is bad*». The negation of one term does not necessarily imply the assertion of the other.

An important linguistic difference from complementaries is that antonyms are always fully gradable, e.g. *hot, warm, tepid, cold*.

Converseness is mirror-image relations or functions, e.g. *husband/wife, pupil/teacher, precede/follow, above/below, before/after* etc.

«*John bought the car from Bill*» implies that «*Bill sold the car to John*». Mirror-image sentences are in many ways similar to the relations between active and passive sentences. Also in the comparative form: «*Y is smaller than X, then X is larger than Y*».

L. Lipka also gives the type which he calls directional opposition up/down, consequence opposition learn/know, antipodal opposition *North/South, East/West*, (it is based on contrary motion, in opposite directions.) The pairs *come/go, arrive/depart* involve motion in different directions. In the case *up/down* we have movement from a point P. In the case *come/go* we have movement from or to the speaker.

L. Lipka also points out non-binary contrast or many-member lexical sets.

Here he points out serially ordered sets, such as scales */hot, warm, tepid, cool, cold/*; colour words */black, grey, white/*; ranks */marshal, general, colonel, major, captain, etc./* There are gradable examination marks */excellent, good, average, fair, poor/*. In such sets of words we can have outer and inner pairs of antonyms. He also points out cycles, such as units of time */spring, summer, autumn, winter/*. In this case there are no «**outermost**» members.

Not every word in a language can have antonyms. This type of opposition can be met in qualitative adjectives and their derivatives, e.g. *beautiful- ugly, to beautify - to uglify, beauty - ugliness*. It can be also met in words denoting feelings and states, e.g. *respect - scorn, to respect - to scorn, respectful - scornful, to live - to die, alive - dead, life - death*.

It can be also met among words denoting direction in space and time, e.g. *here - there, up - down, now - never, before - after, day - night, early - late* etc.

If a word is polysemantic it can have several antonyms, e.g. the word «*bright*» has the antonyms «*dim*», «*dull*», «*sad*».

Antonyms are traditionally defined as words of the same part of speech which are opposite in meaning. Antonymy is oppositeness in meaning. Not every word of a language may have an antonym though practically every word may have a synonym. Antonymy is different in different parts of speech.

Different lexical-semantic variants of a word have different antonyms. Antonyms may be defined as two or more words of the same part of speech which have some common denotational components in their semantic structure, but express some contrary or contradictory (contrasting) notions; they are characterized by different types of semantic contrast of denotational meaning and interchangeability at least in some contexts.

According to the relationship between the notions expressed antonyms are divided into contradictories and contraries. According to their morphological structure antonyms may be subdivided into root antonyms and derivational antonyms.

According to the relations of the general to the particular (specific) words are studied in their hyponymic relations. Hyponymic relations are the relations of inclusion. Hyponymy (or inclusion) is a relationship between two words in which the meaning of one includes the meaning of the other. The “upper” general term is the superordinate (hyperonym) and the “lower” term is specific – hyponym. The relations between co-hyponyms may be described as the relations of exclusion. The members of the set of co-hyponyms may be described as incompatibles.

Antonyms are words which belong to the same part of speech and have contrary meanings. Ex. kind - cruel, good - bad, big - small, little - much.

Antonyms may be divided into:

1) root antonyms: ex. good - bad, beautiful - ugly, kind - cruel, old - young.

2) derivational antonyms. These antonyms are formed by affixes. Ex. kind - unkind, to like - dislike, possible - impossible, regular, irregular. Antonyms are not always interchangeable in certain contexts. Ex. «rich voice» can not be changed into «poor voice». The opposite of a short person is a tall person. A short thing - long thing an old book - a new book, an old man - a young man, a thin man - a fat man, a thin book - a thick book.

Antonyms may be found among qualitative adjectives as: good - bad, deep - shallow, nouns as: light - darkness; verb as «to give» and «to take»; adverbs as quickly - slowly, early - late.

Many antonyms are explained by means of the negative particle «not». Ex. clean - not dirty, shallow or not deep. Antonyms form pairs, not groups like synonyms: bad - good, big - little, alike - different, old - new.

Polysemantic words may have antonyms in some of their meanings and none in the others. Ex. when the word «criticism means «blame» its antonym is «praise», when it means «рецензия» it has no antonym.

The majority of linguists nowadays agree that the vocabulary should be studied as a system. We must study interrelated systems. For different purposes of study different types of grouping of words may be effective.

Words joined together by one common semantic component form semantic fields. Ex. the semantic field of time.

The German linguist Jost Trier shows that the significance of each unit in the semantic field is determined by its neighbours. A. Shaikvitch says that semantically related words must occur near one another in the text. If the words often occur in the text together they must be semantically related and they form a semantic field.

Ex. faint, feeble, weary, sick, tedious and healthy form one semantic field.

Face, head, arm, hand, foot etc make up the semantic field with the notion of body.

Neologism is any word which is formed according to the productive structural patterns or borrowed from another language and felt by the speakers as something new. So neologisms are newly coined words or phrase or a new meaning for an existing word or a word borrowed from another language. As a result of the development of science and industry many new words are appeared in the language. Ex. isotope, tape-recorder, supermarket, V-day (Victory day). The research of cosmic space by the Soviet people gave birth to new words: sputnik, space-rocket, space-ship.

Neologisms may be divided into:

1) root words: Ex. jeep - a small light motor vehicle, zebra - street crossing place, sputnik, lunic etc;

2) derived words: Ex. collaborationist - one who in occupied territory works helpfully with the enemy, to accessorize - to provide with dress accessories;

3) compound: Ex. space - rocket, air - drop, microfilm reader. New words are as a rule monosemantic. Terms, used in various fields of science and technique make the greater part of neologisms. New words belong only to the notional parts of speech: to nouns, verbs, adjectives etc.

Neologisms are mainly formed by:

1) word formation (mainly productive type).

Ex. -gen, -ogen: carcinogen (biological term), -ics: psycholinguistics, electronics, sputnik - to sputnik (conversion), -nik: filmnik, folknik.

2) semantic extension: heel - a tractor (old meaning: heel - the back part of foot); to screen - to classify, to select methodically (old meaning was - to separate coal into different sizes);

3) borrowing: telecast, (Greek), sputnik, lunnik, udarnik (Russian).

At the present moment English is developing very swiftly and there is so called «neology blowup». R. Berchfield who worked at compiling a four-volume supplement to NED says that averagely 800 neologisms appear every year in Modern English. It has also become a language-giver recently, especially with the development of computerization.

New words, as a rule, appear in speech of an individual person who wants to express his idea in some original way. This person is called «originator». New lexical units are primarily used by university teachers, newspaper reporters, by those who are connected with mass media.

Neologisms can develop in three main ways: a lexical unit existing in the language can change its meaning to denote a new object or phenomenon. In such cases we have semantic neologisms, e.g. the word «umbrella» developed the meanings: «авиационное прикрытие», «политическое прикрытие». A new lexical unit can develop in the language to denote an object or phenomenon which already has some lexical unit to denote it. In such cases we have transnomination, e.g. the word «slum» was first substituted by the word «ghetto» then by the word-group «inner town». A new lexical unit can be introduced to denote a new object or phenomenon. In this case we have «a proper neologism», many of them are cases of new terminology.

Here we can point out several semantic groups when we analyze the group of neologisms connected with computerization, and here we can mention words used: a) to denote different types of computers, e.g. PC, super-computer, multi-user, neurocomputer / analogue of a human brain/; b) to denote parts of computers, e.g. hardware, software, monitor, screen, data, vapourware / experimental samples of computers for exhibition, not for production/; c) to denote computer languages, e.g. BASIC, Algol FORTRAN etc; d) to denote notions connected with work on computers, e.g. computerman, computerization, computerize, to troubleshoot, to blitz out / to ruin data in a computer's memory/.

There are also different types of activities performed with the help of computers, many of them are formed with the help of the morpheme «tele», e.g. to telework, to telecommute / to work at home having a computer which is connected with the enterprise for which one works/. There are also such words as telebanking, telemarketing, teleshopping / when you can perform different operations with the help of your computer without leaving your home, all operations are registered by the computer at your bank/, videobank /computerized telephone which registers all information which is received in your absence/.

In the sphere of linguistics we have such neologisms as: machine translation, interlingual / an artificial language for machine translation into several languages / and many others.

In the sphere of biometrics we have computerized machines which can recognize characteristic features of people seeking entrance: finger-print scanner / finger prints/, biometric eye-scanner / blood-vessel arrangements in eyes/, voice verification /voice patterns/. These are types of biometric locks. Here we can also mention computerized cards with the help of which we can open the door without a key.

In the sphere of medicine computers are also used and we have the following neologisms: telemonitory unit / a telemonitory system for treating patience at a distance/.

With the development of social activities neologisms appeared as well, e.g. youthquake - волнения среди молодежи, pussy-footer - политик, идущий на компромисы, Euromarket, Eurodollar, Europarlament, Europol etc.

In the modern English society there is a tendency to social stratification, as a result there are neologisms in this sphere as well, e.g. belonger - представитель среднего класса, приверженец консервативных взглядов. To this group we can also refer abbreviations of the type yuppie /young urban professional people/, such as: muppie, gruppie, rumpie, bluppie etc. People belonging to the lowest layer of the society are called survivors, a little bit more prosperous are called sustainers, and those who try to prosper in life and imitate those, they want to belong to, are called emulators. Those who have prospered but are not belongers are called achievers. All these layers of society are called VAL /Value and Lifestyles/.

The rich belong also to jet set that is those who can afford to travel by jet planes all over the world enjoying their life. Sometimes they are called «jet plane travellers».

During Margaret Thatcher's rule the abbreviation PLU appeared which means «People like us» by which snobbistic circles of society call themselves.

Nowadays /since 1989/ PLU was substituted by «one of us».

There are a lot of immigrants now in UK, in connection with which neologisms partial and non-partial were formed /имеющие право жить в стране и его антоним/.

The word-group «welfare mother» was formed to denote a non-working single mother living on benefit.

In connection with criminalization of towns in UK voluntary groups of assisting the police were formed where dwellers of the neighbourhood are joined. These groups are called «neighbourhood watch», «home watch».

Criminals wear «stocking masks» not to be recognized.

The higher society has neologisms in their speech, such as: dial-a-meal, dial-a-taxi.

In the language of teen-agers there are such words as: Drugs! /OK/, sweat /бег на длинные дистанции/, task /home composition /, brunch etc.

With the development of professional jargons a lot of words ending in «speak» appeared in English, e.g. artspeak, sportspeak, medspeak, education-speak, video-speak, cable-speak etc.

There are different semantic groups of neologisms belonging to everyday life: a) food e.g. «starter» /instead of «hors d'oeuvres»/, *macrobiotics* /raw vegetables, crude rice/, *longlife milk*, *clingfilm*, *microwave stove*, *consumer*

electronics, fridge-freezer, hamburgers /beef-, cheese-, fish-, veg-/. b) clothing, e.g. *catsuit* /one-piece clinging suit/, *slimster, string* /miniscule bikini/, *hipster* /trousers or skirt with the belt on hips/, *completenik* /a long sweater for trousers/, *sweatnik* /a long jacket/, *pants-skirt, bloomers* /lady's sports trousers/. c) footwear e.g. *winklepickers* /shoes with long pointed toes/, *thongs* /open sandals/, *backsters* /beech sandals with thick soles/. d) bags, e.g. *bumbag* /a small bag worn on the waist/, *sling bag* /a bag with a long belt/, *maitre* /a small bag for cosmetics/.

There are also such words as: *dangledolly* / a dolly-talisman dangling in the car before the windscreen/, *boot-sale* /selling from the boot of the car/, *touch-tone* /a telephone with press-button/.

Neologisms can be also classified according to the ways they are formed.

They are subdivided into: ***phonological neologisms, borrowings, semantic neologisms and syntactical neologisms***. Syntactical neologisms are divided into ***morphological /word-building/*** and ***phraseological /forming word- groups/***.

Phonological neologisms are formed by combining unique combinations of sounds, they are called artificial, e.g. *rah-rah* /a short skirt which is worn by girls during parades/, «yeck» /»yuck» which are interjections to express repulsion produced the adjective *yucky/ yecky*. These are strong neologisms.

Strong neologisms include also phonetic borrowings, such as «perestroika» /Russian/, «solidarnosc» /Polish/, *Berufsverbot* / German /, *dolce vita* /Italian/ etc.

Morphological and syntactical neologisms are usually built on patterns existing in the language, therefore they do not belong to the group of strong neologisms.

Among ***morphological neologisms*** there are a lot of compound words of different types, such as «free-fall»-»резкое падение курса акций» appeared in 1987 with the stock market crash in October 1987 /on the analogy with free-fall of parachutists, which is the period between jumping and opening the chute/. Here also belong: *call-and-recall* - вызов на диспансеризацию, *bioastronomy* - search for life on other planets, *rat-out* - betrayal in danger , *zero-zero* (double zero) - ban of longer and shorter range weapon, *x-rated* /about films terribly vulgar and cruel/, *Ameringlish* /American English/, *tycoonography* - a biography of a business tycoon.

There are also abbreviations of different types, such as *resto*, *teen* /teenager/, *dinky* /dual income no kids yet/, *ARC* /AIDS-related condition, infection with AIDS/, *HIV* / human immuno-deficiency virus/.

Quite a number of neologisms appear on the analogy with lexical units existing in the language, e.g. *snowmobile* /automobile/, *danceaholic* /alcoholic/, *airtel* /hotel/, *cheeseburger* /hamburger/, *autocade* / cavalcade/.

There are many neologisms formed by means of affixation, such as: *decompress*, *to disimprove*, *overhoused*, *educationalist*, *slimster*, *folknik* etc.

Phraseological neologisms can be subdivided into phraseological units with transferred meanings, e.g. to buy into/ to become involved/, fudge and dudge /avoidance of definite decisions/, and set non-idiomatic expressions, e.g. electronic virus, Rubic's cube, retail park, acid rain, boot trade etc.

Words may drop out as a result of the disappearance of the actual objects they denote. These words are called *obsolete words*.

The disappearance of words may be caused as a result of influence of borrowings. Ex. the Scandinavian «take» and «die» ousted O. E. niman and sweldan.

The French «army» and «plaxe» replaced the O. E. here and steps. Words which are not used generally are called archaisms. Archaisms are used in poetic vocabulary.

Ex. Steed (horse), slay (kill), welkin (sky).

Archaisms should be distinguished from historical terms or *historisms* which denote historical reality and commonly used in modern English.

Ex. cannon - ball, chain mail, lance, archer, baldric (belt for a sword).

Archaisms are words which are no longer used in everyday speech, which have been ousted by their synonyms. Archaisms remain in the language, but they are used as stylistic devices to express solemnity.

Most of these words are lexical archaisms and they are stylistic synonyms of words which ousted them from the neutral style. Some of them are: steed /horse/, slay /kill/, behold /see/, perchance /perhaps/, woe /sorrow/ etc.

Sometimes a lexical archaism begins a new life, getting a new meaning, then the old meaning becomes a semantic archaism, e.g. «fair» in the meaning «beautiful» is a semantic archaism, but in the meaning «blond» it belongs to the neutral style.

Sometimes the root of the word remains and the affix is changed, and then the old affix is considered to be a morphemic archaism, e.g. «beautious» /»ous» was substituted by «ful»/, «bepaint» / «be» was dropped/, «darksome» /»some» was dropped/, «oft» / «en» was added/. etc.

Speech also expresses the speakers attitude to what he is talking about. The speaker may wish to warn, to influence people, to express his approval or disapproval. Words expressing emotion are called emotionally coloured words. Diminutive and derogatory affixes play an important role in forming emotionally coloured words.

Ex. *daddy, kiddykins, babykins, oldie, blackie.*

Interjections also express emotion without naming them:

Ah!, Hush!, Hell!, Nonsense!, Pooh;

The derogatory suffixes may form emotionally coloured words.

Ex. *bastard - внебрачный ребенок*

eakling - слабое существо

hibster- xunnu

drunkard - пьяница,

dullard - тупица

It is very interesting that many personal nouns formed by the composition from complete sentences or phrases in most cases are derogatory:

Ex. *also - run* - ну и скакун, непосредственность
never- say- die - несдающиеся, неприклонный
stick -in - the mud -отсталый человек, растяпа
die- hard -крайний консерватор, живучий.

There are nouns formed by conversion which are used emotionally coloured:

a bare - скучный человек
a washout - пропавший человек.

There are some words which indicate the special importance of the thing expressed. They are called intensifiers.

Ex. *even, ever, all, so, awfully, tremendously, wonderfully, terribly. awfully glad, terribly important...*

It should be pointed out that among the emotionally coloured words we can find words which express evaluation, judgement. They are called evaluation words. Mostly names of animals have a strong evaluatory force.

Ex. «Silly ass» said Dick. «He's jealous because he didn't win a prize».

cattwitted - мелочный, *dirty dog* - грязный подлец, *colt* - a young male horse used for a young inexperienced person, *pup* - щенок. They have negative evaluation. But in English we have words which have positive evaluation, ex. *bunny* - кролик (ласк), *bunting* - птичка (ласк). The English language we can find a lot of vulgar words which are used in emotional speech: ex. *Damn! Alas!*

One and same word may have different evaluation when it is used with words denoting different sex.

He is a bull (it has a positive evaluation)

She is a bull (it has a negative evaluation)

On different occasion and situations the speaker uses different words, choose different words in different spheres of communication. There are some words which are used in lecture, in a poem or when speaking to a child, an official person etc. They are very highly frequent words. These words are called stylistically neutral words. Ex. evening, man, table, horse, read, write, speak, beautiful, nice etc.

But we have a lot of words which cannot be used in any situation or we speak to any person. They are called stylistically marked words.

Ex. the English nouns «horse», «steed», «gee-gee» have the same meaning, they all refer to the same animal but they are stylistically different.

«Horse» is stylistically neutral and may be used in any situation. «Steed» belongs to poetic vocabulary. It has a lofty meaning. «Gee-gee» - is a nursery word neutral in a child's speech. And it is not used in adult conversation. So

stylistically coloured words are suitable only on certain definite occasions in specific conditions of communication.

Each stylistically coloured word has a neutral synonym:

Ex. *steed* - *horse*, *ire* - *anger*, *sustain* - *suffer*, *obtain* - *get*, *accommodation* - *room*, *woe* - *sorrow*, *fair* - *beautiful*, *slay* - *kill*.

Among the stylistically - coloured words we can find:

Slang - words. They are expressive, mostly ironical words. They serve to create fresh names for some things. They sound somewhat vulgar, harsh, mockingly, contemptuously.

Ex. The word «money» has the following slang words as: *beans*, *brass*, *dibs*, *dough*, *chink*, *oof*, *wads*.

The slang synonyms for word «head» are: *attic*, *brain - pan*, *hat*, *peg*, *nut*, *upper storey*. The slang synonyms for the adjective «drunk» are: *boozy*, *cock-eyed*, *high*, *soaked*, *tight*.

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Questions for discussion:

1. Give the definition of synonyms.
2. Give the definition of antonyms.
3. What types of synonyms do you know?

Chapter 10

SYNTAGMATIC RELATIONS OF WORDS IN ENGLISH

1. Syntagmatic relations of words. The importance of syntagmatic analysis
2. Lexical and grammatical valency and collocability
3. Types of word-groups

CRITERIA OF SEMANTIC DERIVATION

In cases of conversion the problem of criteria of semantic derivation arises: which of the converted pair is primary and which is converted from it. The problem was first analyzed by prof. A.I. Smirnitsky. Later on P.A. Soboleva developed his idea and worked out the following criteria:

1. If the lexical meaning of the root morpheme and the lexico-grammatical meaning of the stem coincide the word is primary, e.g. in cases *pen - to pen*, *father - to father* the nouns are names of an object and a living being. Therefore in the nouns «pen» and «father» the lexical meaning of the root and the lexico-grammatical meaning of the stem coincide. The verbs «to pen» and «to father» denote an action, a process therefore the lexico-grammatical meanings of the stems do not coincide with the lexical meanings of the roots. The verbs have a complex semantic structure and they were converted from nouns.

2. If we compare a converted pair with a synonymic word pair which was formed by means of suffixation we can find out which of the pair is primary. This criterion can be applied only to nouns converted from verbs, e.g. «chat» n. and «chat» v. can be compared with «conversation» - «converse».

3. The criterion based on derivational relations is of more universal character. In this case we must take a word-cluster of relative words to which the converted pair belongs. If the root stem of the word-cluster has suffixes added to a noun stem the noun is primary in the converted pair and vice versa, e.g. in the word-cluster : *hand n.*, *hand v.*, *handy*, *handful* the derived words have suffixes added to a noun stem, that is why the noun is primary and the verb is converted from it. In the word-cluster: *dance n.*, *dance v.*, *dancer*, *dancing* we see that the primary word is a verb and the noun is converted from it.

SUBSTANTIVIZATION OF ADJECTIVES

Some scientists (Yespersen, Kruisinga) refer Substantivization of adjectives to conversion. But most scientists disagree with them because in cases of substantivization of adjectives we have quite different changes in the language. Substantivization is the result of *ellipsis (syntactical shortening)* when a word combination with a semantically strong attribute loses its semantically weak noun (*man*, *person* etc), e.g. «*a grown-up person*» is shortened to «*a grown-up*». In cases of perfect substantivization the attribute takes the paradigm of a countable noun, e.g. *a criminal*, *criminals*, *a criminal's* (mistake), *criminals'* (mistakes). Such words are used in a sentence in the same function as nouns, e.g. *I am fond of musicals*. (musical comedies).

There are also two types of partly substantivized adjectives: those which have only the plural form and have the meaning of collective nouns, such as: *sweets*, *news*, *empties*, *finals*, *greens*, those which have only the singular form and are used with the definite article. They also have the meaning of collective nouns and denote a class, a nationality, a group of people, e.g. *the rich*, *the English*, *the dead*.

«STONE WALL» COMBINATIONS

The problem whether adjectives can be formed by means of conversion from nouns is the subject of many discussions. In Modern English there are a lot

of word combinations of the type, e.g. *price rise, wage freeze, steel helmet, sand castle*, etc.

If the first component of such units is an adjective converted from a noun, combinations of this type are free word-groups typical of English (adjective + noun). This point of view is proved by O. Jespersen by the following facts:

1. «Stone» denotes some quality of the noun «wall».
2. «Stone» stands before the word it modifies, as adjectives in the function of an attribute do in English.
3. «Stone» is used in the Singular though its meaning in most cases is plural, and adjectives in English have no plural form.
4. There are some cases when the first component is used in the Comparative or the Superlative degree, e.g. *the bottomest end of the scale*.
5. The first component can have an adverb which characterizes it, and adjectives are characterized by adverbs, e.g. a purely family gathering.
6. The first component can be used in the same syntactical function with a proper adjective to characterize the same noun, e.g. *lonely bare stone houses*.
7. After the first component the pronoun «one» can be used instead of a noun, e.g. *I shall not put on a silk dress, I shall put on a cotton one*.

However Henry Sweet and some other scientists say that these criteria are not characteristic of the majority of such units. They consider the first component of such units to be a noun in the function of an attribute because in Modern English almost all parts of speech and even word-groups and sentences can be used in the function of an attribute, e.g. *the then president* (an adverb), *out-of-the-way villages* (a word-group), *a devil-may-care speed* (a sentence).

There are different semantic relations between the components of «stone wall» combinations. E.I. Chapnik classified them into the following groups:

1. time relations, e.g. *evening paper*,
2. space relations, e.g. *top floor*,
3. relations between the object and the material of which it is made, e.g. *steel helmet*,
4. cause relations, e.g. *war orphan*,
5. relations between a part and the whole, e.g. *a crew member*,
6. relations between the object and an action, e.g. *arms production*,
7. relations between the agent and an action e.g. *government threat, price rise*,
8. relations between the object and its designation, e.g. *reception hall*,
9. the first component denotes the head, organizer of the characterized object, e.g. *Clinton government, Forsythe family*,
10. the first component denotes the field of activity of the second component, e.g. *language teacher, psychiatry doctor*,
11. comparative relations, e.g. *moon face*,
12. qualitative relations, e.g. *winter apples*.

Linear relations of words in connected speech are called syntagmatic relations or the relations on the horizontal level. Syntagmatic relations define the meaning of a word when it is used in combination with other words in speech. Words put together in speech make functional units called phrases or word groups also called word combinations or collocations. The word group is the largest two-facet functional lexical unit (assuming that the word is the basic lexical unit) comprising more than one word on the syntagmatic level of analysis.

Collocability of words that is their ability to combine with other words in speech is based on their valency. Valency and collocability may be lexical and grammatical, or syntactical.

The aptness of a word to be used in certain grammatical or syntactical pattern is called grammatical valency. In other words grammatical valency is the possibility of syntactical connection of a word on the syntactical level. Grammatical or syntactical collocability is the realization of the grammatical valency in speech which is achieved through lexical collocability. Lexical valency is the aptness of a word to appear in various combinations with other words in speech. Lexical valency is the possibility of connecting a word with other words on the lexico-semantic level. Lexical collocability is the realization of lexical valency in speech. Valency and collocability are linguistic factors that determine the co-occurrence of English words, but they are not the only factors that influence the co-occurrence of words in speech.

Word groups may be classified according to different principles: according to the order and arrangement of the component members; according to the criteria of distribution (endocentric and exocentric word groups); according to their head-word (nominal, adjectival, verbal, adverbial, etc.); according to their syntactic pattern (predicative and non-predicative); according to the degree of motivation and the degree of the semantic and structural cohesion of the members (motivated, free, or variable word-groups; semi-motivated and non-motivated). Non-motivated word-groups are called stable word-groups, set-phrases, idioms, or phraseological units. They are studied in Phraseology.

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Questions for discussion:

1. What is understood by the collocability of words?
2. What is understood by the valency of words?

Chapter 11 ENGLISH PHRASEOLOGY

1. Phraseology as a branch of Linguistics. Different approaches to Phraseology
2. Set phrases and free (variable) word combinations
3. Similarity and difference between a set-expression and the word
4. The subject- matter of phraseology.
5. The classification of phraseological units.
6. The point of view about stability, idiomaticity and the equivalency of phraseological units to words.
7. The history of phraseological units.
8. The synonymy, polysemy of phraseological units.
9. Various ways of classifying set expressions in English
10. Features enhancing unity and stability of set-expressions
11. Proverbs, sayings, familiar quotations and clichés

The vocabulary of a language is enriched not only by words but also by phraseological units. **Phraseological units** are word-groups that cannot be made in the process of speech; they exist in the language as ready-made units. They are compiled in special dictionaries. The same as words phraseological units express a single notion and are used in a sentence as one part of it. American and British lexicographers call such units «idioms». We can mention such dictionaries as: L.Smith «Words and Idioms», V.Collins «A Book of English Idioms» etc.

In these dictionaries we can find words, peculiar in their semantics (idiomatic), side by side with word- groups and sentences. In these dictionaries they are arranged, as a rule, into different semantic groups.

Phraseological units can be classified according to the ways they are formed, according to ***the degree of the motivation of their meaning***, according to ***their structure*** and according to ***their part-of-speech meaning***.

Phraseology is a separate branch of Linguistics which deals with a phraseological subsystem of language, with all types of set-expressions. The

basic unit of phraseology is a phraseological unit. According to A.V. Koonin “a **phraseological unit** is a stable word-group characterized by a completely or partially transferred meaning”. Phraseology studies the following types of set-expressions: phraseological units (proper); phraseomatic units; border-line cases belonging to the mixed class. There exist other approaches to the problem of phraseology: the semantic approach developed by academician Vinogradov; the functional approach; the contextual approach worked out by N.N. Amosova and etc.

A phraseological unit is a word-group which presents a functionally, semantically and structurally inseparable unit. Phraseological units or idioms are contrasted to free phrases. Set expressions are not created in speech, they are introduced into speech ready-made like words. Free word groups are constructed in the process of speaking by joining words together. Set expressions like words possess semantic unity and integrity. Free word combinations are clearly motivated and easily understood, but the meaning of phraseological units is not the combined meanings of their constituents. Set expressions possess a greater structural unity than free word combinations, though the degree of structural invariability may vary in different set expressions. The structural invariability of set expressions manifests itself in a number of restrictions: the restriction of substitution, the restriction in introducing any additional components into the structure of a phraseological unit, grammatical invariability.

Functionally and semantically inseparable units are usually called phraseological units. Phraseological units cannot be freely made up in speech but are reproduced as ready made units. The lexical components in phraseological units are stable and they are non-motivated i.e. its meaning cannot be deduced from the meaning of its components and they do not allow their lexical components to be changed or substituted. In phraseological units the individual components do not seem to possess any lexical meaning outside the word group.

Ex. *red tape* (bureaucratic methods), *to get rid of*; *to take place*; *to lead the dance*; *to take care*.

A. V. Koonin thinks that phraseology must be an independent linguistic science and not a part of lexicology. His classification of phraseological units is based *on the functions* of them in speech. They are: ***nominating, interjectional and communicative***.

V. V. Vinogradov classified phraseological units into three groups taking into consideration *their motivation*. They are:

1) **phraseological fusions**; they are such units which are completely non motivated word groups; Ex. *to kick the bucket to get one's goat, show the white feather*.

In these word groups the meaning of the whole expressions is not derived from the meaning of components.

2) **phraseological units**; the meaning of such word-groups can be perceived through the metaphorical meaning of the whole phraseological unit or the meaning of which may be seen as a metaphorical transference of the meaning of the word group: ex. *to show one's teeth, to know the way the wind blows, to stand to one's guns, to take care of*;

3) **phraseological collocations**: They include motivated relatively stable word groups. They have a certain degree of stability; ex. *to take an interest, to fall in love, to look through one's fingers, meet the demand* etc.

At present the term «phraseological unit» is usually used not to all set expression but only to those which are completely or partially non-motivated.

Prof **N. Amosova** gives two categories of phraseological units depending on whether just one component or both are used in phraseologically bound meaning. If all the components have idiomatic meaning such phraseological units are called «idioms» ex: *to toe the line* (to do exactly as one is told), *a free lance* (a person who acts independently). If one of the components has bound specialized meaning dependent on the second component she called «phrasemes».

Ex. *dutch courage* (courage given by drink), *to bring to book* (to bring to justice) *small years* (in the childhood), *small beers* (weak beer).

Stability of phraseological units is seen in its disallowance of the substitution of word groups. Ex. «to shrug one's shoulders» does not allow to substitute either «shrug» or «shoulder».

Idiomaticity of phraseological units is lack of word groups. If a word group does not allow word by word translation it is called idiomatic word groups. Ex. *to kick the bucket* (умереть) *in the soup* (в затруднительном положении) *under a cloud* (в плохом настроении).

Prof. **A. I. Smirnitsky** states that a phraseological unit may be defined as specific word groups functioning as a word-equivalent. The phraseological units are single semantically inseparable units. They are used in one function in the sentence and belong to one part of speech.

According to their semantic and grammatical inseparability we may classify the phraseological units into: **noun equivalents** (*heavy father*), **verb equivalents** (*take place, break the news*) **adverb equivalents** (*in the long run, high and low*).

Prof. A. Koonin does not support Smirnitsky's point of view on the equivalence of phraseological units. A. Koonin points out that the components of phraseological units are mounted separately and therefore they can't be used in one function in the sentence. Ex. *He gets rid of it*. The problems of equivalency of phraseological units to words demands further investigation.

Among the phraseological units there are the so-called imperative phraseological units.

Ex. *God Bless his soul! , Curse her!*
Damn him!, Stay well!, Go well!,
Heaven forbid!, Lord love us! etc.

These phraseological units mostly denote the emotional and expressive state of a person.

Proverbs, sayings and quotations exist also as ready made units with a specialized meaning of their own which can not be deduced from the meaning of their components. Therefore they may be included in phraseological units. Ex. *East or West home is best, a friend in need is a friend indeed. To be or not to be.*

The history of many phraseologisms is an interesting record of the nation's past, of its way of life, customs and traditions. Many phraseological units are connected with commerce, Ex. *to talk shop, to make the best of the bargain, to have all one's goods in the shop window, a drug on the market* (наркотик). Many phraseological units are associated with the sea (*the waves*). Ex. *all at sea, to nail one's colours to the mast, to sail under false colours*. Many phraseological units were borrowed from the Bible, Ex: *the root of all evil* - корень зла, любовь к деньгам. *Daily bread* - хлеб насущный, средства к существованию.

There is a subject of discussion among the linguists about the state of such combinations like «to give in», «to make up», to take off», «to get up», «to give up» etc; what is the nature of the second element of such combinations? The second element of such units is not a word therefore they are not phraseological units. Phraseological units, as we know, consist of words. The second element is not a morpheme because it is not a part of the word; they are not adverbs because adverbs have definite lexical meanings and are used in a certain function in the sentence. But these units (*get up, give up* etc) have idiomatical meanings therefore. A. V. Koonin calls such units «set phrases» which have no phraseological character. There are synonyms among phraseological units, Ex: *through thick and thin, by hook or by crook, for love or money* - во что бы не стало; *pull one's leg, to make a fool of smb* - дурачить. Some of phraseological units are polisemantic as «*at large*» - 1) на свободе, 2) в открытом море, 3) без определенной цели, 4) не попавший цель, 5) свободный, 6) в целом, 7) вообще, 8) подобно etc.

It is the context that realizes the meaning of a phraseological unit in each case. The usage of phraseological units in speech is a subject of research work of many linguists

"A phraseological unit is a stable word-group characterised by a completely or partially transferred meaning." (A.Koonin)

There are different ways of classifying phraseological units in English: *semantic, structural, contextual, etymological (genetic), stylistic* and others. *The semantic classification* was introduced by academician **V.V. Vinogradov**. It is based on the relation of the meaning of the whole unit and the meanings of its components, on the degree of semantic cohesion between the components of a phraseological unit. There are three types of phraseological units according to the given classification: *phraseological fusions (idioms), phraseological unities* and *phraseological combinations*.

In Professor **Smirnitsky's** *classification structural and semantic principles* are combined. He distinguishes three types of stable combinations in the language: *idioms, phraseological units, traditional phrases*. Professor Smirnitsky singles out two semantico-structural types of phraseological units: one-summit phraseological units and two-summit (or multi-summit) phraseological units.

N.N. Amosova introduced *the contextological principle* of distinguishing phraseological units. Context is a combination of a semantically dependent word with an indicator. In her classification N.N. Amosova subdivides phraseological units into phrasemes and idioms.

If we regard a set phrase as a word equivalent and pay attention to the function it fulfills in speech, set expressions can be subdivided into: verbal, nominal, attributive, adverbial, conjunctive, interjectional, prepositional set phrases. Within the functional classes set expressions are often classified according to their structural type, which may be represented by their distributional formulas.

In **A.V. Koonin's** classification classes of phraseological units are distinguished on the basis of the *function of phraseological units* in the course of communication which is determined by their structural and semantic peculiarities. *Koonin's structural-semantic-functional phraseological units* are subdivided into: nominative, nominative-communicative, interjectional, communicative.

According to the etymological principle set phrases may be divided into native and borrowed.

The genetic classification (which is sometimes called "thematic") reveals the origin of the set phrase. Within this classification idioms are grouped according to the sphere of life they originated from. The genetic principle of classifying phraseological units demonstrates the close ties between languages and national culture, the wealth and variety of English idioms but it doesn't reveal the linguistic characteristics of phraseological units.

WAYS OF FORMING PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS

A.V. Koonin classified phraseological units according to **the way they are formed**. He pointed out primary and secondary ways of forming phraseological units.

Primary ways of forming phraseological units are those when a unit is formed on the basis of a free word-group:

a) Most productive in Modern English is the formation of phraseological units by means of transferring the meaning of terminological word-groups, e.g. in cosmic technique we can point out the following phrases: «*launching pad*» in its terminological meaning is «*стартовая площадка*», in its transferred meaning - «*отправной пункт*», «*to link up*» - «*стыковаться, стыковать космические корабли*» in its transformed meaning it means - «*знакомиться*»;

b) a large group of phraseological units was formed from free word groups by transforming their meaning, e.g. «*granny farm*» - «*пансионат для престарелых*», «*Trojan horse*» - «*компьютерная программа, преднамеренно составленная для повреждения компьютера*»;

c) phraseological units can be formed by means of alliteration, e.g. «*a sad sack*» - «*несчастный случай*», «*culture vulture*» - «*человек, интересующийся искусством*», «*fudge and nudge*» - «*уклончивость*».

d) they can be formed by means of expressiveness, especially it is characteristic for forming interjections, e.g. «*My aunt!*», «*Hear, hear!*» etc.

e) they can be formed by means of distorting a word group, e.g. «*odds and ends*» was formed from «*odd ends*»,

f) they can be formed by using archaisms, e.g. «*in brown study*» means «*in gloomy meditation*» where both components preserve their archaic meanings,

g) they can be formed by using a sentence in a different sphere of life, e.g. «*that cock won't fight*» can be used as a free word-group when it is used in sports (*cock fighting*), it becomes a phraseological unit when it is used in everyday life, because it is used metaphorically,

h) they can be formed when we use some unreal image, e.g. «*to have butterflies in the stomach*» - «*испытывать волнение*», «*to have green fingers*» - «*преуспевать как садовод-любитель*» etc.

i) they can be formed by using expressions of writers or politicians in everyday life, e.g. «*corridors of power*» (*Snow*), «*American dream*» (*Alby*), «*locust years*» (*Churchill*), «*the winds of change*» (*Mc Millan*).

Secondary ways of forming phraseological units are those when a phraseological unit is formed on the basis of another phraseological unit - they are:

a) **conversion**, e.g. «*to vote with one's feet*» was converted into «*vote with one's feet*»;

b) **changing the grammar form**, e.g. «*Make hay while the sun shines*» is transferred into a verbal phrase - «*to make hay while the sun shines*»;

c) **analogy**, e.g. «*Curiosity killed the cat*» was transferred into «*Care killed the cat*»;

d) **contrast**, e.g. «*cold surgery*» - «*a planned before operation*» was formed by contrasting it with «*acute surgery*», «*thin cat*» - «*a poor person*» was formed by contrasting it with «*fat cat*»;

e) **shortening of proverbs or sayings**, e.g. from the proverb «*You can't make a silk purse out of a sow's ear*» by means of clipping the middle of it the phraseological unit «*to make a sow's ear*» was formed with the meaning «*ошибаться*».

f) **borrowing phraseological units from other languages**, either as **translation loans**, e.g. «*living space*» (German), «*to take the bull by the horns*» (Latin) or by means of phonetic borrowings «*meche blanche*» (French), «*corpse d'elite*» (French), «*sotto voce*» (Italian) etc.

Phonetic borrowings among phraseological units refer to the bookish style and are not used very often.

SEMANTIC CLASSIFICATION OF PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS

Phraseological units can be classified according to the degree of motivation of their meaning. This classification was suggested by acad. V.V. Vinogradov for Russian phraseological units. He pointed out **three types of phraseological units**: a) **fusions** where the degree of motivation is very low, we cannot guess the meaning of the whole from the meanings of its components, they are highly idiomatic and cannot be translated word for word into other languages, e.g. *on Shank's mare* - (on foot), *at sixes and sevens* - (in a mess) etc; b) **unities** where the meaning of the whole can be guessed from the meanings of its components, but it is transferred (metaphorical or metonymical), e.g. *to play the first fiddle* (to be a leader in something), *old salt* (experienced sailor), etc; c) **collocations** where words are combined in their original meaning but their combinations are different in different languages, e.g. *cash and carry* - (self-service shop), *in a big way* (in great degree), etc.

STRUCTURAL CLASSIFICATION OF PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS

Prof. A.I. Smirnitsky worked out structural classification of phraseological units, comparing them with words. He points out one-top units which he compares with derived words because derived words have only one root morpheme. He points out two-top units which he compares with compound words because in compound words we usually have two root morphemes.

Among one-top units he points out three structural types; a) units of the type «to give up» (verb + postposition type), e.g. *to art up*, *to back up*, *to drop out*, *to nose out*, *to buy into*, *to sandwich in*, etc.; b) units of the type «to be tired». Some of these units remind the Passive Voice in their structure but they have different prepositions with them, while in the Passive Voice we can have

only prepositions «*by*» or «*with*», e.g. *to be tired of*, *to be interested in*, *to be surprised at* etc.

There are also units in this type which remind free word-groups of the type «to be young», e.g. *to be akin to*, *to be aware of* etc. The difference between them is that the adjective «young» can be used as an attribute and as a predicative in a sentence, while the nominal component in such units can act only as a predicative. In these units the verb is the grammar centre and the second component is the semantic centre; c) prepositional- nominal phraseological units. These units are equivalents of unchangeable words: prepositions, conjunctions, adverbs, that is why they have no grammar centre, their semantic centre is the nominal part, e.g. *on the doorstep* (quite near), *on the nose* (exactly), *in the course of*, *on the stroke of*, *in time*, *on the point of* etc. In the course of time such units can become words, e.g. *tomorrow*, *instead*, etc.

Among two-top units A.I. Smirnitsky points out the following structural types: a) **attributive-nominal** such as: *a month of Sundays*, *grey matter*, *a millstone round one's neck* and many others. Units of this type are noun equivalents and can be partly or perfectly idiomatic. In partly idiomatic units (phrasisms) sometimes the first component is idiomatic, e.g. *high road*, in other cases the second component is idiomatic, e.g. *first night*.

In many cases both components are idiomatic, e.g. *red tape*, *blind alley*, *bed of nail*, *shot in the arm* and many others. b) **verb-nominal phraseological units**, e.g. *to read between the lines*, *to speak BBC*, *to sweep under the carpet* etc. The grammar centre of such units is the verb, the semantic centre in many cases is the nominal component, e.g. *to fall in love*. In some units the verb is both the grammar and the semantic centre, e.g. *not to know the ropes*. These units can be perfectly idiomatic as well, e.g. *to burn one's boats*, *to vote with one's feet*, *to take to the cleaners* etc.

Very close to such units are word-groups of the type *to have a glance*, *to have a smoke*. These units are not idiomatic and are treated in grammar as a special syntactical combination, a kind of aspect. c) **phraseological repetitions**, such as: *now or never*, *part and parcel*, *country and western*, etc. Such units can be built on antonyms, e.g. *ups and downs*, *back and forth*; often they are formed by means of alliteration, e.g. *cakes and ale*, *as busy as a bee*. Components in repetitions are joined by means of conjunctions. These units are equivalents of adverbs or adjectives and have no grammar centre. They can also be partly or perfectly idiomatic, e.g. *cool as a cucumber* (partly), *bread and butter* (perfectly).

Phraseological units the same as compound words can have more than two tops (stems in compound words), e.g. *to take a back seat*, *a peg to hang a thing on*, *lock, stock and barrel*, *to be a shadow of one's own self*, *at one's own sweet will*.

SYNTACTICAL CLASSIFICATION OF PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS

Phraseological units can be classified *as parts of speech*. This classification was suggested by I.V. Arnold. Here we have the following groups: a) *noun phraseologisms* denoting an object, a person, a living being, e.g. bullet train, latchkey child, redbrick university, Green Berets, b) *verb phraseologisms* denoting an action, a state, a feeling, e.g. to break the log-jam, to get on somebody's coattails, to be on the beam, to nose out, to make headlines, c) *adjective phraseologisms* denoting a quality, e.g. loose as a goose, dull as lead, d) *adverb phraseological units*, such as: with a bump, in the soup, like a dream, like a dog with two tails, e) *preposition phraseological units*, e.g. in the course of, on the stroke of, f) *interjection phraseological units*, e.g. «Catch me!», «Well, I never!» etc.

In I.V. Arnold's classification there are also sentence equivalents, proverbs, sayings and quotations, e.g. «The sky is the limit», «What makes him tick», «I am easy». Proverbs are usually metaphorical, e.g. «Too many cooks spoil the broth», while sayings are as a rule non-metaphorical, e.g. «Where there is a will there is a way».

Professor A. V. Koonin includes proverbs in his classification of phraseological units and labels them communicative phraseological units. From his point of view, one of the main criteria of a phraseological unit is its stability.

Proverbs, if viewed in their structural aspect, are sentences, and so cannot be used in the way in which phraseological units are used in the above examples.

If one compares proverbs and phraseological units in the semantic aspect, the difference seems to become even more obvious. Proverbs could be best compared with minute fables for, like the latter, they sum up the collective experience of the community. They moralise (Hell is paved with good intentions), give advice (Don't judge a tree by its bark), give warning (If you sing before breakfast, you will cry before night), admonish (Liars should have good memories), criticise (Everyone calls his own geese swans).

Questions for discussion:

1. What do we mean when we say that an idiom has a "double" meaning?
2. Why is it very important to use idioms with care? Should foreign-language students use them? Give reasons for your answer.
3. The term "phraseological unit" is used by most Russian scholars. What other terms are used to describe the same word-groups?
4. How can you show that the "freedom" of free word-groups is relative and arbitrary?
5. What are the two major criteria for distinguishing between phraseological units and free word-groups?

6. How would you explain the term "grammatical in variability" of phraseological units?
7. How do proverbs differ from phraseological units?
8. Can proverbs be regarded as a subdivision of phraseological units? Give reasons for your answer.

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Chapter 12

CHARACTERISTIC FEATURES OF THE MODERN ENGLISH VOCABULARY

THE ENGLISH WORD – STOCK

1. The volume of the English vocabulary and its use. The changes in the vocabulary and their causes
2. The role of borrowing in English
3. The systematic character of the English vocabulary
4. Etymological survey of the English word-stock.
5. The discussion of the role of words in the language.
6. The native words and their properties.
7. Borrowed words and their properties.
8. Linguistic and extra-linguistic factors to the borrowing of words.
9. Classification of borrowings according to the language from which they were borrowed
10. Etymological doublets

The vocabulary of modern English is great in volume, comprehensive and heterogeneous in character. It contains more than half a million words and set

expressions. The exact number of vocabulary units in Modern English cannot be stated for a number of reasons. The principal one is the constant change, the constant growth of the English vocabulary. The changes in the vocabulary are due to linguistic and extralinguistic causes.

The characteristic features and peculiarities of the English vocabulary include: a great number of borrowings, polysemantic words and homonyms.

The systematic character of the vocabulary is determined by its status of one of the most important level-systems of the language and is proved by the possibility of classifying words in various ways.

ETYMOLOGICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE ENGLISH VOCABULARY

1. The etymological background of the English vocabulary. Native words in English
2. Borrowings in the English vocabulary: main groups of loan words in English. Translation loans and semantic borrowings
3. Assimilation of borrowings. Types of assimilation. Degrees of assimilation. Folk or false etymology
4. International words and etymological doublets in English

Borrowing words from other languages is characteristic of English throughout its history. More than two thirds of the English vocabulary are borrowings. Mostly they are words of Romanic origin (Latin, French, Italian, Spanish). Borrowed words are different from native ones by their phonetic structure, by their morphological structure and also by their grammatical forms. It is also characteristic of borrowings to be non-motivated semantically

Etymology is a branch of Linguistics studying the origin of words, their change and development. According to the etymological principle the English vocabulary is usually divided into: *native words* ($\approx 30\%$) and *borrowed words* ($\approx 70\%$). Native words are words which belong to the original English word-stock. Borrowed words, loan words, or borrowings are words adopted from foreign languages. Native words form the “framework” of the English language as they make up the greatest part of the basic word-stock and possess a higher frequency value than most of the borrowings.

English history is very rich in different types of contacts with other countries, that is why it is very rich in borrowings. The Roman invasion, the adoption of Christianity, Scandinavian and Norman conquests of the British Isles, the development of British colonialism and trade and cultural relations served to increase immensely the English vocabulary. The majority of these borrowings is fully assimilated in English in their pronunciation, grammar, and spelling and can be hardly distinguished from native words.

Borrowings can be classified according to different criteria:

- a) according to *the aspect* which is borrowed,

b) according to the *degree of assimilation*,

c) according to *the language* from which the word was borrowed.

According to their origin and their cognates in other languages native words are subdivided into 3 groups: Indo-European, Common-Germanic and specifically English words, or English words proper.

The most numerous and important groups of borrowings in English are formed by Latin borrowings, Scandinavian borrowings and French borrowings. Celtic borrowings are of primary historical importance for the English language. There are also borrowings from Greek, Italian, Spanish, Russian, and other languages.

Translation loans are words and expressions formed from the material already existing in the language but according to the patterns taken from another language by way of literal morpheme-for-morpheme or word-for-word translation, e.g. wall-newspaper.

Semantic borrowing is the expansion of the semantic structure of a word under the influence of a correlated foreign one.

Assimilation is a process of partial or total conformation of a borrowed word to the phonetical, graphical and morphological standards of the receiving language and its lexico-semantic system. Types of assimilation: phonetical, grammatical, lexical, graphic. According to the degree of assimilation borrowings may be subdivided into completely assimilated, partially assimilated and unassimilated loan words (barbarisms).

The change or the corruption of a borrowed word on the basis of fancied analogy with some well-known word or phrase is called folk or false etymology: Fr *cotelette* > *cutlet*.

International words are words borrowed from one language into several others simultaneously or at short intervals one after another, e.g. *student*, *balalaika*.

Etymological doublets are two or more words of the same language derived originally from the same root but having entered the vocabulary at different periods of time or from different sources, e.g. *price* – *prize* – *praise*.

CLASSIFICATION OF BORROWINGS

ACCORDING TO THE BORROWED ASPECT

There are the following groups: *phonetic borrowings*, *translation loans*, *semantic borrowings*, *morphemic borrowings*.

Phonetic borrowings are most characteristic in all languages, they are called loan words proper. Words are borrowed with their spelling, pronunciation and meaning. Then they undergo assimilation, each sound in the borrowed word is substituted by the corresponding sound of the borrowing language. In some cases the spelling is changed. The structure of the word can also be changed. The position of the stress is very often influenced by the phonetic system of the

borrowing language. The paradigm of the word, and sometimes the meaning of the borrowed word are also changed. Such words as: *labour, travel, table, chair, people* are phonetic borrowings from French; *apparatchik, nomenclature, sputnik* are phonetic borrowings from Russian; *bank, soprano, duet* are phonetic borrowings from Italian, etc.

Translation loans are word-for-word (or morpheme-for-morpheme) translations of some foreign words or expressions. In such cases the notion is borrowed from a foreign language but it is expressed by native lexical units, «*to take the bull by the horns*» (Latin), «*fair sex*» (French), «*living space*» (German) etc. Some translation loans appeared in English from Latin already in the Old English period, e.g. *Sunday (solis dies)*.

There are translation loans from the languages of Indians, such as: «*pipe of peace*», «*pale-faced*», from German «*masterpiece*», «*homesickness*», «*superman*».

Semantic borrowings are such units when a new meaning of the unit existing in the language is borrowed. It can happen when we have two relative languages which have common words with different meanings, e.g. there are semantic borrowings between Scandinavian and English, such as the meaning «*to live*» for the word «*to dwell*» which in Old English had the meaning «*to wander*». Or else the meaning «*дар*», «*подарок*» for the word «*gift*» which in Old English had the meaning «*выкуп за жену*».

Semantic borrowing can appear when an English word was borrowed into some other language, developed there a new meaning and this new meaning was borrowed back into English, e.g. «*brigade*» was borrowed into Russian and formed the meaning «*a working collective*», *бригада*. This meaning was borrowed back into English as a Russian borrowing. The same is true of the English word «*pioneer*».

Morphemic borrowings are borrowings of affixes which occur in the language when many words with identical affixes are borrowed from one language into another, so that the morphemic structure of borrowed words becomes familiar to the people speaking the borrowing language, e.g. we can find a lot of Romanic affixes in the English word-building system, that is why there are a lot of words - hybrids in English where different morphemes have different origin, e.g. «*goddess*», «*beautiful*» etc.

CLASSIFICATION OF BORROWINGS

ACCORDING TO THE DEGREE OF ASSIMILATION

The degree of assimilation of borrowings depends on the following factors:

a) from what group of languages the word was borrowed, if the word belongs to

the same group of languages to which the borrowing language belongs it is assimilated easier, b) in what way the word is borrowed: **orally** or in the **written form**, words borrowed orally are assimilated quicker, c) how often the borrowing is used in the language, the greater the frequency of its usage, the quicker it is assimilated, d) how long the word lives in the language, the longer it lives, the more assimilated it is.

Accordingly borrowings are subdivided into: **completely assimilated**, **partly assimilated** and **non-assimilated (barbarisms)**.

Completely assimilated borrowings are not felt as foreign words in the language; cf. the French word «*sport*» and the native word «*start*».

Completely assimilated verbs belong to regular verbs, e.g. *correct - corrected*. Completely assimilated nouns form their plural by means of *s*-inflexion, e.g. *gate- gates*. In completely assimilated French words the stress has been shifted from the last syllable to the last but one.

Semantic assimilation of borrowed words depends on the words existing in the borrowing language, as a rule, a borrowed word does not bring all its meanings into the borrowing language, if it is polysemantic, e.g. the Russian borrowing «*sputnik*» is used in English only in one of its meanings.

Partly assimilated borrowings are subdivided into the following groups: a) borrowings non-assimilated semantically, because they denote objects and notions peculiar to the country from the language of which they were borrowed, e.g. *sari, sombrero, taiga, kvass*, etc. b) borrowings non-assimilated grammatically, e.g. nouns borrowed from Latin and Greek retain their plural forms (*bacillus - bacilli, phenomenon - phenomena, datum - data, genius - genii* etc. c) borrowings **non-assimilated phonetically**. Here belong words with the initial sounds /*v*/ and /*z*/, e.g. *voice, zero*. In native words these voiced consonants are used only in the intervocalic position as allophones of sounds /*f*/ and /*s*/ (*loss - lose, life - live*). Some Scandinavian borrowings have consonants and combinations of consonants which were not palatalized, e.g. /*sk*/ in the words: *sky, skate, ski*, etc. (in native words we have the palatalized sounds denoted by the digraph «*sh*», e.g. *shirt*); sounds /*k*/ and /*g*/ before front vowels are not palatalized e.g. *girl, get, give, kid, kill, kettle*. In native words we have palatalization, e.g. *German, child*.

Some French borrowings have retained their stress on the last syllable, e.g. *police, cartoon*. Some French borrowings retain special combinations of sounds, e.g. /*a:3*/ in the words: *camouflage, bourgeois*, some of them retain the combination of sounds /*wa:*/ in the words: *memoir, boulevard*. d) borrowings can be partly assimilated graphically, e.g. in Greek borrowings «*y*» can be spelled in the middle of the word (*symbol, synonym*), «*ph*» denotes the sound /*f*/ (*phoneme, morpheme*), «*ch*» denotes the sound /*k*/ (*chemistry, chaos*), «*ps*» denotes the sound /*s*/ (*psychology*).

Latin borrowings retain their polysyllabic structure, have double consonants, as a rule, the final consonant of the prefix is assimilated with the initial consonant of the stem, (*accompany, affirmative*).

French borrowings which came into English after 1650 retain their spelling, e.g. consonants «**p**», «**t**», «**s**» are not pronounced at the end of the word (*buffet, coup, debris*), Specifically French combination of letters «**eau**» /ou/ can be found in the borrowings: *beau, chateau, and trousseau*. Some of digraphs retain their French pronunciation: ‘**ch**’ is pronounced as /sh/, e.g. *chic, parachute*, ‘**qu**’ is pronounced as /k/ e.g. *bouquet*, «**ou**» is pronounced as /u:/, e.g. *rouge*; some letters retain their French pronunciation, e.g. «**i**» is pronounced as /i:/, e.g., *chic, machine*; «**g**» is pronounced as /ʒ/, e.g. *rouge*.

Modern German borrowings also have some peculiarities in their spelling: common nouns are spelled with a capital letter e.g. *Autobahn, Lebensraum*; some vowels and digraphs retain their German pronunciation, e.g. «**a**» is pronounced as /a:/ (*Dictat*), «**u**» is pronounced as /u:/ (*Kuchen*), «**au**» is pronounced as /au/ (*Hausfrau*), «**ei**» is pronounced as /ai/ (*Reich*); some consonants are also pronounced in the German way, e.g. «**s**» before a vowel is pronounced as /z/ (*Blitzkrieg*), «**v**» is pronounced as /f/ (*Volkswagen*), «**w**» is pronounced as /v/, «**ch**» is pronounced as /h/ (*Kuchen*).

Non-assimilated borrowings (barbarisms) are borrowings which are used by Englishmen rather seldom and are non-assimilated, e.g. *adios* (Italian), *tête-à-tête* (French), *dolce vita* (Italian), *duende* (Spanish), *an homme a femme* (French), *gonzo* (Italian) etc.

Etymologically the vocabulary of the English language consists of two groups- the native words and the borrowed words.

The etymological linguistic analysis showed that the borrowed stock of words is larger than the native stock of words. In fact native words comprise only 30% of the total number of words in the English vocabulary. A native word is a word which belongs to the original English stock, which belongs to Anglo-Saxon origin. To the native words we include words from Common Germanic language and from Indo-European stock. Borrowed words are words taken over from other languages. Many linguists consider foreign influence plays the most important role in the history of the English language. But the grammar and phonetic system are very stable (unchangeable) and are not often influenced by other languages. Besides when we speak about the role of native and borrowed words in the English language we must not take into consideration only the number of them but their semantic, stylistic character, their word building ability, frequency value, collocability (valency) and the productivity of their word building patterns. If we approach to the study of the role of native borrowed words from this point of view we see, though the native words are not numerous they play an important role in the English language. They have high

frequency value, great word-forming power, wide collocability, many meanings and they are stylistically neutral. Almost all words of native origin belong to very important semantic groups. They include most of the **auxiliary** and **modal verbs**: *shall, will, should, must, can, may*; **pronouns**: *I, he, my, your, his, who, whose*; **prepositions**: *in, out, on, under, for, of*; **numerals**: *one two three, four, five, six, etc*; **conjunctions**: *and, but, till, as* etc; words denoting parts of body: *head, hand, arm, back, foot, eye* etc; members of a family: *father, mother, brother, son, wife*; natural phenomena and planets: *snow, rain, wind, sun, moon*, animals: *horse, cow, sheep, cat*; common actions: *do, make, go, come, hear, see, eat, speak, talk* etc. All these words are very frequent words; we use them every day in our speech. Many words of native origin possess large clusters of derived and compound words in the present-day language.

Ex. *help - helper, helpful, helpfully, helpfulness, helping, helpingly, helpable, helpably, helped, unhelpable* etc.

Such affixes of native origin as *er, -ness, -ish, -ed, un, -mis, -dom, -hood, -ly, -over, -out, -under, -* are of native origin.

We see that the role of native words in the language is great. Many authors use native words more than foreign ones. Thus Shakespeare used 90% native words and 10% foreign words. Swift used 75% native words.

Borrowed words have been called «the milestones of philology» - said O. Jepsen - because they permit us (show us) to fix approximatively the dates of linguistic changes. They show us the course of civilization and give us information of the nations».

The well-known linguist Shuchard said «No language is entirely pure», that all the languages are mixed. Borrowed words enter the language as a result of influence of two main causes or factors; linguistic and extra-linguistic. Economic, cultural, industrial, political relations of speakers of the language with other countries refer to extra-linguistic factors. The historical development of England also influenced the language. Due to the great influence of the Roman civilization Latin was for a long time used in England as the language of learning and religion. Old Norse of the Scandinavian tribes was the language of the conquerors (9- 10- 11 centuries). French (Norman dialect) was the language of the other conquerors who brought with them a lot new notions of a higher social system, developed feudalism. It was the language of upper classes, of official documents and school (11-14cent). These factors are extra-linguistic ones.

The absence of equivalent words in the language to express new subjects or a phenomena makes people to borrow words. Ex. the words *football, volleyball, michman* in Russian; to economize the linguistic means, i.e. to use a foreign word instead of a long native expressions and others are called linguistic causes.

The closer the two interacting languages are in structure the easier it is for words of one language to penetrate into the other. The fact that Scandinavian borrowings have penetrated into such grammatical classes as prepositions and pronouns (they, them, their, both, same, till) can only be attributed to a similarity in the structure of the two languages.

Borrowings enter the language in two ways: though oral speech (by immediate contact between the people) and though written speech (by indirect contact though books). Words borrowed orally (inch, mill, street, map) are usually short and they undergo more change in the act of adoption. Written borrowings (communiqué, belles-lettres, naïveté, psychology, pagoda etc) are often rather long and they are unknown to many people, speaking English.

ROMANIC BORROWINGS

Latin borrowings

Among words of Romanic origin borrowed from Latin during the period when the British Isles were a part of the Roman Empire, there are such words as: street, port, wall etc. Many Latin and Greek words came into English during the Adoption of Christianity in the 6th century. At this time the Latin alphabet was borrowed which ousted the Runic alphabet. These borrowings are usually called classical borrowings. Here belong Latin words: *alter*, *cross*, *dean*, and Greek words: *church*, *angel*, *devil*, *anthem*.

Latin and Greek borrowings appeared in English during the Middle English period due to the Great Revival of Learning. These are mostly scientific words because Latin was the language of science at the time. These words were not used as frequently as the words of the Old English period, therefore some of them were partly assimilated grammatically, e.g. *formula* - *formulae*. Here also belong such words as: *memorandum*, *minimum*, *maximum*, *veto*, etc.

Classical borrowings continue to appear in Modern English as well. Mostly they are words formed with the help of Latin and Greek morphemes. There are quite a lot of them in medicine (*appendicitis*, *aspirin*), in chemistry (*acid*, *valency*, *alkali*), in technique (*engine*, *antenna*, *biplane*, *airdrome*), in politics (*socialism*, *militarism*), names of sciences (*zoology*, *physics*).

In philology most of terms are of Greek origin (*homonym*, *archaism*, *lexicography*).

French borrowings

The influence of French on the English spelling

The largest groups of borrowings are French borrowings. Most of them came into English during the Norman Conquest. French influenced not only the vocabulary of English but also its spelling, because documents were written by French scribes as the local population was mainly illiterate, and the ruling class was French. Runic letters remaining in English after the Latin alphabet was borrowed were substituted by Latin letters and combinations of letters, e.g. «v»

was introduced for the voiced consonant /v/ instead of «f» in the intervocalic position /*lufian - love*/, the digraph «ch» was introduced to denote the sound /ch/ instead of the letter «c» / *chest*/ before front vowels where it had been palatalized, the digraph «sh» was introduced instead of the combination «sc» to denote the sound /sh/ /*ship*/, the digraph «th» was introduced instead of the Runic letters «0» and « » /*this, thing*/, the letter «y» was introduced instead of the Runic letter «3» to denote the sound /j/ /*yet*/, the digraph «qu» substituted the combination «cw» to denote the combination of sounds /kw/ /*queen*/, the digraph «ou» was introduced to denote the sound /u:/ /*house*/. (The sound /u:/ was later on diphthongized and is pronounced /au/ in native words and fully assimilated borrowings). As it was difficult for French scribes to copy English texts they substituted the letter «u» before «v», «m», «n» and the digraph «th» by the letter «o» to escape the combination of many vertical lines /*«sunu» - «son», luvu» - «love»*/.

Borrowing of French words

There are the following semantic groups of French borrowings: a) words relating **to government**: *administer, empire, state, government*; b) words relating to **military affairs**: *army, war, banner, soldier, battle*; c) words relating to **jury**: *advocate, petition, inquest, sentence, barrister*; d) words relating to **fashion**: *luxury, coat, collar, lace, pleat, embroidery*; e) words relating to **jewelry**: *topaz, emerald, ruby, pearl*; f) words relating to **food** and **cooking**: *lunch, dinner, appetite, to roast, to stew*.

Words were borrowed from French into English after 1650, mainly through French literature, but they were not as numerous and many of them are not completely assimilated. There are the following semantic groups of these borrowings: a) words relating **to literature** and **music**: *belle-lettres, conservatoire, brochure, nuance, pirouette, vaudeville*; b) words relating to **military affairs**: *corps, echelon, fuselage, maneuver*; c) words relating to **buildings** and **furniture**: *entresol, chateau, bureau*; d) words relating to **food** and **cooking**: *ragout, cuisine*.

Italian borrowings

Cultural and trade relations between Italy and England brought many Italian words into English. The earliest Italian borrowing came into English in the 14-th century, it was the word «*bank*» /from the Italian «*banko*» - «*bench*»/. Italian money-lenders and money-changers sat in the streets on benches. When they suffered losses they turned over their benches, it was called «*banco rotta*» from which the English word «*bankrupt*» originated. In the 17-th century some **geological terms** were borrowed: *volcano, granite, bronze, lava*. At the same time some **political terms** were borrowed: *manifesto, bulletin*. But mostly Italian is famous by its influence in music and in all Indo-European languages **musical**

terms were borrowed from Italian: *alto, baritone, basso, tenor, falsetto, solo, duet, trio, quartet, quintet, opera, operetta, libretto, piano, violin.*

Among the 20-th century Italian borrowings we can mention: *gazette, incognito, autostrada, fiasco, fascist, dilettante, grotesque, graffito* etc.

Spanish borrowings

Spanish borrowings came into English mainly through its American variant.

There are the following semantic groups of them: a) *trade terms*: *cargo, embargo*; b) *names of dances* and *musical instruments*: *tango, rumba, habanera, guitar*; c) *names of vegetables* and *fruit*: *tomato, potato, tobacco, cocoa, banana, ananas, apricot* etc.

GERMANIC BORROWINGS

English belongs to the Germanic group of languages and there are borrowings from Scandinavian, German and Holland languages, though their number is much less than borrowings from Romanic languages.

Scandinavian borrowings

By the end of the Old English period English underwent a strong influence of Scandinavian due to the Scandinavian conquest of the British Isles.

Scandinavians belonged to the same group of peoples as Englishmen and their languages had much in common. As the result of this conquest there are about 700 borrowings from Scandinavian into English.

Scandinavians and Englishmen had the same way of life, their cultural level was the same, and they had much in common in their literature therefore there were many words in these languages which were almost identical, e.g. ON OE - Modern E *yster sweoster sister fiscr fisc fish felagi felawe fellow.*

However there were also many words in the two languages which were different, and some of them were borrowed into English, such nouns as: *bull, cake, egg, kid, knife, skirt, window* etc, such adjectives as: *flat, ill, happy, low, odd, ugly, wrong*, such verbs as : *call, die, guess, get, give, scream* and many others.

Even some pronouns and connective words were borrowed which happens very seldom, such as: *same, both, till, fro, though*, and pronominal forms with «th»: *they, them, their.*

Scandinavian influenced the development of phrasal verbs which did not exist in Old English, at the same time some prefixed verbs came out of usage, e.g. *ofniman, beniman*. Phrasal verbs are now highly productive in English /*take off, give in* etc/.

German borrowings

There are some 800 words borrowed from German into English. Some of them have classical roots, e.g. in some *geological terms*, such as: *cobalt, bismuth, zink, quarts, gneiss, wolfram*. There were also words denoting objects

used in everyday life which were borrowed from German: *iceberg, lobby, rucksack, Kindergarten* etc.

In the period of the Second World War the following words were borrowed: *Volkssturm, Luftwaffe, SS-man, Bundeswehr, gestapo, gas chamber* and many others. After the Second World War the following words were borrowed: *Berufsverbot, Volkswagen* etc.

Holland borrowings

Holland and England have constant interrelations for many centuries and more than 2000 Holland borrowings were borrowed into English. Most of them are *nautical terms* and were mainly borrowed in the 14-th century, such as: *freight, skipper, pump, keel, dock, reef, deck, leak* and many others.

Besides two main groups of borrowings (Romanic and Germanic) there are also borrowings from a lot of other languages. We shall speak about Russian borrowings, borrowings from the language which belongs to Slavonic languages.

Russian borrowings

There were constant contacts between England and Russia and they borrowed words from one language into the other. Among early Russian borrowings there are mainly words connected with *trade relations*, such as: *rouble, kopeck, pood, sterlet, vodka, sable*, and also words relating to *nature*, such as: *taiga, tundra, steppe* etc.

There is also a large group of Russian borrowings which came into English through Russian literature of the 19-th century, such as: *Narodnik, moujik, дума, and zemstvo, volost, ukase*, etc., and also words which were formed in Russian with Latin roots, such as: *nihilist, intelligenza, Decembrist*, etc.

After the Great October Revolution many new words appeared in Russian connected with the new political system, new culture, and many of them were borrowed into English, such as: *collectivization, udarnik, Komsomol*, etc. and also translation loans, such as: *shock worker, collective farm, five- year plan*, etc.

One more group of Russian borrowings is connected with perestroika, such as: *glasnost, nomenclature, apparatchik*, etc.

ETYMOLOGICAL DOUBLETS

Sometimes a word is borrowed twice from the same language. As the result, we have two different words with different spellings and meanings but historically they come back to one and the same word. Such words are called *etymological doublets*. In English there are some groups of them:

Latino-French doublets

Latin- English from Latin- English from French: *uncia inch ounce moneta mint money camera camera chamber*;

Franco-French doublets borrowed from different dialects of French:

Norman Paris: *canal channel captain chieftain catch chaise*

Scandinavian-English doublets

Scandinavian- English: *skirt shirt scabby shabby*.

There are also etymological doublets which were borrowed from the same language during different historical periods, such as French doublets: *gentle* - *любезный, благородный*, etymological doublets are: *gentle* - *мягкий, вежливый* and *genteel* - *благородный*. From the French word *gallant* etymological doublets are: '*gallant* - *храбрый* and *gallant* - *галантный, внимательный*.

Sometimes etymological doublets are the result of borrowing different grammatical forms of the same word, e.g. the Comparative degree of Latin «*super*» was «*superior*» which was borrowed into English with the meaning «*high in some quality or rank*». The Superlative degree (Latin «*supremus*») in English «*supreme*» with the meaning «*outstanding*», «*prominent*». So «*superior*» and «*supreme*» are etymological doublets.

English continues to take in foreign words, but now the quantity of borrowings is not so abundant as it was before. All the more so, English now has become a «giving» language, it has become Lingva franca of the twentieth century.

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Questions for discussion:

- I. Consider your answers to the following:
 1. Which conditions stimulate the borrowing process?
 2. Why are words borrowed?
 3. What stages of assimilation do borrowings go through?
 4. In what spheres of communication do international words frequently occur?
 5. What do we understand by etymological doublets?
 6. What are the characteristic features of translation-loans?
 7. How are the etymological and stylistic characteristics of words interrelated?

II. Explain the etymology of the following words. Write them out in three columns: a) fully assimilated words; b) partially assimilated words; c) unassimilated words. Explain the reasons for your choice in each case.

Pen, hors d'oeuvre, ballet, beet, butter, skin, take, cup, police, distance, monk, garage, phenomenon,

Chapter 13

STYLISTIC DIFFERENTIATION OF THE ENGLISH VOCABULARY. STYLISTIC LAYERS OF THE ENGLISH VOCABULARY

1. Functional Styles. The system of the stylistic differentiation of the English Vocabulary. Neutral words. Standard English Vocabulary

2. Literary-bookish vocabulary in English: General Literary-Bookish and Special Literary-Bookish words.

3. The informal conversational vocabulary in English. Colloquialisms in English:

a) literary-colloquial words

b) familiar colloquial words

4. Substandard colloquial vocabulary in English:

a) low colloquial words/vernacular words

b) dialect words

c) vulgarisms

d) the problem of slang

Just as there is formal and informal dress, so there is formal and informal speech. The social context in which the communication is taking place determines both the mode of dress and the modes of speech. When placed in different situations, people instinctively choose different kinds of words and structures to express their thoughts. The suitability or unsuitability of a word for each particular situation depends on its stylistic characteristics or, in other words, on the functional style it represents.

The term *functional style* is generally accepted in modern linguistics. Professor I. V. Arnold defines it as "a system of expressive means peculiar to a specific sphere of communication". [23]

By the sphere of communication we mean the circumstances attending the process of speech in each particular case: professional communication, a lecture, an informal talk, a formal letter, an intimate letter, a speech in court, etc.

All these circumstances or situations can be roughly classified into two types: **formal** (a lecture, a speech in court, an official letter, professional communication) and **informal** (an informal talk, an intimate letter).

Accordingly, functional styles are classified into two groups, with further subdivisions depending on different situations.

The use of words in certain functional styles is determined by the character of the stylistic component of meaning in their semantic structure.

Part of the words a speaker uses is independent of the sphere of communication. These words may be used in any situation. They are called stylistically neutral words, or stylistically unmarked words. They are used in all functional styles and form the core of Standard English Vocabulary.

Informal vocabulary is used in one's immediate circle: family, relatives or friends. One uses informal words when at home or when feeling at home.

Informal style is relaxed, free-and-easy, familiar and unpretentious. But it should be pointed out that the informal talk of well-educated people considerably differs from that of the illiterate or the semi-educated; the choice of words with adults is different from the vocabulary of teenagers; people living in the provinces use certain regional words and expressions. Consequently, the choice of words is determined in each particular case not only by an informal (or formal) situation, but also by the speaker's educational and cultural background, age group, and his occupational and regional characteristics.

Informal words and word-groups are traditionally divided into three types: colloquial, slang and dialect words and word-groups.

All the words below standard vocabulary in the system of the stylistic differentiation of the English vocabulary form sub-standard (non-standard) vocabulary, including familiar colloquial words, slang, vernacular, dialect words and vulgarisms.

Words suitable only on certain definite occasions in specific spheres of communication, characteristic only of certain functional styles are called stylistically marked (coloured) words. According to the character of the connotational stylistic component and the prevalent sphere of usage stylistically coloured words fall into two large groups, or stylistic layers, of the English vocabulary: formal, or literary-bookish, and informal, or conversational, colloquial.

So, from the stylistic point of view the English vocabulary may be subdivided into stylistically unmarked neutral words and two stylistically marked layers of words opposed to each other.

Literary-bookish words may be subdivided into General Literary-Bookish words and Functional, or Special Literary-Bookish words. General Literary-Bookish words are known to all educated speakers irrespective of their profession or occupation. They are typical of written speech and are chiefly used in writing and in polished speech. The term "learned" includes several heterogeneous subdivisions of words. Here we find: numerous words of scientific prose, the so called "officialese" and literary, refined words.

Functional (Special) Literary-Bookish words include: terms, poetic words, neologisms, archaic words and historical words, foreign words, or barbarisms.

Words and expressions of the informal, or conversational (colloquial) layer of the English vocabulary are used in personal oral, spontaneous, two-way everyday communication, usually in dialogues. The informal layer of the English vocabulary is represented by the following groups: colloquialisms, slang, vulgarisms, vernacular words, dialect words, neologisms of the conversational character. Colloquial words and expressions lie on the boundary line between Standard and Substandard English Vocabulary. The group of colloquialism being wide in range is subdivided into literary-colloquial words and familiar colloquial words.

Among other informal words, colloquialisms are the least exclusive: they are used by everybody, and their sphere of communication is comparatively wide, at least of literary colloquial words. These are informal words that are used in everyday conversational speech both by cultivated and uneducated people of all age groups.

All or most slang words are current words whose meanings have been metaphorically shifted. Each slang metaphor is rooted in a joke, but not in a kind or amusing joke. This is the criterion for distinguishing slang from colloquialisms: most slang words are metaphors and jocular, often with a coarse, mocking, cynical colouring.

Then why do people use slang?

For a number of reasons. To be picturesque, arresting, striking and, above all, different from others. To avoid the tedium of outmoded hackneyed "common" words. To demonstrate one's spiritual independence and daring. To sound "modern" and "up-to-date".

H. W. Fowler defines a dialect as "a variety of a language which prevails in a district, with local peculiarities of vocabulary, pronunciation and phrase". [19] England is a small country, yet it has many dialects which have their own distinctive features (e. g. the Lancashire, Dorsetshire, Norfolk dialects).

So *dialects* are regional forms of English. Standard English is defined by the Random House Dictionary as the English language as it is written and spoken by literate people in both formal and informal usage and that is universally current while incorporating regional differences.

The formal style is restricted to formal situations. In general, formal words fall into two main groups: words associated with professional communication and a less exclusive group of so-called learned words.

Learned Words

These words are mainly associated with *the printed page*. It is in this vocabulary stratum that *poetry* and *fiction* find their main resources.

The term "learned" is not precise and does not adequately describe the exact characteristics of these words. A somewhat out-of-date term for the same category of words is "**bookish**", but, as E. Partridge notes, "**'book-learned'** and 'bookish' are now uncomplimentary. The corresponding complimentaries are 'erudite', 'learned', 'scholarly'. 'Book-learned' and 'bookish' connote 'ignorant of life', however much book-learning one may possess". [30]

The term "learned" includes several heterogeneous subdivisions of words. We find here numerous words that are used in *scientific prose* and can be identified by their dry, matter-of-fact flavour (e. g. *comprise, compile, experimental, heterogeneous, homogeneous, conclusive, divergent*, etc.).

To this group also belongs so-called "**officialese**" (cf. with the R. *канцеляризм*). These are the words of the official, bureaucratic language. E. Partridge in his dictionary *Usage and Abusage* gives a list of officialese which he thinks should be avoided in speech and in print. Here are some words from Partridge's list: *assist (for help), endeavour (for try), proceed (for go), approximately (for about), sufficient (for enough), attired (for dressed), inquire (for ask)*.

In the same dictionary an official letter from a Government Department is quoted which may very well serve as a typical example of officialese. It goes: "You are authorized to acquire the work in question by purchase through the ordinary trade channels." Which, translated into plain English, would simply mean: "We advise you to buy the book in a shop." [38]

Probably the most interesting subdivision of learned words is represented by the words found in descriptive passages of fiction. These words, which may be called "literary", also have a particular flavour of their own, usually described as "refined". They are mostly polysyllabic words drawn from the Romance languages and, though fully adapted to the English phonetic system, some of them continue to sound singularly foreign. They also seem to retain an aloofness associated with the lofty contexts in which they have been used for centuries. Their very sound seems to create complex and solemn associations. Here are some examples: *solitude, sentiment, fascination, fastidiousness, facetiousness, delusion, meditation, felicity, elusive, cordial, illusionary*.

There is one further subdivision of learned words: modes of poetic diction. These stand close to the previous group many words from which, in fact, belong to both these categories. Yet, **poetic words** have a further characteristic — a lofty, high-flown, sometimes archaic, colouring:

*"Alas! they had been friends in youth; But whispering tongues can poison truth
And constancy lives in realms above; And life is thorny; and youth is vain; And
to be wroth with one we love, Doth work like madness in the brain..."*
(Coleridge)

Archaic and Obsolete Words

These words stand close to the "learned" words, particularly to the modes of poetic diction. Learned words and archaisms are both associated with the printed page. Yet, as we have seen, many learned words may also be used in conversational situations. This cannot happen with *archaisms*, which are invariably restricted to the printed page. These words are moribund, already partly or fully out of circulation, rejected by the living language. Their last refuge is in historical novels (whose authors use them to create a particular period atmosphere) and, of course, in poetry which is rather conservative in its choice of words.

Thou and thy, aye ("yes") and nay ("no") are certainly archaic and long since rejected by common usage, yet poets use them even today. (We also find the same four words and many other archaisms among dialectisms, which is quite natural, as dialects are also conservative and retain archaic words and structures.)

Numerous archaisms can be found in Shakespeare, but it should be taken into consideration that what appear to us today as archaisms in the works of Shakespeare, are in fact examples of everyday language of Shakespeare's time.

Sometimes, an archaic word may undergo a sudden revival. So, the formerly archaic *kin* (for relatives; one's family) is now current in American usage.

The terms "archaic" and "obsolete" are used more or less indiscriminately by some authors. Others make a distinction between them using the term "obsolete" for words which have completely gone out of use. The Random House Dictionary defines an *obsolete word* as one "no longer in use, esp. out of use for at least a century", whereas *an archaism* is referred to as "current in an earlier time but rare in present usage".

It should be pointed out that the borderline between "obsolete" and "archaic" is vague and uncertain, and in many cases it is difficult to decide to which of the groups this or that word belongs.

There is a further term for words which are no longer in use: *historisms*. By this we mean words denoting objects and phenomena which are, things of the past and no longer exist.

Professional Terminology

Hundreds of thousands of words belong to special scientific, professional or trade terminological systems and are not used or even understood by people outside the particular speciality. Every field of modern activity has its specialised vocabulary. There is a special medical vocabulary, and similarly special terminologies for psychology, botany, music, linguistics, teaching methods and many others.

Term, as traditionally understood, is a word or a word-group which is specifically employed by a particular branch of science, technology, trade or the arts to convey a concept peculiar to this particular activity.

So, *bilingual*, *interdental*, *labialization*, *palatalization*, *glottal stop*, *descending scale* are terms of theoretical phonetics.

There are several controversial problems in the field of terminology. The first is the puzzling question of whether a term loses its terminological status when it comes into common usage. Today this is a frequent occurrence, as various elements of the media of communication (TV, radio, popular magazines, science fiction, etc.) ply people with scraps of knowledge from different scientific fields, technology and the arts. It is quite natural that under the circumstances numerous terms pass into general usage without losing connection with their specific fields.

There are linguists in whose opinion terms are only those words which have retained their exclusiveness and are not known or recognised outside their specific sphere. From this point of view, words associated with the medical sphere, such as *unit* ("доза лекарственного препарата"), *theatre* ("операционная"), *contact* ("носитель инфекции") are no longer medical terms as they are in more or less common usage. The same is certainly true about names of diseases or medicines, with the exception of some rare or recent ones only known to medical men.

There is yet another point of view, according to which any terminological system is supposed to include all the words and word-groups conveying concept peculiar to a particular branch of knowledge, regardless of their exclusiveness. Modern research of various terminological systems has shown that there is no impenetrable wall between terminology and the general language system. To the contrary, terminologies seem to obey the same rules and laws as other vocabulary strata. Therefore, exchange between terminological systems and the "common" vocabulary is quite normal, and it would be wrong to regard a term as something "special" and standing apart.

Two other controversial problems deal with polysemy and synonymy.

According to some linguists, an "ideal" term should be monosemantic (i. e. it should have only one meaning). Polysemantic terms may lead to misunderstanding, and that is a serious shortcoming in professional communication. This requirement seems quite reasonable, yet facts of the language do not meet it. There are, in actual fact, numerous polysemantic terms. The linguistic term semantics may mean both the meaning of a word and the branch of lexicology studying meanings. In the terminology of painting, the term colour may denote *hue* ("цвет") and, at the same time, *stuff* used for *colouring* ("краска").

The same is true about synonymy in terminological systems. There are scholars who insist that terms should not have synonyms because, consequently, scientists and other specialists would name the same objects and phenomena in their field by different terms and would not be able to come to any agreement. This may be true. But, in fact, terms do possess synonyms. In painting, the same term colour has several synonyms in both its meanings: *hue, shade, tint, tinge* in the first meaning ("цвет") and paint, tint, dye in the second ("краска").

Basic Vocabulary

These words are stylistically neutral, and, in this respect, opposed to formal and informal words described above. Their stylistic neutrality makes it possible to use them in all kinds of situations, both formal and informal, in verbal and written communication.

Certain of the stylistically marked vocabulary strata are, in a way, exclusive: *professional terminology* is used mostly by representatives of the professions; *dialects* are regional; *slang* is favoured mostly by the young and the uneducated. Not so *basic vocabulary*. These words are used every day, everywhere and by everybody, regardless of profession, occupation, educational level, age group or geographical location. These are words without which no human communication would be possible as they denote objects and phenomena of everyday importance (e. g. *house, bread, summer, winter, child, mother, green, difficult, to go, to stand*, etc.).

The basic vocabulary is the central group of the vocabulary, its historical foundation and living core. That is why words of this stratum show a considerably greater stability in comparison with words of the other strata, especially informal.

Basic vocabulary words can be recognised not only by *their stylistic neutrality* but, also, by entire lack of other *connotations* (i. e. *attendant meanings*). Their meanings are broad, general and directly convey the concept, without supplying any additional information.

For instance, the verb *to walk* means merely "*to move from place to place on foot*" whereas in the meanings of its synonyms *to stride, to stroll, to trot, to stagger* and others, some additional information is encoded as they each describe a different manner of walking, a different gait, tempo, purposefulness or lack of purpose and even length of paces (see Ch. 10). Thus, *to walk*, with its direct broad meaning, is a typical basic vocabulary word, and its synonyms, with their elaborate additional information encoded in their meanings, belong to the periphery of the vocabulary.

The basic vocabulary and the stylistically marked strata of the vocabulary do not exist independently but are closely interrelated. Most stylistically marked words have their neutral counterparts in the basic vocabulary. (Terms are an exception in this respect.) On the other hand, colloquialisms may have their

counterparts among learned words, most slang has counterparts both among colloquialisms and learned words. Archaisms, naturally, have their modern equivalents at least in some of the other groups.

The table gives some examples of such synonyms belonging to different stylistic strata.

Basic vocabulary	Informal	Formal
begin	start, get started	commence
continue	go on, get on	proceed
end	finish, be through, be over	terminate
child, baby	kid, brat, beam (dial.)	infant, babe (poet.)

In teaching a foreign language, the basic vocabulary words comprise the first and absolutely essential part of the students' functional and recognition vocabularies. They constitute the beginner's vocabulary. Yet, to restrict the student to the basic vocabulary would mean to deprive his speech of colour, expressive force and emotive shades, for, if basic vocabulary words are absolutely necessary, they also decidedly lack something: they are not at all the kind of words to tempt a writer or a poet. Actually, if the language had none other but basic vocabulary words, fiction would be hardly readable, and poetry simply non-existent.

The following table sums up the description of the stylistic strata of English vocabulary.

Stylistically-neutral words	Stylistically-marked words	
	Informal	Formal
Basic vocabulary	I. Colloquial words A. literary. B. familiar, C. low. II. Slang words. III. Dialect words.	I. Learned words A. literary. B. words of scientific prose, C. officialese. D. modes of poetic diction. II. Archaic and obsolete III. Professional

Questions for discussion:

1. What determines the choice of stylistically marked words in each particular situation?
2. In what situations are informal words used?
3. What are the main kinds of informal words?
4. Give a brief description of each group.
5. Where are formal words used?

6. Are learned words used only in books? Which type of learned words, do you think, is especially suitable for verbal communication? Which is least suitable and even undesirable?
7. What are the principal characteristics of archaic words?
8. What are the controversial problems connected with professional terminology?
9. Do you think that students of English should learn terms? If so, for which branch or branches of knowledge?
10. What is understood by the basic vocabulary?
11. Which classes of stylistically marked words, in your opinion, should be included in the students' functional and recognition vocabularies in 1) junior and 2) senior school vocabularies?

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Chapter 14

THE VOCABULARY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE OUTSIDE GREAT BRITAIN

1. Standard English, local dialects, language variants
2. The English language in the world
3. American English. Main language variants of English
4. Vocabulary differences in the language variants

Standard English is the official language of Great Britain taught at schools and universities, used by the press, the radio and television and spoken by educated people. It is that form of English that is current and literary, substantially uniform and recognized as acceptable wherever English is spoken or understood.” Modern linguistics distinguishes territorial variants of a national language and local dialects. Variants of a language are regional varieties possessing a literary form. Besides British English there are two variants of English on the territory of the British Isles: Scottish English and Irish English. The main variants of the English language in the world are English in the USA, or American English, English in Canada, or Canadian English, English in Australia, or Australian English, English in New Zealand.

On the British Isles there are some local varieties of English which developed from Old English local dialects. There are six groups of them: Lowland /Scottish/, Northern, Western, Midland, Eastern, Southern. These varieties are used in oral speech by the local population. Only the Scottish dialect has its own literature /R. Burns/.

One of the best known dialects of British English is the dialect of London - Cockney. Some peculiarities of this dialect can be seen in the first act of «Pygmalion» by B. Shaw, such as: interchange of /v/ and /w/ e.g. wery vell; interchange of /f/ and /θ/, /v/ and / /, e. g/ *fi*ng /*thi*ng/ and *fa:ve* / *fa*ther/; interchange of /h/ and /-/, e.g. «'eart» for «heart» and «hart» for «art; substituting the diphthong /ai/ by /ei/ e.g. «day» is pronounced /dai/; substituting /au/ by /a:/, e.g. «house» is pronounced /ha:s/, «now» /na:/; substituting /ou/ by /o:/ e.g. «don't» is pronounced /do:nt/ or substituting it by / / in unstressed positions, e.g. «window» is pronounced /wind /.

Another feature of Cockney is rhyming slang: «hat» is «tit for tat», «wife» is «trouble and strife», «head» is «loaf of bread» etc. There are also such words as «tanner» /sixpence/, «peckish»/hungry/.

Peter Wain in the «Education Guardian» writes about accents spoken by University teachers: «It is a variety of Southern English RP which is different from Daniel Jones's description. The English, public school leavers speak, is called «marked RP», it has some characteristic features: the vowels are more central than in English taught abroad, e.g. «bleck het»/for «black hat»/, some diphthongs are also different, e.g. «house» is pronounced /hais/. There is less aspiration in /p/, /b/, /t/ /d/.

The American English is practically uniform all over the country, because of the constant transfer of people from one part of the country to the other. However, some peculiarities in New York dialect can be pointed out, such as: there is no distinction between / / and /a:/ in words: «ask», «dance» «sand» «bad», both phonemes are possible. The combination «ir» in the words: «bird», «girl» «ear» in the word «learn» is pronounced as /oi/ e.g. /boid/, /goil/, /loin/. In the words «duty», «tune» /j/ is not pronounced /du:ti/, /tu:n/.

Local dialects are varieties of the English language characteristic for and used in some localities (districts), which have no normalized literary form. There are 5 main groups of dialects in England and Wales, which include from two to ten dialects each: Northern dialects (3), Midland dialects (10), Eastern dialects (4), Western dialects (2), Southern dialects (8). There are also 9 dialects in Scotland and 3 in Ireland. Cockney is the local Southern dialect of London. As spoken by the uneducated Londoners Cockney differs greatly from Standard English in phonetics, grammar and vocabulary.

The English language was brought to the American continent at the beginning of the 17th century and to Australia and New Zealand at the end of the

18th century. It was inevitable that on the new territories in the new conditions the subsequent development of the English language diverged from that of British English. Thus, variants of the English language have developed in the USA, Canada, Australia, New Zealand and other English speaking countries, which differ from British English by their peculiar pronunciation, grammar and spelling peculiarities and by their vocabulary. But they have preserved the same phonetic system, the same grammar system and the common Basic Word Stock.

Alongside with its phonetic, graphic and grammar peculiarities American English possesses its lexical peculiarities. An Americanism is a word or a set expression peculiar to the English Language as spoken in the USA. Americanisms constitute an important part of the vocabulary of American English.

The differences in the vocabularies of the variants may be classified in the following way:

- there are no equivalent words in BrE
- different words may be used for the same denotatum
- semantic structures of correlated words may be different
- words may be different in their collocability
- there may be differences in the frequency characteristics of words.

American English begins its history at the beginning of the 17-th century when first English-speaking settlers began to settle on the Atlantic coast of the American continent. The language which they brought from England was the language spoken in England during the reign of Elizabeth the First.

In the earliest period the task of Englishmen was to find names for places, animals, plants, customs which they came across on the American continent. They took some of names from languages spoken by the local population - Indians, such as: »chipmunk»/an American squirrel/, «igloo» /Eskimo dome-shaped hut/, «skunk» / a black and white striped animal with a bushy tail/, «squaw» / an Indian woman/, »wigwam» /an American Indian tent made of skins and bark/ etc.

Besides Englishmen, settlers from other countries came to America, and English-speaking settlers mixed with them and borrowed some words from their languages, e.g. from French the words «bureau»/a writing desk/, «cache» /a hiding place for treasure, provision/, «depot»/ a store-house/, «pumpkin»/a plant bearing large edible fruit/. From Spanish such words as: »adobe» / unburnt sun-dried brick/, »bonanza» /prosperity/, «cockroach» /a beetle-like insect/, «lasso» / a noosed rope for catching cattle/ were borrowed.

Present-day New York stems from the Dutch colony New Amsterdam, and Dutch also influenced English. Such words as: «boss», «dope», «sleigh» were borrowed.

The second period of American English history begins in the 19-th century. Immigrants continued to come from Europe to America. When large groups of immigrants from the same country came to America some of their words were borrowed into English. Italians brought with them a style of cooking which became widely spread and such words as: «pizza», «spaghetti» came into English. From the great number of German-speaking settlers the following words were borrowed into English: «delicatessen», «lager», «hamburger», «noodle», «schnitzel» and many others.

During the second period of American English history there appeared quite a number of words and word-groups which were formed in the language due to the new political system, liberation of America from the British colonialism, its independence. The following lexical units appeared due to these events: the United States of America, assembly, caucus, congress, Senate, congressman, President, senator, precinct, Vice-President and many others. Besides these political terms many other words were coined in American English in the 19-th century: to antagonize, to demoralize, influential, department store, telegram, telephone and many others.

There are some differences between British and American English in the usage of prepositions, such as prepositions with dates, days of the week BE requires «on» / I start my holiday on Friday/, in American English there is no preposition / I start my vacation Friday/. In BE we use «by day», «by night»/»at night», in AE the corresponding forms are «days» and «nights».

In BE we say «at home», in AE - «home» is used. In BE we say «a quarter to five», in AE «a quarter of five». In BE we say «in the street», in AE - «on the street». In BE we say «to chat to somebody», in AE «to chat with somebody». In BE we say «different to something», in AE - «different from something».

There are also units of vocabulary which are different while denoting the same notions, e.g. BE - «trousers», AE -«pants»; in BE «pants» are «труссы» which in AE is «shorts». While in BE «shorts» are outwear. This can lead to misunderstanding.

British and American English are two main variants of English. Besides them there are: Canadian, Australian, Indian, New Zealand and other variants. They have some peculiarities in pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary, but they are easily used for communication between people living in these countries.

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Questions for discussion:

1. What is understood by the local varieties of a language?
2. What types of English language varieties do you know?

Chapter 15 ENGLISH LEXICOGRAPHY

1. Lexicography as a branch of applied lexicology dealing with dictionaries
2. Types of dictionaries
3. Some debatable problems of lexicology
4. Historical development of British and American lexicography
5. The selection of lexical units in dictionaries.
6. The entry of dictionaries.
7. The structure of English dictionaries.

Lexicography (from Greek **lexicon** “vocabulary” and **grapho** “to write”) is a branch of Lexicology dealing with compiling dictionaries and describing them. The term “lexicography” is sometimes used to call all the published dictionaries collectively. A **dictionary** is a word-book in which words of a given language are collected and presented in alphabetical order with explanations in the same or in some other language. Lexicography is based on the achievements of linguistic theory in general and lexicology in particular.

All the existing dictionaries may be subdivided into two groups:

- 1) non-linguistic or encyclopaedic dictionaries (encyclopaedias) and
- 2) linguistic or philological dictionaries.

Linguistic dictionaries may be **monolingual** or **one-language** (unilingual) dictionaries and **bilingual** – in two languages (sometimes in several languages, called **multilingual** or **polyglot dictionaries**). Unilingual **explanatory dictionaries** are those in which every word is explained and defined in the same language.

With regard to time unilingual dictionaries are subdivided into **diachronic** and synchronic or descriptive.

Linguistic dictionaries are also subdivided into **general** and **restricted** dictionaries. **General dictionaries** represent the vocabulary as a whole with a degree of completeness depending upon the scope and bulk of the dictionary.

Restricted dictionaries cover only a certain specific part of the vocabulary, for example, **terminological dictionaries**, **phraseological dictionaries**, **dictionaries of slang**; **dictionaries of synonyms**, **antonyms**, **homonyms**, etc.

General dictionaries with regard to the type of information about the word may be subdivided into explanatory and specialized. **Explanatory dictionaries**

provide a wide range of information about the vocabulary items focusing on the definition of the word meaning. **Specialized dictionaries**, which are also called general dictionaries with specific aims, provide information on a certain specific aspect of the word singled out: **pronouncing dictionaries, orthographic, etymological dictionaries, dictionaries of frequency**, etc.

Dictionaries recording the complete vocabulary of some author are called **concordances**. A **thesaurus** is an ideographic dictionary, that supplies words by which a given idea may be expressed.

According to their *scope* dictionaries may be 1) **pocket** or **small-size** dictionaries, 2) **concise** or **middlesize** dictionaries and 3) **large** dictionaries.

The new branch of lexicography, computational lexicography, deals with the compilation, design, use and evaluation of electronic dictionaries. There are two main types of electronic dictionaries: CD-ROM dictionaries and on-line dictionaries.

The most debatable problems of lexicology are those connected with the choice of vocabulary items and the ways of presenting the information about them.

Lexicography is a science of dictionary-compiling. Modern English lexicography appeared in the 15th century. In this period English-Latin dictionaries were in existence. The first dictionary of the English language was published in 1755 by Samuel Johnson, in which he gave the origin of words and example from the works of the best writers.

Another major milestone is the New English Dictionary of Oxford English Dictionary. It was written from 1888 up to 1928. It covers the vocabulary of English with full historical evidence. It gives the full history of words. It has 13 volumes and a supplement containing neologisms (new words).

The first important dictionary in American lexicography is Webster's American Dictionary of the English language. It was published in 1828 in two volumes. Lexicography depends on its development in the solution of some general problems of lexicology. So, lexicography is closely connected with the problems of lexicology. The compilers approach to lexicological problems differently. For example, there is no clear border-line between homonymy and polysemy in different dictionaries. Thus in some dictionaries words such as *fly* - (муха), (a two winged insect) and *fly* - (материал для пуговиц), (a flap of cloth covering the buttons on a garment) are treated as two different words and in others (Ex. the Concise Oxford Dictionary and the Advanced Learners Dictionary of Current English) - as different meanings of one and the same word.

There are encyclopedic and linguistic dictionaries. An Encyclopedic dictionary gives the information of extra-linguistic world. It gives the

information about the important events, animals, and all branches of knowledge. They deal not with words, but with facts and concepts.

There are two main types of dictionaries: general dictionaries and special dictionaries. General dictionaries are divided into explanatory dictionaries and parallel or translation dictionaries (bilingual and multilingual).

The best known explanatory dictionaries are: «The Shorter Oxford Dictionary» in two volumes, based on the NED, the COD (one volume). Chamber's 20th Century Dictionary (one volume), WNID, New Comprehensive Standard Dictionary, the New Random House Dictionary, and Webster's Collegiate Dictionary etc.

Most of these dictionaries present the spelling, usage, pronunciation and meaning of words grammatical information, origin of words, derivatives, phraseology, etymology, synonyms and antonyms. Pronunciation is shown either by means of the International phonetic transcription or in British phonetic notation which is somewhat different in each of the larger reference book.

Ex. [ɔ :] is given as *oh, aw, o, or*, etc.

Translation dictionaries or parallel are word-books containing vocabulary items in one language and their equivalents in another language.

Ex. Russian- English Dictionary under the edition of prof. A. I. Smirnitsky. The English - Russian dictionary by Muller, New English-Russian Dictionary by I. R. Galperin. The Pocket English-Russian Dictionary, by БЕНЮК, ЧЕРНЮК. etc.

The translation dictionaries are based on the comparative study of the languages. Among the general dictionaries we find Learner's Dictionary which is compiled for foreign language learners at different stage of advancement.

Ex. The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English by Hornby, Gatenby, Wakefield: It is a one-language (monolingual) dictionary compiled on the basis of COD. It differs from other dictionaries because it gives the information about the lexical or grammatical valence of words.

The Learner's English-Russian Dictionary by Folomkina, Weiser contains approximately 3.500 words.

Specialized dictionaries gives us the information of one or two particular peculiarities of words (ex. synonyms, collocability, frequency, etymology, pronunciation, phraseological units).

The best known dictionary of synonyms is Dictionary of English Synonyms Expressions by Soule and Webster's Dictionary of synonyms.

The best and most comprehensive collection of English phraseology is A. V. Koonin's English phraseological Dictionary (in two volumes). The Oxford Dictionary of English Proverbs, Collin's Book of English Idioms.

There are other types of specialized dictionaries. Dictionaries of collocations. A Reum's Dictionary of English Style, Dictionaries of word Frequency (Dictionary of frequency Value of Combinability of words. Moscow

1976). The Teacher's Book of 30.000 words by E. S. Thorndike and Lorge. Michael West. A. General Service List of English Words. Etymological dictionaries; Ex. W. Skeat's Etymological Dictionary of the English Language. Pronouncing dictionaries: English Pronouncing Dictionary by D. Jones etc.

The most important problems the Lexicographer comes across in compiling dictionaries are the selection of words, the selection, arrangement and definition of meanings, and the illustrative examples to be supplied.

Dictionaries can't possibly register all occasional words. It is impossible to present all occurring technical terms because they are too numerous (ex. there are more than 400.000 chemical terminology in English). Therefore selection is made according to the aim of the dictionary.

The choice of correct equivalents depends on the type of the dictionary, and on the aim of the compilers.

Different types of dictionaries differ in their aim, in the information they provide and in their size. They differ in the structure and content of the entry. The most complicated type of entry is found in explanatory dictionaries. The entry of an explanatory dictionary of the synchronic type usually presents the following data: accepted spelling, pronunciation, grammatical characteristics, the indication of the part of speech, definition of meanings, modern currency, illustrative examples, derivatives, phraseological units, etymology, synonyms, antonyms etc. The entry of translation dictionaries presents the meanings of words with the help of other languages.

The theory and practice of compiling dictionaries is called lexicography. The history of compiling dictionaries for English comes as far back as the Old English period, where we can find glosses of religious books / interlinear translations from Latin into English/. Regular bilingual dictionaries began to appear in the 15-th century /Anglo-Latin, Anglo-French, Anglo-German/.

The first unilingual dictionary explaining difficult words appeared in 1604, the author was Robert Cawdry, a schoolmaster. He compiled his dictionary for schoolchildren. In 1721 an English scientist and writer Nathan Bailey published the first etymological dictionary which explained the origin of English words. It was the first scientific dictionary, it was compiled for philologists.

In 1775 an English scientist compiled a famous explanatory dictionary.

Its author was Samuel Johnson. Every word in his dictionary was illustrated by examples from English literature; the meanings of words were clear from the contexts in which they were used... The dictionary was a great success and it influenced the development of lexicography in all countries. The dictionary influenced normalization of the English vocabulary. But at the same time it helped to preserve the English spelling in its conservative form.

In 1858 one of the members of the English philological society Dr. Trench raised the question of compiling a dictionary including all the words existing in

the language. The philological society adopted the decision to compile the dictionary and the work started. More than a thousand people took part in collecting examples, and 26 years later in 1884 the first volume was published. It contained words beginning with «A» and «B». The last volume was published in 1928 that is 70 years after the decision to compile it was adopted. The dictionary was called NED and contained 12 volumes.

In 1933 the dictionary was republished under the title «The Oxford English Dictionary», because the work on the dictionary was conducted in Oxford. This dictionary contained 13 volumes. As the dictionary was very large and terribly expensive scientists continued their work and compiled shorter editions of the dictionary: «A Shorter Oxford Dictionary» consisting of two volumes. It had the same number of entries, but far less examples from literature. They also compiled «A Concise Oxford Dictionary» consisting of one volume and including only modern words and no examples from literature.

The American lexicography began to develop much later, at the end of the 18-th century. The most famous American English dictionary was compiled by Noah Webster. He was an active statesman and public man and he published his first dictionary in 1806. He went on with his work on the dictionary and in 1828 he published a two-volume dictionary. He tried to simplify the English spelling and transcription. He introduced the alphabetical system of transcription where he used letters and combinations of letters instead of transcription signs. He denoted vowels in closed syllables by the corresponding vowels, e.g. / a/, /e/, / i/, / o/, /u/. He denoted vowels in the open syllable by the same letters, but with a dash above them. / a/, /e/, /i/, /o/, /u/. He denoted vowels in the position before /r/ as the same letters with two dots above them, e.g. / a/, /o/ and by the letter «e» with two dots above it for the combinations «er», «ir», «ur» because they are pronounced identically. The same tendency is preserved for other sounds: /u:/ is denoted by /oo/, /y/ is used for the sound /j/ etc.

Classification of dictionaries

All dictionaries are divided into linguistic and encyclopedic dictionaries. Encyclopedic dictionaries describe different objects, phenomena, people and give some data about them. Linguistic dictionaries describe vocabulary units, their semantic structure, their origin, their usage. Words are usually given in the alphabetical order.

Linguistic dictionaries are divided into *general* and *specialized*. To general dictionaries two most widely used dictionaries belong: explanatory and translation dictionaries. Specialized dictionaries include dictionaries of synonyms, antonyms, collocations, word-frequency, neologisms, slang, pronouncing, etymological, phraseological and others.

All types of dictionaries can be unilingual (excepting translation ones) if the explanation is given in the same language, bilingual if the explanation is given in another language and also they can be polylingual.

There are a lot of explanatory dictionaries (NED, SOD, COD, NID, N.G.Wyld's «Universal Dictionary» and others). In explanatory dictionaries the entry consists of the spelling, transcription, grammatical forms, meanings, examples, phraseology. Pronunciation is given either by means of the International Transcription System or in British Phonetic Notation which is different in each large dictionary, e.g. /o:/ can be indicated as /aw/, /or/, /oh/, /o/. etc.

Translation dictionaries give words and their equivalents in the other language. There are English-Russian dictionaries by I.R. Galperin, by Y.Apresyan and others. Among general dictionaries we can also mention Learner's dictionaries. They began to appear in the second half of the 20- th century. The most famous is «The Advanced Learner's Dictionary» by A.S.Hornby. It is a unilingual dictionary based on COD, for advanced foreign learners and language teachers. It gives data about grammatical and lexical valency of words. Specialized dictionaries of synonyms are also widely used; one of them is «A Dictionary of English Synonyms and Synonymous Expressions» by R.Soule. Another famous one is «Webster's Dictionary of Synonyms». These are unilingual dictionaries. The best known bilingual dictionary of synonyms is «English Synonyms» compiled by Y. Apresyan.

In 1981 «The Longman Lexicon of Contemporary English» was compiled, where words are given in 14 semantic groups of everyday nature. Each word is defined in detail, its usage is explained and illustrated, synonyms, antonyms are presented also. It describes 15000 items, and can be referred to dictionaries of synonyms and to explanatory dictionaries.

Phraseological dictionaries describe idioms and colloquial phrases, proverbs. Some of them have examples from literature. Some lexicographers include not only word-groups but also anomalies among words. In «The Oxford Dictionary of English Proverbs» each proverb is illustrated by a lot of examples; there are stylistic references as well. The dictionary by Vizetelli gives definitions and illustrations, but different meanings of polysemantic units are not given. The most famous bilingual dictionary of phraseology was compiled by A.V. Koonin. It is one of the best phraseological dictionaries.

Etymological dictionaries trace present-day words to the oldest forms of these words and forms of these words in other languages. One of the best etymological dictionaries was compiled by W. Skeat.

Pronouncing dictionaries record only pronunciation. The most famous is D.Jones's «Pronouncing Dictionary».

Dictionaries of neologisms are: a four-volume «Supplement to NED» by Burchfield, «The Longman Register of New Words»/1990/, «Bloomsbury Dictionary of New Words» /1996/.

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Questions for discussion:

1. What is understood by the term “Lexicography”?
2. What criteria for classification of dictionaries do you know?
3. What types of dictionaries do you know?

Chapter 16

METHODS OF LEXICOLOGICAL RESEARCH

PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Contrastive analyses of words.
2. Componential analysis of words.
3. Immediate Constituents analysis of words.
4. Distributional analysis of words.
5. Transformational analysis of words.

In Modern English different methods are used in lexicological research:

1) Contrastive analysis; 2) Statistical methods of analysis; 3) Immediate constituents analysis; 4) Distributional analysis; 5) Transformational analysis; 6) Componential analysis etc.

CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS

Contrastive analysis is used to reveal the features of sameness and differences in the lexical meaning and the semantic structure of correlated words in both related and nonrelated languages.

We must know that the objective reality exists outside human being; every language classifies reality in its own way by means of its vocabulary units.

In English the word «foot» is used to denote the extremity of the leg. But in Russian there is no exact equivalent for «foot». The word «нога» denotes the whole leg including the foot.

Classification of the real world around us is learned with our first language because we are used to the way in which our own language structures experience but in the fact it is highly arbitrary.

Ex. In Russian one word is used for the thing that tells the time *часы*; but in English we use two words «*watch*» and «*clock*».

But in Russian: *двоюрный брат, двоюрная сестра*.

In English: *nephew, niece*; in Russian, *двоюрный брат, двоюрная сестра*; in Russian: «художник», in English: «*artist*», «*painter*», «*drawer*».

The word «воспитывать» can have different equivalents in English: «*educate, to raise, to bring up*».

Anything which can be said in one language can be translated more or less into another. The correlated polysemantic words of different languages are not coextensive.

Polysemantic words may denote very different types of objects but they are correlated in one basic meaning.

Englishman uses the word «*head*» to denote the following:

head of person, head of a match, head of a bed, head of a table, head of a coin, head of an organization, head of a cane (камыш).

But in Russian different words have to be used: *голова, изголовье, сторона, головка*.

A Russian language learner having learnt first that the word «*head*» is the English word which denotes a part of the body he will think that it can be used in all the cases where the Russian word «*голова*» is used. He will never think of using the word «*head*» in connection with a bed or a coin.

Here are some other examples of difference:

In Russian: *свекровь, теща*

In English: *mother in law*

In a number of cases the English word «new» stands for «новый»: *новое платье* (a new dress). *Новый год* (New year). But there are some cases where in Russian we can't use the word *новый*; *new potatoes* - *молодая картошка*, *new bread* - *свежий хлеб*.

One Russian word may correspond to a number of English words: *тонкая книга* - a thin book, *тонкая ирония* - subtle irony, *тонкая талия* - slim waist.

One word in one language may correspond to two or more words in different languages: *карикатура* - cartoon, *caricature*.

One and the same Russian preposition may correspond to different prepositions in English.

до 5 часов - till 5 o'clock

до войны - before the war

до угла - to the corner

The well-known Russian linguist Sherba said that it would be a mistake if we supposed that the national systems of any two languages are identical.

Componential Analysis.

The term «componential analysis» was first used by W. Goodenough. («Componential Analysis and the Study of Meaning», *Language*, 1956, 32, 1) and F. Lounsbury («A Semantic Analysis of the Pawnee Kinship Usage», *Language*, 1956, 32, 1).

Words have meanings and the smallest units of meaning are called sememes or components of meaning. The word «woman» has the following components of meaning «human», «female», «adult».

girl	human female young		woman	human female adult
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The component «young» distinguishes the word «girl» from «woman».

girl	human female young		boy	human male young
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Here the component «male» distinguishes the word «boy» from «girl».

Componential analysis deals with meanings. Different meanings of polysemantic words have different componential structure. Ex. the comparison of two meanings of the word «boy».

1. a male child	human male young up to the		2. a male servant	human male any age
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age 17 or 18

Each part of speech has a distinguishing semantic feature. Nouns have *the component «substantiality» or «thingness»*; adjectives have «quality» and so on.

The semantic features of words may be classified into **markers and distinguishers**. **Semantic markers** are semantic features which can be found (or are present) also in the lexical meaning of other words. **Distinguishers** are semantic features which are individual, which are not present in the lexical meaning of other words.

<i>spinster</i>		countable noun
		human
		adult
		female
		who has never married

«countable noun» - is a marker, because it represents a subclass within nouns and it is a semantic feature which the word «spinster» has in common with all other countable nouns (*boy, table, flower, idea* etc) «human» is a marker because it refers the word «spinster» to noun denoting human beings.

«adult» is a marker because it is a subdivision of human beings into *adult* and *young*.

«female» is a marker too because it shows a subclass of adult females as *woman, window, mother* etc.

«Who has never married» - is a distinguisher because it differentiates the meaning of the word from other words which have all other common semantic features.

Componential analysis is also used in the investigation of the semantic structure of synonyms. There is certain component of meaning which differs one member from any other member of the same synonymic set.

thick		object
		inanimate

stout		human
		male

buxom		human
		female

The adjective «*thick*» has no component «*human*», «*stout*» does not contain the semantic component «*object*» (*a thick book, a stout man*) and the adjective «*buxom*» possesses the semantic component «*female*» which is not to be found in either the English adjectives «*thick*» or «*stout*».

The analysis into the components «*animate*», «*inanimate*», «*object*», «*male*» shows the difference in the meaning of synonyms.

The analysis helps us to find out the correspondence between the semantic structure of correlated words or correlated meanings of words in different languages.

The words «*thick*», «*stout*», «*buxom*» and the word «*толстый*» are not semantically identical because the Russian word «*толстый*» is used to describe both humans and objects.

Ex. *толстый человек, толстая книга.*

The components of the lexical or the grammatical meanings may be singled out by the co-occurrence analysis.

Unfortunately the dictionaries do not always point out such semantic components of words as «*animate - inanimate*», «*human-nonhuman*», «*young-old*» etc. We know these components in their collocability with certain types of nouns.

The semantic components of the verb «*to smoke*» such as «*age*», «*human*» can be found when it is combined with certain nouns denoting these components.

The «*female*» or «*male*» component of the meaning of the noun «*baby*» can be observed through the co-occurrence of it with the possessive pronouns «*his*» or «*her*».

The baby drank his milk

The baby drank her milk.

The 4 componential analyses are widely used in modern linguistics. (Nida E. Componential Analysis of Meaning. The Hague, 1975).

The words in different languages have their own semantic components.

Comparing the English verb «*to go*», and Russian «*ходить*», «*ездить*» we can see that in the English word the way of movement is not shown. But in Russian verbs *ходить* and *ездить* this component is shown in them. We see here the hidden component of meaning. The hidden component of meaning is a component which can be revealed through the collocability of words.

It is impossible to say in Russian «*ехать пешком*». R. S. Ginzburg says that the hidden component of meaning of words is the linguistic property of the word. It can be found with the help of co-occurrence analysis.

To study the hidden components of words is very important for language teaching.

The Immediate Constituents Analysis.

The Immediate Constituents (I. C.) Analysis attempts to determine the ways in which the units are related to one another. This method is based on a binary principle. In each stage of the procedure we have two components. At each stage these two components are broken into two smaller meaningful elements. The analysis is ended when we arrive at the constituents that are not divided further. These constituents are called «*the ultimate constituents*».

The aim of the I.C. analysis is to segment a set of lexical units into two independent constituents. The meaning of the sentence, word group and the I. C. segmentation are interdependent.

Ex. *A fat teacher's wife* may mean that either *the teacher is fat* or *his wife is fat*.

A fat teacher's wife - means that *the teacher is fat*.

A fat/ teacher's wife - means that *his wife is fat*.

A beautiful/ woman doctor - means that *the doctor is a beautiful woman*. *A beautiful woman/ doctor* means that *the doctor who treats woman is beautiful*.

This analysis is widely used in lexicological investigations and in the study of **derivational structure of words** and **morphemic analysis of words**.

Ex. *denationalize* (not to give a national right) may be first segmented into.

de/ nationalize because the morpheme «de -» can be found in a number of other words: such as: *deform, denature, denominate*.

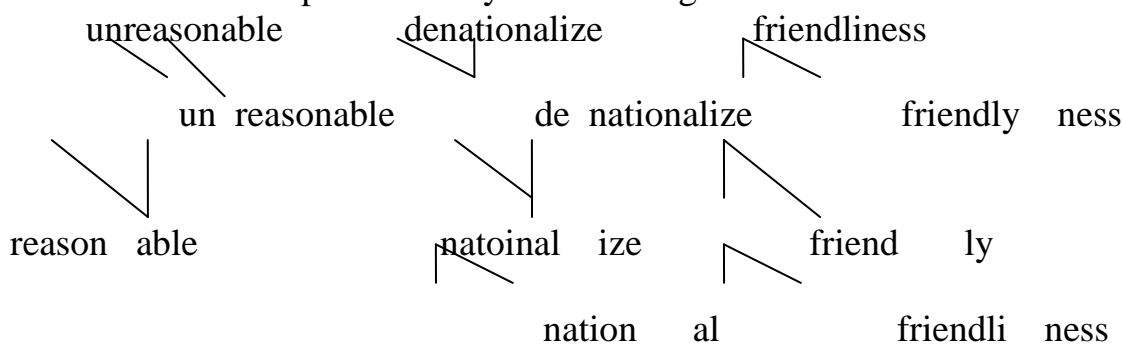
The remaining part «*nationalize*» can be broken into *national/ ize* because «-ize» can be found in such words as «*organize*», «*humanize*», «*recognize*», «*standardize*». *National* - into *nation/ al* as - «al» occurs in a number of words: *occupational, musical, critical*.

So we have found in *de/ nation/ al / ize* - 4 ultimate constituents

«*friendliness*» is divided into *friendly/ ness* (*friendly- looking*) because «*ness*» can be found in such words as *happiness, kindness, darkness, beautifulness* etc.

«*friendly*» is divided into *friend/ ly* because «*friend*» may occur in «*friendship*», «*unfriendly*» on the one hand «*ly*» can be seen in «*wifely*», «*brotherly*» on the other hand.

So we have found *friend - ly - ness* - 3 ultimate constituents. We draw schemes of the morphemic analysis according to the I. C. method.



This is the morphemic analysis according to the I. C. method.

It should be pointed out that this method is very useful to find out the derivational structure of words too.

Ex. «*denationalize*» has both a prefix «*de -*» and the suffix «*-ize*».

In order to know whether this word is a prefixal or a suffixal derivative we use the I. C. analysis. We cannot divide this word into *denational / ize* because there is no the word «*denational*» or «*denation*». The only possible way of division is *de/ nationalize* because there is the word «*nationalize*». Therefore we may say that this word is a prefixal derivative. I. C. is also useful to define the compound words and derivational compound words.

Ex. *snow - covered* can't be divided into *snow + cover + ed* but *snow + covered*. So it is a compound word because there is no «*snow - cover*» in the dictionary.

«*blue + eyed*» may be divided into (*blue + eye*) + *ed* because there is the word «*blue + eye*» therefore it is a derivational compound word.

Distributional Analysis.

This method is widely used in lexicological analysis. Distribution is the occurrence of words relatively to other words. It is the position which words occupy or may occur in the text.

The words have different lexical meanings in different distributional patterns. In different distributional structures the word «*ill*» has different meaning: *ill look, ill luck, ill health - плохой, fall ill, and be ill - больной*.

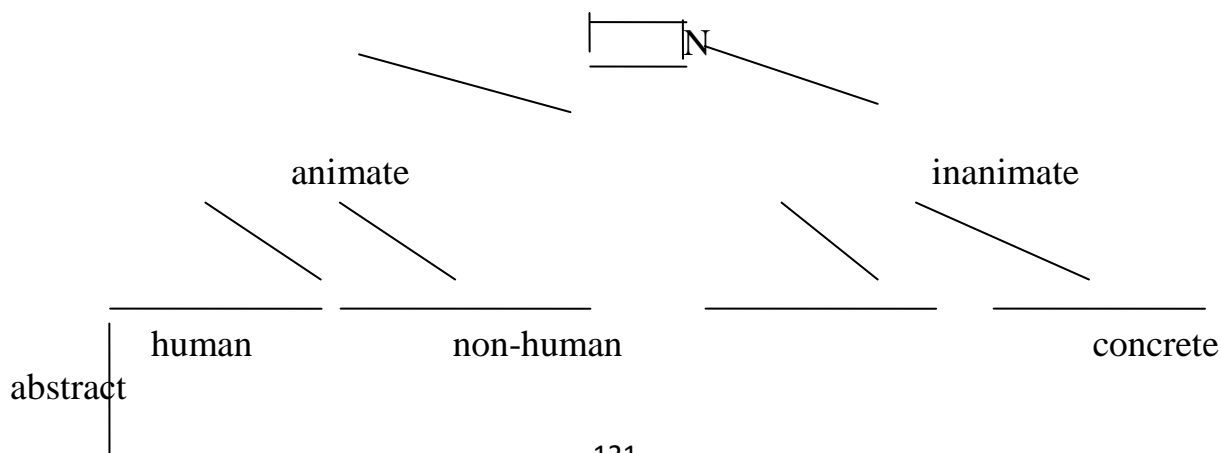
The place of a morpheme is relative to other morphemes ex. *singer - *er sing* is impossible. A different pattern of arrangement of the same morphemes changes the whole into the meaningless. If we have different distribution we have different meanings!

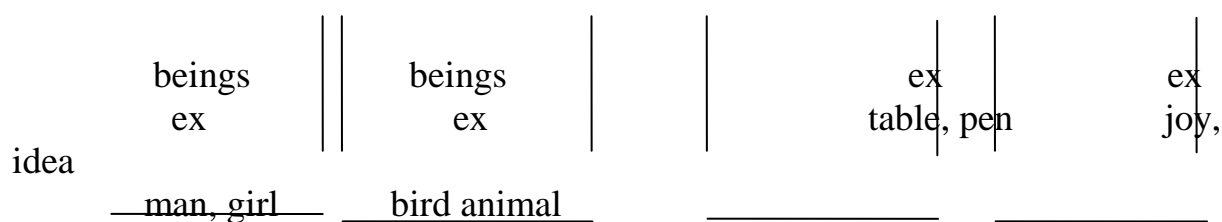
Ex. *to get to London, to get angry, to get rid of; to take care of, to take of, to take in, take on, take place, take a taxi, take tea*.

As was said above, different distribution of components of compound words may change the meaning of the word. Ex. *bird-cage and cage-bird, fruit-market, market-fruit, life-boat, boat-life*.

So the meaning of the word depends on its distribution. It should be pointed out that the meaning of the word is dependent on what class of words it is combined with.

Thus nouns may be subdivided into





Ex. If we use after the verb «*move*» the nouns denoting inanimate objects (move+ inanimate N) it has the meaning: *двигать* (ex. *He moved a table*).

But when it is followed by the noun denoting animate human being (*move* + animate N) it has another meaning: *He moved a man* «он будил человека». The meaning of words also different if they are combined with different lexico-semantic groups. By lexico-semantic group we understand the group of words joined together by a common concept or the words which have a common semantic component. Ex. verbs denoting sense perception: *to think, to imagine, to write*, or adjectives denoting colour: *red, black, yellow* etc.

Ex. *blind* + any N denoting a living being, animate *слепой* without the power to see: *a blind man, a blind woman, blind cat*.

Blind + N denoting inanimate objects or abstract concept may have different meanings depending on the lexico- semantic group of the noun, it belongs to. So it has the meaning «*безрассудный*» (*thoughtless*) when it is combined with nouns denoting emotions. Ex. *blind love, blind fury*.

With nouns denoting written or typed signs it has the meaning «*hard to see*», ex. *blind handwriting, and blind type*.

Distributional analysis is widely used in word formation.

The analysis of the derivational pattern N + *ish* -adj. show that the suffix- «*ish*» is never combined with noun stems denoting time, space. It is impossible to say *hourish, mileish*. Many adjectives in - «*ish*» are formed noun + stems denoting living beings, ex. *wolfish, boyish, girlish*.

So the distribution may be viewed as the place of words in relation to other words on the level of semantic classes and sub-classes. The distributional meanings by co-occurrence may be extra-linguistic or linguistic components of meaning.

Good doctor - who treats well

Good mother - who takes care of her children well.

Here the meaning of the adjective «*good*» is different and it is the extra-linguistic factors that account for the difference in meaning. The linguistic components of distributional meaning can be found when we compare correlated words in different languages.

Ex. In English the verb «*to seize*» may be combined with nouns denoting different kinds of emotions (*I was seized with joy, grief, etc.*) but in Russian we may say - *на меня напали сомнения*; but the collocations - *напала радость*,

надежда are impossible, so the Russian verb cannot be combined with nouns denoting pleasurable emotions.

It must be said that the different semantic peculiarities of the word may be found in the distributional analysis. The verb «*to giggle*» refers to a type of laughter. It means «*to laugh in a nervous manner*» but the analysis showed that «*to giggle*» is often connected with the laugh of a woman (*women giggle*) man may *giggle drunkenly* or *nervously* but *not happily* or *politely*. Different words make different patterns.

Ex. *to fell one's way, to fell bad, to feel tired, to feel for something.*

What is a pattern? A pattern is combination of a word, a symbolic representation of the class of words with which it may be combined.

Ex. *see a boy, see a place, see a book.*

On the bases of these words we can draw a pattern *see +N*. This is called a distributional formula. The distributional formula is a symbolic representation.

ex. *make+ (a) +N - make a coat, a machine*

make + (the)+N+V - make the machine go

make + (A) - make sure

make + (a) + A + N make a good wife.

In each of these example the meaning of «*make*» is different.

Transformational Analysis. Sometimes the distributional analysis alone doesn't show whether the meaning is the same or different. In this case we use transformational analysis. Transformation is any repatterning, remaking of a word group.

Ex. *to tear a curtain - the curtain has a tear*

to cat a finger - the finger has a cat.

A paraphrase of a sentence in which some words are replaced by semantic equivalent is a lexical transformation.

Ex. *This novel is a best-seller - (this novel is) a book that has one of the biggest sales of the season.* A lexical transformation keeps the meaning unchanged.

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Questions for discussion:

1. What types of analysis do you know?
2. What is the difference between them?
3. What are they used for?

List of acronyms:

CIDE - Cambridge International Dictionary of English

COBUILD, an acronym for *Collins Birmingham University International Language Database*, is a British research facility set up at the [University of Birmingham](#) in 1980 and funded by [Collins](#) publishers.

LDCE - Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English

COD - Concise Oxford Dictionary

OED – Oxford English Dictionary

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AFTERWORD

This textbook is compiled based on the books, researches of such prominent linguists as Antrushina G.V., Arnold J.V., Dubenets E.M., Ginsburg P.S., Koonin A.V., Galperin I.R. and other experts. The textbook has been developed due to the necessity to generalize and sum up the findings and studies of the researchers and scientific teams to make it easy for students to have idea about the lexicological issues in brief.