The semantic structure of polysemantic words used in Theodor Dreiser's "Jennie Gerhardt" and methods of their teaching

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INTRODUCTION

The President of the Republic of Uzbekistan Islam Abduganievich Karimov speaking about the future of Uzbekistan underlines that “Harmonious generation is the future guarantee of prosperity”.

It is our task, to prepare and teach professionally competent and energetic personnel, real patriots to see them in the world depository of science and culture. In this plan the national Program about Training Personnel was worked out on the formation of new generation of specialists “with the high common and professionally culture, creative and social activity, with the ability to orientate in the social and political life independently, capable to raise and solve the problems to the perspective[1]”.

The subject matter Qualification Paper deals with the study of the types of polysemy and its typology as used in Theodor Dreiser’s “Jennie Gerhardt” which presents a certain interest both for theoretical investigation and for practical language use.

The actuality of the Qualification paper is defined by concrete results of the investigation. Special emphasis is laid on various types of rendering the structure, the semantic features, and the peculiarities of polysemy.

The novelty of the work is that the thorough analysis the problems of the types of polysemy and its typology as used in Theodor Dreiser’s “Jennie Gerhardt” which have not been researched deeply yet; moreover studying the polysemy in the context. We have analyzed specific peculiarities of the types of polysemy and its typology as used in Theodor Dreiser’s “Jennie Gerhardt” for the first time

[1] Kadrlar tayyorlash milliy dasturi: Toshkent 1997, 35 bet

The aim of this Qualification Paper is to define the types of polysemy as used in Theodor Dreiser's "Jennie Gerhardt".

The tasks of the research are the following according to the general aim:

1. To study the problem of meaning in present day lexicology;
2. To study the types of meaning in modern lexicology;
3. To study the semantic structure of polysemantic Words;
4. To analyze the semantics of the polysemantic words denoting action;

The methods of investigation used in this Qualification Paper are as follows: semantic, oppositional, contextual and structural.

The theoretical importance of the research is determined by the necessary of detailed and comprehensive analysis of peculiarities of the polysemy which form a big layer of the vocabulary.

The practical value of the research is that the material and the results of the given research can be used in theoretical courses of lexicology, interpretation of the text and other theoretical courses.

The material includes:

1. different types of dictionaries;

2. Scientific literature on Present Day English lexicology;

3. The practical and theoretical books of English, American, Russian authors

The structure of the work the given Qualification Paper consists of introduction, three chapters and a conclusion which are followed by the lists of literature used in the course of the research.

Introduction deals with the description of the structure of a qualification paper.

The first chapter deals with the main characteristics of word meaning.

The second chapter deals with the problems of types of polysemy and its typology as used in Theodor Dreiser's "Jennie Gerhardt".

The third chapter deals with teaching problems of Lexicology in secondary schools and higher educational institutions.

Conclusion presents the results of the investigation on peculiarities of the

polysemantic words used in “Jennie Gerhardt”.

Bibliography gives the list of literature used in the course of the investigation and includes scientific literature, dictionaries and practical books.

Chapter I. The problem of lexical meaning of words in Present Day English

1.1 The problem of meaning in present day lexicology

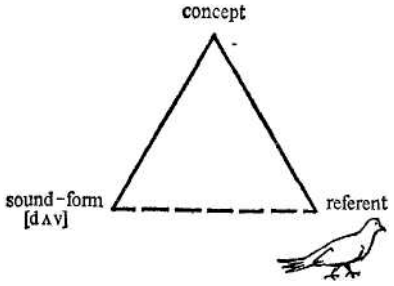
Meaning is one of the most controversial terms in the theory of language. At first sight the understanding of this term seems to present no difficulty at all — it is freely used in teaching, interpreting and translation. The scientific definition of meaning however just as the definition of some other basic linguistic terms, such as w o r d s e n t e n c e , etc., has been the issue of interminable discussions. Since there is no universally accepted definition of meaning we shall confine ourselves to a brief survey of the problem as it is viewed in modern linguistics both in our country and elsewhere[2].

There are broadly speaking two schools to meaning of thought in present-day linguistics representing the main lines of contemporary thinking on the problem: the referential approach, which seeks to formulate the essence of meaning by establishing the interdependence between words and the things or concepts they denote, and the functional approach, which studies the functions of a word in speech and is less concerned with what meaning is than with how it works.

All major works on semantic theory have so far been based on referential concepts of meaning. The essential feature of this approach is that it distinguishes between the three components closely connected with meaning: the sound-form of the linguistic sign, the concept underlying this sound-form, and the actual referent, i.e. that part or that aspect of reality to which the linguistic sign refers. The best known referential model of meaning is the so-called “basic triangle”

[2] Ginzburg R.S A course in Modern English lexicology. M,1979 p.108-109

which, with some variations, underlies the semantic systems of all the adherents of this school of thought. In a simplified form the triangle may be represented as shown below:



As can be seen from the diagram the sound-form of the linguistic sign, e.g. [dAv], is connected with our concept of the bird which it denotes and through it with the referent, i.e. the actual bird. The common feature of any referential approach is the implication that meaning is in some form or other connected with the referent.

Let us now examine the place of meaning in this model. It is easily observed that the sound-form of the word is not identical with its meaning, e.g. [dAv] is the sound-form used to denote a pearl-grey bird. There is no inherent connection, however, between this particular sound-cluster and the meaning of the word **dove.** The connection is conventional and arbitrary. This can be easily proved by comparing the sound-forms of different languages conveying one and the same meaning, e.g. English [dAv], Russian [golub'], German [taube] and so on. It can also be proved by comparing almost identical sound-forms that possess different meaning in different languages. The sound-cluster [kot], e.g. in the English language means ‘a small, usually swinging bed for a child’, but in the Russian language essentially the same sound-cluster possesses the meaning ‘male cat’. -

For more convincing evidence of the conventional and arbitrary nature of the connection between sound-form and meaning all we have to do is to point to the homonyms. The word **seal** [si:l], e.g., means ‘a piece of wax, lead’, etc. stamped with a design; its homonym **seal** [si:l] possessing the same sound-form denotes ‘a sea animal’.

Besides, if meaning were inherently connected with the sound-form of a linguistic unit, it would follow that a change in sound-form would necessitate a change of meaning. We know, however, that even considerable changes in the sound-form of a word in the course of its historical development do not necessarily affect its meaning. The sound form of the *OE* word **lufian [**luvian] has undergone great changes, and has been transformed into **love** [lAv], yet the meaning 'hold dear, bear love', etc. has remained essentially unchanged.

When we examine a word we see that its meaning though closely connected with the underlying concept or concepts is not identical with them. To begin with, concept is a category of human cognition[3]. Concept is the thought of the object that singles out its essential features. Our concepts abstract and reflect the most common and typical features of the different objects and phenomena of the world.

Being the result of abstraction and generalisation all concepts are thus intrinsically almost the same for the whole of humanity in one and the same period of its historical development. The meanings of words however are different in different languages. That is to say, words expressing identical concepts may have different meanings and different semantic structures in different languages. The concept of 'a building for human habitation' is expressed in English by the word **house,** in Russian by the word *дом,* but the meaning of the English word is not identical with that of the Russian as **house** does not possess the meaning of 'fixed residence of family or household' which is one of the meanings of the Russian word *дом*; it is expressed by another English polysemantic word, namely **home** which possesses a number of other meanings not to be found in the Russian word *дом.*

The difference between meaning and concept can also be observed by comparing synonymous words and word-groups expressing essentially the same concepts but possessing linguistic meaning which is felt as different in each of the units under consideration, e.g. **big, large; to die, to pass away, to kick the bucket, to join the majority; child, baby, babe, infant.**

[3] Arnold D. The English word M, 1973. p. 299

The precise definition of the content of a concept comes within the sphere of logic but it can be easily observed that the word-meaning is not identical with it. For instance, the content of the concept **six** can be expressed by 'three plus three', 'five plus one', or 'ten minus four', etc. Obviously, the meaning of the word **six** cannot be identified with the meaning of these word-groups.

To distinguish meaning from the referent, i.e. from the thing denoted by the linguistic sign is of the utmost importance, and at first sight does not seem to present difficulties. To begin with, meaning is linguistic whereas the denoted object or the referent is beyond the scope of language. We can denote one and the same object by more than one word of a different meaning. For instance, in a speech situation an apple can be denoted **by the** words **apple, fruit, something, this,** etc. as all of these words may have the same referent. Meaning cannot be equated with the actual properties of the referent, e.g. the meaning of the word **water** cannot be regarded as identical with its chemical formula H_2O as **water** means essentially the same to all English speakers including those who have no idea of its chemical composition. Last but not least there are words that have distinct meaning but do not refer to any existing thing, e.g. **angel** or **phoenix.** Such words have meaning which is understood by the speaker-hearer, but the objects they denote do not exist.

Thus, meaning is not to be identified with any of the three points of the triangle.

1.2 Approaches to the study of the meaning of the word

It should be pointed out that among the adherents of the referential approach there are some who hold that the meaning of a linguistic sign is the concept underlying it, and consequently they substitute meaning for concept in the basic triangle. Others identify meaning with the referent. They argue that unless we have a scientifically accurate knowledge of the referent we cannot give a scientifically accurate definition of the meaning of a word. According to them the English word **salt,** e.g., means sodium chloride *(NaCl)'.* But how are we to define precisely the

meanings of such words as **love** or **hate,** etc.? We must admit that the actual extent of human knowledge makes it impossible to define word-meanings accurately. It logically follows that any study of meanings in linguistics along these lines must be given up as impossible[4].

Here we have sought to show that meaning is closely connected but not identical with sound-form, concept or referent. Yet even those who accept this view disagree as to the nature of meaning. Some linguists regard meaning as the interrelation of the three points of the triangle within the framework of the given language, i.e. as the interrelation of the sound-form, concept and referent, but not as an objectively existing part of the linguistic sign. Others and among them some outstanding linguists, proceed from the basic assumption of the objectivity of language and meaning and understand the linguistic sign as a two-facet unit. They view meaning as "a certain reflection in our mind of objects, phenomena or relations that makes part of the linguistic sign — its so-called inner facet, whereas the sound-form functions as its outer facet." The outer facet of the linguistic sign is indispensable to meaning and intercommunication. Meaning is to be found in all linguistic units and together with their sound-form constitutes the linguistic signs studied by linguistic science.

The criticism of the referential theories of meaning may be briefly summarised as follows:

1. Meaning, as understood in the referential approach, comprises the interrelation of linguistic signs with categories and phenomena outside the scope of language. As neither referents (i.e. actual things, phenomena, etc.) nor concepts belong to language, the analysis of meaning is confined either to the study of the interrelation of the linguistic sign and referent or that of the linguistic sign and concept, all of which, properly speaking, is not the object of linguistic study.

2. The great stumbling block in referential theories of meaning has always been that they operate with subjective and intangible mental processes. The results of semantic investigation therefore depend to a certain extent on "the feel of the

[4] Карашук П.М. Словообразование английского языка М, 1977 Р. 283

language" and cannot be verified by another investigator analysing the same linguistic data. It follows that semasiology has to rely too much on linguistic intuition and unlike other fields of linguistic inquiry (e.g. phonetics, history of language) does not possess objective methods of investigation. Consequently it is argued, linguists should either give up the study of meaning and the attempts to define meaning altogether, or confine their efforts to the investigation of the function of linguistic signs in speech.

In recent years a new and entirely different approach to meaning known as the functional approach has begun to take shape in linguistics and especially in structural linguistics. The functional approach maintains that the meaning of a linguistic unit may be studied only through its relation to other linguistic-units and not through its relation to either concept or referent. In a very simplified form this view may be illustrated by the following: we know, for instance, that the meaning of the two words **move** and **movement** is different because they function in speech differently. Comparing the contexts in which we find these words we cannot fail to observe that they occupy different positions in relation to other words. **(To) move,** e.g., can be followed by a noun **(move** the chair), preceded by a pronoun (we **move),** etc. The position occupied by the word **movement** is different: it may be followed by a preposition **(movement** of **smth),** preceded by an adjective (slow **movement),** and so on. As the distribution of the two words is different, we are entitled to the conclusion that not only do they belong to different classes of words, but that their meanings are different too.

The same is true of the different meanings of one and the same word. Analysing the function of a word in linguistic contexts and comparing these contexts, we conclude that; meanings are different (or the same) and this fact can be proved by an objective investigation of linguistic data. For example, we can observe the difference of the meanings of the word **take** if we examine its functions in different linguistic contexts, **take the tram (the taxi, the cab,,** etc.) as opposed to **to take to somebody.**

It follows that in the functional approach (1) semantic investigation is confined to the analysis of the difference or sameness of meaning; (2) meaning is understood essentially as the function of the use of linguistic units. As a matter of fact, this line of semantic investigation is the primary concern, implied or expressed, of all structural linguists[5].

When comparing the two approaches described above in terms of methods of linguistic analysis we see that the functional approach should not be considered an alternative, but rather a valuable complement to the referential theory. It is only natural that linguistic investigation must start by collecting an adequate number of samples of contexts. On examination the meaning or meanings of linguistic units will emerge from the contexts themselves. Once this phase had been completed it seems but logical to pass on to the referential phase and try to formulate the meaning thus identified. There is absolutely no need to set the two approaches against each other; each handles its own side of the problem and neither is complete without the other.

1.3 The types of meaning in modern lexicology

It is more or less universally recognised that word-meaning is not homogeneous but is made up of various components the combination and the interrelation of which determine to a great extent the inner facet of the word. These components are usually described as types of meaning. The two main types of meaning that are readily observed are the grammatical and the lexical meanings to be found in words and word-forms[6].

We notice, e.g., that word-forms, such as **girls, winters, joys, tables,** etc. though denoting widely different objects of reality have something in common. This common element is the grammatical meaning of plurality which can be found in all of them.

[5] Арбекова Т.И Лексикология английского языка М, 1977 р 359
[6] Татаулин Р.Г Словообразование и текст М, 1986 р. 337

Thus grammatical meaning may be defined ,as the component of meaning recurrent in identical sets of individual forms of different words, as, e.g., the tense meaning in the word-forms of verbs **(asked, thought, walked,** etc.) or the case meaning in the word-forms of various nouns **(girl's, boy's, night's,** etc.).

In a broad sense it may be argued that linguists who make a distinction between lexical and grammatical meaning are, in fact, making a distinction between the functional (linguistic) meaning which operates at various levels as the interrelation of various linguistic units and referential (conceptual) meaning as the interrelation of linguistic units and referents (or concepts).

In modern linguistic science it is commonly held that some elements of grammatical meaning can be identified by the position of the linguistic unit in relation to other linguistic units, i.e. by its distribution. Word-forms **speaks, reads, writes** have one and the same grammatical meaning as they can all be found in identical distribution, e.g. only after the pronouns **he, she, it** and before adverbs like **well, badly, to-day,** etc.

It follows that a certain component of the meaning of a word is described when you identify it as a part of speech, since different parts of speech are distributionally different (cf. my work and I work).

Comparing word-forms of one and the same word we observe that besides grammatical meaning, there is another component of meaning to be found in them. Unlike the grammatical meaning this component is identical in all the forms of the word. Thus, e.g. the word-forms **go, goes, went, going, gone** possess different grammatical meanings of tense, person and so on, but in each of these forms we find one and the same semantic component denoting the process of movement. This is the lexical meaning of the word which may be described as the component of meaning proper to the word as a linguistic unit, i.e. recurrent in all the forms of this word.

The difference between the lexical and the grammatical components of meaning is not to be sought in the difference of the concepts underlying the two types of meaning, but rather in the way they are conveyed. The concept of

plurality, e.g., may be expressed by the lexical meaning of the world **plurality;** it may also be expressed in the forms of various words irrespective of their lexical meaning, e.g. **boys, girls, joys,** etc. The concept of relation may be expressed by the lexical meaning of the word **relation** and also by any of the prepositions, e.g. **in, on, behind,** etc. **(cf. the book is** in/on, behind **the table). "**

It follows that by lexical meaning we designate the meaning proper to the given linguistic unit in all its forms and distributions, while by grammatical meaning we designate the meaning proper to sets of word-forms common to all words of a certain class. Both the lexical and the grammatical meaning make up the word meaning as neither can exist without the other. That can be also observed in the semantic analysis of correlated words in different languages. E.g. the Russian word *сведения* is not semantically identical with the English equivalent **information** because unlike the Russian *сведения* the English word does not possess the grammatical meaning of plurality which is part of the semantic structure of the Russian word.

It is usual to classify lexical items into major word-classes (nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs) and minor word-classes (articles, prepositions, conjunctions, etc.).

All members of a major word-class share a distinguishing semantic component which though very abstract may be viewed as the lexical component of part-of-speech meaning. For example, the meaning of 'thingness' or substantiality may be found in all the nouns e.g. **table, love, sugar,** though they possess different grammatical meanings of number, case, etc. It should be noted, however, that the grammatical aspect of the part-of-speech meanings is conveyed as a rule by a set of forms. If we describe the word as a noun we mean to say that it is bound to possess

a set of forms expressing the grammatical meaning of number (cf. **table — tables),** case (cf. **boy, boy's)** and so on. A verb is understood to possess sets of forms expressing, e.g., tense meaning **(worked — works),** mood meaning **(work! — (I) work),** etc.

The part-of-speech meaning of the words that possess only one form, e.g. prepositions, some adverbs, etc., is observed only in their distribution (cf. **to come in (here, there)** and **in (on, under)** the table).

One of the levels at which grammatical meaning operates is that of minor word classes like articles, pronouns, etc.

Members of these word classes are generally listed in dictionaries just as other vocabulary items, that belong to major word-classes of lexical items proper (e.g. nouns, verbs, etc.).

One criterion for distinguishing these grammatical items from lexical items is in terms of closed and open sets. Grammatical items form closed sets of units usually of small membership (e.g. the set of modern English pronouns, articles, etc.). New items are practically never added.

Lexical items proper belong to open sets which have indeterminately large membership; new lexical items which are constantly coined to fulfil the needs of the speech community are added to these open sets.

The interrelation of the lexical and the grammatical meaning and the role played by each varies in different word-classes and even in different groups of words within one and the same class. In some parts of speech the prevailing component is the grammatical type of meaning. The lexical meaning of prepositions for example is, as a rule, relatively vague **(independent of smb, one of the students, the roof of the house).** The lexical meaning of some prepositions, however, may be comparatively distinct (cf. **in/on, under the table).** In verbs the lexical meaning usually comes to the fore although in some of them, the verb **to be,** e.g., the grammatical meaning of a linking element prevails (cf. **he works as a teacher** and **he is a teacher).**

Chapter II The semantic structure of polysemantic words used in used in Th. Dreiser's "Jennie Gerhardt"

2.1 Denotative and connotative meaning in polysemantic words

Proceeding with the semantic analysis we observe that lexical meaning is not homogenous either and may be analysed as including denotational and connotational components.

As was mentioned above one of the functions of words is to denote things, concepts and so on. Users of a language cannot have any knowledge or thought of the objects or phenomena of the real world around them unless this knowledge is ultimately embodied in words which have essentially the same meaning for all speakers of that language[7]. This is the d e n o t a t i o n a l m e a n i n g, i.e. that component of the lexical meaning which makes communication possible. There is no doubt that **a** physicist knows more about the atom than a singer does, or that an arctic explorer possesses a much deeper knowledge of what arctic ice is like than a man who has never been in the North. Nevertheless they use the words **atom, Arctic,** etc. and understand each other.

The second component of the lexical meaning is the c o n n o t a t i o n a l c o m p o n e n t, i.e. the emotive charge and the stylistic value of the word. Words contain an element of emotive evaluation as part of the connotational meaning; e.g. **a hovel** denotes 'a small house or cottage' and besides implies that it is a miserable dwelling place, dirty, in bad repair and in general unpleasant to live in. When examining synonyms **large, big, tremendous** and **like, love, worship** or words such as **girl, girlie; dear, dearie** we cannot fail to observe the difference in the emotive charge of the members of these sets. The emotive charge of the words

[7] Смирницкий А.И Лексикология английского языка М, 1956 р 163

tremendous, worship and **girlie** is heavier than that of the words **large, like** and **girl.** This does not depend on the "feeling" of the individual speaker but is true for all speakers of English. The emotive charge varies in different word-classes. In some of them, in interjections, e.g., the emotive element prevails, whereas in conjunctions the emotive charge is as a rule practically non-existent.

The emotive charge is one of the objective semantic features proper to words as linguistic units and forms part of the connotational component of meaning. It should not be confused with emotive implications that the words may acquire in speech. The emotive implication of the word is to a great extent subjective as it greatly depends of the personal experience of the speaker, the mental imagery the word evokes in him. Words seemingly devoid of any emotional element may possess in the case of individual speakers strong emotive implications as may be illustrated, e.g. by the word **hospital.** What is thought and felt when the word **hospital** is used will be different in the case of an architect who built it, the invalid staying there after an operation, or the man living across the road.

Words differ not only in their emotive charge but also in their stylistic reference. Stylistically words can be roughly subdivided into literary, neutral and colloquial layers.

The greater part of the literary layer of Modern English vocabulary are words of general use, possessing no specific stylistic reference and known as neutral words. Against the background of neutral words we can distinguish two major subgroups — standard colloquial words and literary or bookish words. This may be best illustrated by comparing words almost identical in their denotational meaning, e. g., '**parent — father — dad'.** In comparison with the word **father** which is stylistically neutral, **dad** stands out as colloquial and **parent** is felt as bookish. The stylistic reference of standard colloquial words is clearly observed when we compare them with their neutral synonyms, e.g. **chum — friend, rot — nonsense,** etc. This is also true of literary

or bookish words, such as, e.g., **to presume (cf. to suppose), to anticipate (cf. to expect)** and others.

Literary (bookish) words are not stylistically homogeneous. Besides general-literary (bookish) words, e.g. **harmony, calamity, alacrity,** etc., we may single out various specific subgroups, namely: 1) terms **or**

scientific words such as, e g., **renaissance, genocide, teletype,** etc.; 2) poetic words and archaisms such as, e.g., **whilome** — 'formerly', **aught** — 'anything', **ere** — 'before', **albeit** — 'although', **fare** — 'walk', etc., **tarry** — 'remain', **nay** — 'no'; 3) barbarisms and foreign words, such as, e.g., **bon mot** — 'a clever or witty saying', **apropos, faux pas, bouquet,** etc. The colloquial words may be subdivided into:

1) Common colloquial words.

2) Slang, i.e. words which are often regarded as a violation of the norms of Standard English, e.g. **governor** for 'father', **missus** for 'wife', a **gag** for 'a joke', **dotty** for 'insane'.

3) Professionalisms, i.e. words used in narrow groups bound by the same occupation, such as, e.g., **lab** for 'laboratory', **hypo** for 'hypodermic syringe', **a buster** for 'a bomb', etc.

4) Jargonisms, i.e. words marked by their use within a particular social group and bearing a secret and cryptic character, e.g. **a sucker** — 'a person who is easily deceived', **a squiffer** — 'a concertina'.

5) Vulgarisms, i.e. coarse words that are not generally used in public, e.g. **bloody, hell, damn, shut up,** etc.

6) Dialectical words, e.g. **lass, kirk,** etc.

7) Colloquial coinages, e.g. **newspaperdom, allrightnik,** etc.

Stylistic reference and emotive charge of words are closely connected and to a certain degree interdependent. As a rule stylistically coloured words, i.e. words belonging to all stylistic layers except the neutral style are observed to possess a considerable emotive charge. That can be proved by comparing stylistically labelled words with their neutral synonyms. The colloquial words **daddy, mammy**

are more emotional than the neutral **father, mother;** the slang words **mum, bob** are undoubtedly more expressive than their neutral counterparts **silent, shilling,** the poetic **yon** and **steed** carry a noticeably heavier emotive charge than their neutral synonyms **there** and **horse.** Words of neutral style, however, may also differ in the degree of emotive charge. We see, e.g., that the words **large, big, tremendous,** though equally neutral as to their stylistic reference are not identical as far as their emotive charge is concerned.

1. In the present book word-meaning is viewed as closely connected but not identical with either the sound-form of the word or with its referent.

Proceeding from the basic assumption of the objectivity of language and from the understanding of linguistic units as two-facet entities we regard meaning as the inner facet of the word, inseparable from its outer facet which is indispensable to the existence of meaning and to intercommunication[8].

2. The two main types of word-meaning are the grammatical and the lexical meanings found in all words. The interrelation of these two types of meaning may be different in different groups of words.

3. Lexical meaning is viewed as possessing denotational and connotational components.

The denotational component is actually what makes communication possible. The connotational component comprises the stylistic reference and the emotive charge proper to the word as a linguistic unit in the given language system. The subjective emotive implications acquired by words in speech lie outside the semantic structure of words as they may vary from speaker to speaker but are not proper to words as units of language.

2.2 Semantic Structure of Polysemantic Words

So far we have been discussing the concept of meaning, different types of word-meanings and the changes they undergo in the course of the historical development of the English language. When analysing the word-meaning we observe, however,

[8] Antrushina G.B, Afanasyeva V.A “English lexicology” M, 1985 p.187

that words as a rule are not units of a single meaning. Monosemantic words, i.e. words having only one meaning are comparatively few in number, these are mainly scientific terms, such -as **hydrogen, molecule** and the like. The bulk of English words are p o l y s e m a n t i c , that is to say possess more than one meaning. The actual number of meanings of the commonly used words ranges from five to about a hundred. In fact, the commoner the word the more meanings it has[9].

The word **table,** e.g., has at least nine meanings in Modern English: 1. a piece of furniture; 2. the persons seated at a table; 3. *sing.* the food put on a table, meals; 4. a thin flat piece of stone, metal, wood, etc.; 5. *pl.* slabs of stone; 6. words cut into them or written on them (the ten tables); 7. an orderly arrangement of facts, figures, etc.; 8. part of a machine-tool on which the work is put to be operated on; 9. a level area, a plateau. Each of the individual meanings can be described in terms of the types of meanings discussed above. We may, e.g., analyse the eighth meaning of the word **table** into the part-of-speech meaning — that of the noun (which presupposes the grammatical meanings of number and case) combined with the lexical meaning made up of two components The denotational semantic component which can be interpreted as the dictionary definition (part of a machine-tool on which the work is put) and the connotational component which can be identified as a specific stylistic reference of this particular meaning of the word **table** (technical terminology). Cf. the Russian *планшайба, стол станка*.

In polysemantic words, however, we are faced not with the problem of analysis of individual meanings, but primarily with the problem of the interrelation and interdependence of the various meanings in the semantic structure of one and the same word.

If polysemy is viewed diachronically, it is understood as the growth and development of or, in general, as a change in the semantic structure of the word.

Polysemy in diachronic terms implies that a word may retain its previous meaning or meanings and at the same time acquire one or several new ones. Then

[9] Arbekova T.I English lexicology M, 1977 p.243

the problem of the interrelation and interdependence of individual meanings of a polysemantic word may be roughly formulated as follows: did the word always possess all its meanings or did some of them appear earlier than the others? are the new meanings dependent on the meanings already existing? and if so what is the nature of this dependence? Can we observe any changes in the arrangement of the meanings? and so on.

In the course of a diachronic semantic analysis of the polysemantic word **table** we find that of all the meanings it has in Modern English, the primary meaning is ‘a flat slab of stone or wood’, which is proper to the word in the Old English period (*OE*. **tabule** from *L*. **tabula);** all other meanings are secondary as they are derived from the primary meaning of the word and appeared later than the primary meaning,

The terms s e c o n d a r y and d e r i v e d meaning are to a certain extent synonymous. When we describe the meaning of the word as “secondary” we imply that it could not have appeared before the primary meaning was in existence. When we refer to the meaning as “derived” we imply not only that, but also that it is dependent on the primary meaning and somehow subordinate to it. In the case of the word **table,** e.g., we may say that the meaning ‘the food put on the table’ is a secondary meaning as it is derived from the meaning ‘a piece of furniture (on which meals are laid out)’.

It follows that the main source of polysemy is a change in the semantic structure of the word.

Polysemy may also arise from homonymy. When two words become identical in sound-form, the meanings of the two words are felt as making up one semantic structure. Thus, the human **ear** and the **ear** of corn are from the diachronic point of view two homonyms. One is etymologically related to *L*. **auris**, the other to *L*. **acus, aceris**. Synchronically, however, they are perceived as two meanings of one and the same word. The **ear** of **corn** is felt to be a metaphor of the usual type (cf. the eye of the needle, the foot of the mountain) and consequently as one of the derived or, synchronically, minor meanings of the polysemantic word **ear.** Cases

of this type are comparatively rare and, as a rule, illustrative of the vagueness of the border-line between polysemy and homonymy.

Semantic changes result as a rule in new meanings being added to the ones already existing in the semantic structure of the word. Some of the old meanings may become obsolete or even disappear, but the bulk of English words tend to an increase in number of meanings.

Synchronically we understand polysemy as the coexistence of various meanings of the same word at a certain historical period of the development of the English language. In this case the problem of the interrelation and interdependence of individual meanings making up the semantic structure of the word must be investigated along different lines.

In connection with the polysemantic word table discussed above we are mainly concerned with the following problems: are all the nine meanings equally representative of the semantic structure of this word? Is the order in which the meanings are enumerated (or recorded) in dictionaries purely arbitrary or does it reflect the comparative value of individual meanings, the place they occupy in the semantic structure of the word table? Intuitively we feel that the meaning that first occurs to us whenever we hear or see the word table is ‘an article of furniture’. This emerges as the basic or the central meaning of the word and all other meanings are minor in comparison.

It should be noted that whereas the basic meaning occurs in various and widely different contexts, minor meanings are observed only in certain contexts, e.g. ‘to keep- the table amused’, ‘table of contents’ and so on. Thus we can assume that the meaning ‘a piece of furniture’ occupies the central place in the semantic structure of the word table. As to other meanings of this word we find it hard to grade them in order of their comparative value. Some may, for example, consider the second and the third meanings (‘the persons seated at the table’ and ‘the food put on the table’) as equally “important”, some may argue that the meaning ‘food put on the table’ should be given priority. As synchronically there is no objective criterion to go by, we may find it difficult in some cases to single

out even the basic meanings since two or more meanings of the word may be felt as equally “central” in its semantic structure. If we analyse the verb to get, e.g., which of the two meanings ‘to obtain’ (get a letter, knowledge, some sleep) or ‘to arrive’ (get to London, to get into bed) shall we regard as the basic meaning of this word?

A more objective criterion of the comparative value of individual meanings seems to be the frequency of their occurrence in speech. There is a tendency in modern linguistics to interpret the concept of the central meaning in terms of the frequency of occurrence of this meaning. In a study of five million words made by a group of linguistic scientists it was found that the frequency value of individual meanings is different. As far as the word table is concerned the meaning ‘a piece of furniture’ possesses the highest frequency value and makes up 52% of all the uses of this word, the meaning ‘an orderly arrangement of facts’ (table of contents) accounts for 35%, all other meanings between them make up just 13% of the uses of this word[10].

Of great importance is the stylistic stratification of meanings of **a** polysemantic word as individual meanings may differ in their stylistic reference. Stylistic (or regional) status of monosemantic words is easily perceived. For instance the word **daddy** can be referred to the colloquial stylistic layer, the word **parent** to the bookish. The word **movie** is recognisably American and **barnie** is Scottish. Polysemantic words as a rule cannot be given any such restrictive labels. To do it we must state the meaning in which they are used. There is nothing colloquial or slangy or American about the words **yellow** denoting colour, **jerk** in the meaning ‘a sudden movement or stopping of movement’ as far as these particular meanings are concerned. But when **yellow** is used in the meaning of ’sensational’ or when **jerk** is used in the meaning of ‘an odd person’ it is both slang and American.

[10] Карашук П.М. Аффиксальное словообразование в английском языке М,1977 р. 340

Stylistically neutral meanings are naturally more frequent. The polysemantic words **worker** and **hand,** e.g., may both denote ‘a man who does manual work’, but whereas this is the most frequent and stylistically neutral meaning of the word **worker,** it is observed only in 2.8% of all occurrences of the word **hand,** in the semantic structure of which the meaning ‘a man who does manual work’ **(to hire factory hands)** is one of its marginal meanings characterised by colloquial stylistic reference.

It should also be noted that the meaning which has the highest frequency is the one representative of the whole semantic structure of the word. This can be illustrated by analysing the words under discussion. **For** example the meaning representative of the word **hand** which first occurs to us is ‘the end of the arm beyond the wrist’. This meaning accounts for at least 77% of all occurrences of this word. This can also be observed by comparing the word **hand** with its Russian equivalents. We take it for granted that the English word **hand** is correlated with the Russian *рука,* but not with the Russian *рабочий* though this particular equivalent may also be found, e.g. in the case of **to hire factory hands.**

From the discussion of the diachronic and synchronic approach to polysemy it follows that the interrelation and **the** interdependence of individual meanings of the word may be described from two different angles. These two approaches are not mutually exclusive but are viewed here as supplementing each other in the linguistic analysis of a polysemantic word.

It should be noted, however, that as the semantic structure is never static, the relationship between the diachronic and synchronic evaluation of individual meanings may be different in different periods of the historical development of language. This is perhaps best illustrated by the semantic analysis of the word **revolution.** Originally,when this word first appeared in *ME.* 1350 — 1450 it denoted ‘the revolving motion of celestial bodies’ and also ‘the return or recurrence of a point or a period of time’. Later on the word acquired other meanings and among them that of ‘a complete overthrow of the established government or regime’ and also ‘a complete change, a great reversal of conditions.

The meaning ‘revolving motion’ in *ME* was both primary (diachronically) and central’ (synchronically). In Modern English, however, while we can still diachronically describe this meaning as primary it is no longer synchronically central as the arrangement of meanings in the semantic structure of the word revolution has considerably changed and its central and the most frequent meaning is ‘a complete overthrow of the established government or the regime’. It follows that the primary meaning of the word may become synchronically one of its minor meanings and diachronically a secondary meaning may become the central meaning of the word. The actual arrangement of meanings in the semantic structure of any word in any historical period is the result of the semantic development of this word within the system of the given language.

The words of different languages which are similar or identical in lexical meaning, especially in the denotational meaning are termed correlated words. The wording of the habitual question of English learners, e.g. “What is the English for *стол?”*, and the answer “The English for *стол* is ‘table'” also shows that we take the words **table** *стол* to be correlated. Semantic correlation, however, is not to be interpreted as semantic identity. From what was said about the arbitrariness of the sound-form of words and complexity of their semantic structure, it can be inferred that one-to-one correspondence between the semantic structure of correlated polysemantic words in different languages is scarcely possible.

Arbitrariness of linguistic signs implies that one cannot deduce from the sound-form of a word the meaning or meanings it possesses. Languages differ not only in the sound-form of words; their systems of meanings are also different. It follows that the semantic structures of correlated words of two different languages cannot be coextensive, i.e. can never “cover each other". A careful analysis invariably shows that semantic relationship between correlated words, especially polysemantic words is very complex.

The actual meanings of polysemantic words and their arrangement in the semantic structure of correlated words in different languages may be altogether

different. This may be seen by comparing the semantic structure of correlated polysemantic words in English and in Russian. As a rule it is only the central meaning that is to a great extent identical, all other meanings or the majority of meanings usually differ. If we compare, e.g., the nine meanings of the English word **table** and the meanings of the Russian word *стол*, we shall easily observe not only the difference in the arrangement and the number of meanings making up their respective semantic structures, but also the difference in the individual meanings that may, at first sight, appear similar.

table	**стол**
1. a piece of furniture	1. предмет обстановки
2. the persons seated at a	2. *Ср. арх.* застолица
3. the food put on a table, Note. This meaning is rare in Modern English. Usually (Cf. **board and lodging, plain cooking.)**	3. пища (подаваемая на Note. Commonly used, stylistically neutral. (стол и квартира, простой, сытный,
4. a flat slab of stone or board	4. *Ср.* плита
5. slabs of stone (with	5. *Ср.* скрижали
6. *Bibl.* Words cut into	6. *Ср.* заповеди
7. an orderly arrangement	7. *Ср.* таблица
8. part of a machine-tool	8. *Ср.* планшайба
9. a level area, plateau	9. *Ср.* плато

As can be seen from the above, only one of the meanings and namely the central meaning ‘a piece of furniture’ may be described as identical. The denotational meaning ‘the food put on the table’ although existing in the words of both languages has different connotational components in each of them. The whole of the semantic structure of these words is altogether different. The difference is still more pronounced if we consider all the meanings of the Russian word *стол,* e.g. ‘department, section, bureau’ (cf. *адресный стол, стол заказов)* not to be found in the semantic structure of the word **table.**

1.The problem of polysemy is mainly the problem of interrelation and interdependence of the various meanings of the same word. Polysemy viewed diachronically is a historical change in the semantic structure of the word resulting in disappearance of some meanings (or) and in new meanings being added to the ones already existing and also in the rearrangement of these meanings in its semantic structure. Polysemy viewed synchronically is understood as coexistence of the various meanings of the same word at a certain historical period and the arrangement of these meanings in the semantic structure of the word[11].

2. The concepts of central (basic) and marginal (minor) meanings may be interpreted in terms of their relative frequency in speech. The meaning having the highest frequency is usually the one representative of the
semantic structure of the word, i.e. synchronically its central (basic) meaning.

3. As the semantic structure is never static the relationship between
the diachronic and synchronic evaluation of the individual meanings of the same word may be different in different periods of the historical development of language.

4. The semantic structure of polysemantic words is not homogeneous as far as the status of individual meanings is concerned. Some meaning (or meanings) is representative of the word in isolation, others are perceived only in certain contexts.

5. The whole of the semantic structure of correlated polysemantic words of different languages can never be identical. Words are felt as correlated if their basic (central) meanings coincide.

2.3 The differentiation between homonymy and polysemy

Words identical in sound-form but different in meaning are tradition-ally termed homonyms.

Modern English is exceptionally rich in homonymous words and word-forms. It is held that languages where short words abound have more homonyms

[11] Mednikova E. M Seminars in English lexicology M, 1978 p. 298

than those where longer words are prevalent. Therefore it is sometimes suggested that abundance of homonyms in Modern English is to be accounted for by the monosyllabic structure of the commonly used English words[12].

When analysing different cases of homonymy we find that some words are homonymous in all their forms, i.e. we observe f u l l homonymy of the paradigms of two or more different words, e.g., in **seal**$_1$ — 'a sea animal' and **seal**$_2$ — 'a design printed on paper by means of a stamp'. The paradigm "seal, seal's, seals, seals' " is identical for both of them and gives no indication of whether it is **seal**$_1$ or **seal**$_2$, that we are analysing. In other cases, e.g. **seal**$_1$ — 'a sea animal' and (to) seal, — 'to close tightly', we see that although some individual word- forms are homonymous, the whole of the paradigm is not identical. Compare, for instance, the paradigms: **seal**$_1$ **(to) seal**$_3$

seal	seal
seal's	seals
seals	sealed
seals'	sealing, etc.

It is easily observed that only some of the word-forms (e.g. seal, seals, etc.) are homonymous, whereas others (e.g. sealed, sealing) are not. In such cases we cannot speak of homonymous words but only of homonymy of individual word-forms or of p a r t i a l h o m o n y m y . This is true of a number of other cases, e.g. compare **find** [faind], **found [**faund], **found** [faund], and **found** [faund], **founded** ['faundid], **founded** ['faundid]; **know** [nou], **knows** [nouz], **knew** [nju:], and **no** [nou]; **nose** [nouz], noses ['nouzis]; **new** [nju:] in which partial homonymy is observed.

Consequently all cases of homonymy may be classified into full and partial homonymy — i.e. homonymy of words and homonymy of individual word-forms.

[12] Мешков Д. Словооброзование современного английского языка М, 1976 p. 312.

The bulk of full homonyms are to be found within the same parts of speech (e.g. **seal**$_1$ *n* **—** **seal**$_2$ *n),* partial homonymy as a rule is observed in word-forms belonging to different parts of speech (e.g. **seal**$_1$ *n* — **seal**$_3$ *v).* This is not to say that partial homonymy is impossible within one part of speech. For instance in the case of the two verbs — **lie** [lai] — ‘to be in a horizontal or resting position’ and He [lai] — ‘to make an untrue statement' — we also find partial homonymy as only two word-forms [lai], [laiz] are homonymous, all other forms of the two verbs are different. Cases of full homonymy may be found in different parts of speech too; e.g. **for [**fo:] — preposition, **for** [fo:] — conjunction and **four** [fo:] — numeral, as these parts of speech have no other word-forms.

Homonyms may be also classified by the type of meaning into lexical, lexico-grammatical and grammatical homonyms. In **seal**$_1$ *n* and **seal**$_2$ *n*, e.g., the part-of-speech meaning of the word and the grammatical meanings of all its forms are identical (cf. **seal** [si:l] Common Case Singular, seal’s [si:lz] Possessive Case Singular for both **seal**$_1$ and **seal**$_2$**).** The difference is confined to the lexical meaning only: **seal**$_1$ denotes ‘a sea animal’, ‘the fur of this animal’, etc., **seal**$_2$ — ‘a design printed on paper, the stamp by which the design is made’, etc. So we can say that **seal**$_2$ and **seal**$_1$ are l e x i c a l h o m o n y m s because they differ in lexical meaning.

If we compare **seal**$_1$ — ‘a sea animal’, and (to) **seal**$_3$ **— ‘**to close tightly, we shall observe not only a difference in the lexical meaning of their homonymous word-forms but a difference in their grammatical meanings as well. Identical sound-forms, i.e. **seals** [si:lz] (Common Case Plural of the noun) and (he) **seals** [si:lz] (third person Singular of the verb) possess each of them different grammatical meanings. As both grammatical and lexical meanings differ we describe these homonymous word-forms as l e x i c o - g r a m m a t i c a l .

Lexico-grammatical homonymy generally implies that the homonyms in question belong to different parts of speech as the part-of-speech meaning is a blend of the lexical and grammatical semantic components. There may be cases however when lexico-grammatical homonymy is observed within the same part of

speech, e.g., in the verbs (to) **find** [faind] and (to) **found** [faund], where the homonymic word-forms: **found** [faund] — Past Tense of (to) **find** and **found** [faund] — Present Tense of **(to) found** differ both grammatically and lexically.

Modern English abounds in homonymic word-forms differing in grammatical meaning only. In the paradigms of the majority of verbs the form of the Past Tense is homonymous with the form of Participle II, e.g. **asked** [a:skt] — **asked** [a:skt]; in the paradigm of nouns we usually find homonymous forms of the Possessive Case Singular and the Common Case Plural, e.g. brother's ['br0Dqz] — **brothers** ['br0Dqz]. It may be easily observed that g r a m m a t i c a l h o m o n y m y is the homonymy of different word-forms of one and the same word.

The two classifications: f u l l and p a r t i a l h o m o n y m y and l e x i c a l, l e x i c o - g r a m m a t i c a l and g r a m m a t i c a l h o m o n y m y are not mutually exclusive. All homonyms may be described on the basis of the two criteria — homonymy of all forms of the word or only some of the word-forms and also by the type of meaning in which homonymous words or word-forms differ. So we speak of the full lexical homonymy of **sea**$_1$ *n* and **seal**$_2$ *n*, of the partial lexical homonymy of **lie**$_1$ *v* and **lie**$_2$ ***v,*** and of the partial lexico-grammatical homonymy of **seal**$_1$ *n* and **seal**$_3$ *v*.

It should be pointed out that in the classification discussed above one of the groups, namely lexico-grammatical homonymy, is not homogeneous. This can be seen by analysing the relationship between two pairs of lexico-grammatical homonyms, e.g.

1. **seal**$_1$ *n* — 'a sea animal'; **seal**$_3$ *v* — 'to close tightly as with a seal';
2. **seal**$_2$ *n* — 'a piece of wax, lead'; **seal**$_3$ *v* — 'toclose tightly as with a seal'.

We can see that **seal**$_1$ *n* and **seal**$_3$ *v* actually differ in both grammatical and lexical meanings. We cannot establish any semantic connection between the meaning 'a sea animal' and 'to close tightly'. The lexical meanings of **seal**$_2$ *n* and **seal**$_3$ *v* are apprehended by speakers as closely related. The noun and the verb both denote something connected with "a piece of wax, lead, etc., a stamp by means of

which a design is printed on paper and paper envelopes are tightly closed". Consequently the pair **seal$_2$** *n* — **seal$_3$** *v* does not answer the description of homonyms as words or word-forms that sound alike but differ in lexical meaning. This is true of a number of other cases of lexico-grammatical homonymy, e.g. **work** *n* — (**to**) **work** *v;* **paper** *n* — **(to) paper** *v;* **love** *n* — **(to) love** *v* and so on. As a matter of fact all homonyms arising from conversion have related meanings. As a rule however the whole of the semantic structure of such words is not identical. The noun **paper,** e.g., has at least five meanings (1. material in the form of sheets, 2. a newspaper, 3. a document, 4. an essay, 5. a set of printed examination questions) whereas the verb **(to) paper** possesses but one meaning 'to cover with wallpaper'.

Considering this peculiarity of lexico-grammatical homonyms we may subdivide them into two groups: A. identical in sound-form but different in their grammatical and lexical meanings (s**eal$_1$** *n* — **seal$_3$** *v),* and B. identical in sound-form but different in their grammatical meanings and p a r t l y different in their lexical meaning, i.e. partly different in their semantic structure **(seal$_3$** *n* — **seal$_3$** *v;* **paper** *n* **— (to) paper** *v).* Thus the definition of homonyms as words possessing identical sound-form but different semantic structure seems to be more exact as it allows of a better understanding of complex cases of homonymy, e.g. **seal$_1$** *n* — **seal$_2$** *n;* **seal$_3$** *v* — **seal$_4$** *v* which can be analysed into homonymic pairs, e.g. **seal$_1$** *n* — **seal**$_2$ *n* lexical homonyms; **seal$_1$** *n* — **seal$_3$** *v* — lexico- grammatical homonyms, subgroup A; **seal$_2$** *n* **— seal$_3$** *v* — lexico-grammatical homonyms, subgroup B.

In the discussion of the problem of homonymy we proceeded from the assumption that words are two-facet units possessing both sound-form and meaning, and we deliberately disregarded their graphic form. Some linguists, however, argue that the graphic form of words in Modern English is just as important as their sound-form and should be taken into consideration in the analysis and classification of homonyms. Consequently they proceed from definition of homonyms as words identical in sound-form or spelling but different in meaning. It follows that in their classification of homonyms all the three

aspects: sound-form, graphic form and meaning are taken into account. Accordingly they classify homonyms into h o m o g r a p h s , h o m o p h o n e s and p e r f e c t h o m o n y m s [13].

H o m o g r a p h s are words identical in spelling, but different both in their sound-form and meaning, e.g. **bow** *n* [bou] — 'a piece of wood curved by a string and used for shooting arrows' and **bow** *n* [bau] — 'the bending of the head or body'; **tear** *n* [tia] — 'a drop of water that comes from the eye' and **tear** *v* [tea] — 'to pull apart by force'.

H o m o p h o n e s are words identical in sound-form but different both in spelling and in meaning, e.g. **sea** *n* and **see** *v;* **son** *n* and **sun** *n.*

P e r f e c t h o m o n y m s are words identical both in spelling and in sound-form but different in meaning, e.g. **case$_1$** *n* — 'something that has happened' and **case$_2$** *n* — 'a box, a container'.

The description of various types of homonyms in Modern English would be incomplete if we did not give a brief outline of the diachronic processes that account for their appearance.

The two main sources of homonymy are: 1) diverging meaning development of a polysemantic word, and 2) converging sound development of two or more different words. The process of d i v e r g i n g m e a n i n g d e v e l o p m e n t can be observed when different meanings of the same word move so far away from each other that they come to be regarded as two separate units. This happened, for example, in the case of Modern English **flower** and **flour** which originally were one word *(ME.* **flour,** cf. *OFr.* **flour, flor, *L.* flos — florem)** meaning 'the flower' and 'the finest part of wheat'. The difference in spelling underlines the fact that from the synchronic point of view they are two distinct words even though historically they have a common origin.

C o n v e r g e n t s o u n d d e v e l o p m e n t is the most potent factor in the creation of homonyms. The great majority of homonyms arise as a result of

[13] Marchand H.Studies in Syntax and Word-Formation. Munich, 1974.p.347

converging sound development which leads to the coincidence of two or more words which were phonetically distinct at an earlier date. For example, *OE.* ic and *OE* eaze have become identical in pronunciation *(MnE.* I [ai] and **eye** [ai]). A number of lexico-grammatical homonyms appeared as a result of convergent sound development of the verb and the noun (cf. *MnE.* **love — (to) love** and ***OE.* lufu — lufian).**

Words borrowed from other languages may through phonetic convergence become homonymous. *ON.* **ras** and *Fr.* race are homonymous in Modern English (cf. **race$_1$ [**reis] — 'running' and **race$_2$ [**reis] — 'a distinct ethnical stock').

One of the most debatable problems in semasiology is the demarcation line between homonymy and polysemy, i.e. between different meanings of one word and the meanings of two homonymous words.

If homonymy is viewed diachronically then all cases of sound convergence of two or more words may be safely regarded as cases of homonymy, as, e.g., **race$_1$** and **race$_2$** can be traced back to two etymologically different words. The cases of semantic divergence, however, are more doubtful. The transition from polysemy to homonymy is a gradual process, so it is hardly possible to point out the precise stage at which divergent semantic development tears asunder all ties between the meanings and results in the appearance of two separate words. In the case of **flower, flour,** e.g., it is mainly the resultant divergence of graphic forms that gives us grounds to assert that the two meanings which originally made up the semantic structure of o n e word are now apprehended as belonging to t w o different words.

S y n c h r o n i c a l l y the differentiation between homonymy and polysemy is as a rule wholly based on the semantic criterion. It is usually held that if a connection between the various meanings is apprehended by the speaker, these are to be considered as making up the semantic structure of a polysemantic word, otherwise it is a case of homonymy, not polysemy.

Thus the semantic criterion implies that the difference between polysemy and homonymy is actually reduced to the differentiation between related and unrelated

meanings. This traditional semantic criterion does not seem to be reliable, firstly, because various meanings of the same word and the meanings of two or more different words may be equally apprehended by the speaker as synchronically unrelated. For instance, the meaning ‘a change in the form of a noun or pronoun’ which is usually listed in dictionaries as one of the meanings of **case**$_1$ seems to be synchronically just as unrelated to the meanings of this word as ’something that has happened’, or ‘a question decided in the court of law’ to the meaning of **case**$_2$ — ‘a box, a container’, etc.

Secondly, in the discussion of lexico-grammatical homonymy it was pointed out that some of the meanings of homonyms arising from conversion (e.g. **seal**$_2$ *n* — **seal**$_3$ *v;* **paper** *n* — **paper** *v)* are related, so this criterion cannot be applied to a large group of homonymous word-forms in Modern English. This criterion proves insufficient in the synchronic analysis of a number of other borderline cases, e.g. **brother — brothers** — ’sons of the same parent’ and **brethren** — ‘fellow members of a religious society’. The meanings may be apprehended as related and then we can speak of polysemy pointing out that the difference in the morphological structure of the plural form reflects the difference of meaning. Otherwise we may regard this as a case of partial lexical homonymy.

It is sometimes argued that the difference between related and unrelated meanings may be observed in the manner in which the meanings of polysemantic words are as a rule relatable. It is observed that different meanings of one word have certain stable relationship which are not to be found ‘between the meanings of two homonymous words. A clearly perceptible connection, e.g., can be seen in all metaphoric or metonymic meanings of one word (cf., e.g., **foot** of **the** man **— foot** of the mountain, **loud** voice — **loud** colours, etc., cf. also **deep** well and **deep** knowledge, etc.).

Such semantic relationships are commonly found in the meanings of one word and are considered to be indicative of polysemy. It is also suggested that the semantic connection may be described in terms of such features as, e.g., form and

function (cf. **horn** of an animal and **horn** as an instrument), or process and result (to **run** — 'move with quick steps' and a **run** — act of running).

Similar relationships, however, are observed between the meanings of two partially homonymic words, e.g. to **run** and a **run** in the stocking.

Moreover in the synchronic analysis of polysemantic words we often find meanings that cannot be related in any way, as, e.g. the meanings of the word **case** discussed above. Thus the semantic criterion proves not only untenable in theory but also rather vague and because of this impossible in practice as in many cases it cannot be used to discriminate between several meanings of one word and the meanings of two different words[14].

The criterion of distribution suggested by some linguists is undoubtedly helpful, but mainly in cases of lexico-grammatical and grammatical homonymy. For example, in the homonymic pair **paper « — (to) paper** *v* the noun may be preceded by the article and followed by a verb; **(to) paper** can never be found in identical distribution. This formal criterion can be used to discriminate not only lexico-grammatical but also grammatical homonyms, but it often fails in cases of lexical homonymy, not differentiated by means of spelling.

Homonyms differing in graphic form, e.g. such lexical homonyms as **knight — night** or **flower — flour,** are easily perceived to be two different lexical units as any formal difference of words is felt as indicative of the existence of two separate lexical units. Conversely lexical homonyms identical both in pronunciation and spelling are often apprehended as different meanings of one word.

It is often argued that in general the context in which the words are used suffices to establish the borderline between homonymous words, e.g. the meaning of **case$_1$** in **several cases of robbery** can be easily differentiated from the meaning of **case$_2$** in a **jewel case, a glass case.** This however is true of different meanings of the same word as recorded in dictionaries, e.g. of case, as can be seen by comparing **the case will be tried in the law-court** and t h e p o s s e s s i v e c a s e of t h e noun.

[14] Ginzburg R.S A course in Modern English lexicology. M,1979 p.108-109

Thus, the context serves to differentiate meanings but is of little help in distinguishing between homonymy and polysemy. Consequently we have to admit that no formal means have as yet been found to differentiate between several meanings of one word and the meanings of its homonyms.

In the discussion of the problems of polysemy and homonymy we proceeded from the assumption that the word is the basic unit of language.[1] Some linguists hold that the basic and elementary units at the semantic level of language are the lexico-semantic variants of the word, i.e. individual word-meanings. In that case, naturally, we can speak only of homonymy of individual lexico-semantic variants, as polysemy is by definition, at least on the synchronic plane, the coexistence of several meanings in the semantic structure of the word.

1. Homonyms are words that sound alike but have different semantic structure. The problem of homonymy is mainly the problem of differentiation between two different semantic structures of identically sounding words.

2. Homonymy of words and homonymy of individual word-forms may be regarded as full and p a r t i a l homonymy. Cases of f u l l hom o n y m y are generally observed in words belonging to the same part of speech. P a r t i a l h o m o n y m y is usually to be found in word-forms of different parts of speech.

3. Homonymous words and word-forms may be classified by the type of meaning that serves to differentiate between identical sound-forms. L e x i c a l h o m o n y m s differ in lexical meaning, l e x i c o - g r a m m a t i c a l in both lexical and grammatical meanings, whereas g r a m m a t i c a l h o m o n y m s are those that differ in grammatical meaning only.

L e x i c o - g r a m m a t i c a l h o m o n y m s are not homogeneous. Homonyms arising from conversion have some related lexical meanings in their semantic structure. Though some individual meanings may be related the whole of the semantic structure of homonyms is essentially different.

5. If the graphic form of homonyms is taken into account, they are classified on the basis of the three aspects — sound-form, graphic form and meaning — into three big groups: h o m o g r a p h s (identical graphic form), h o m o p h o n e s

(identical sound-form) and p e r f e c t h o m o n y m s (identical sound-form and graphic form).

6. The two main sources of homonymy are: 1) diverging meaning development of a polysemantic word, and 2) convergent sound development of two or more different words. The latter is the most potent factor in the creation of homonyms.

7. The most debatable problem of homonymy is the demarcation line "between homonymy and polysemy, i.e. between different meanings of one word and the meanings of two or more phonemically different words.

8. The criteria used in the synchronic analysis of homonymy are: 1) the semantic criterion of related or unrelated meanings; 2) the criterion of spelling; 3) the criterion of distribution.

There are cases of lexical homonymy when none of the criteria enumerated above is of any avail. In such cases the demarcation line between polysemy and homonymy is rather fluid.

9. The problem of discriminating between polysemy and homonymy in theoretical linguistics is closely connected with the problem of the basic unit at the semantic level of analysis.

2.4 Analysis of the semantics of the polysemantic words denoting action

Predicate frames describe a state of affairs and specify the relationship between the predicate arguments (represented by the variable x). Each argument is characterized by a selection restriction --described in terms of binary semantic features-- and fulfills a semantic function (Agent, Experiencer, Goal, Recipient, etc.)[15].

Consider the predicate frame of the verb bow:

[(x1: prototyp. human)Ag (x2: prototyp. part of the body)Go] Action

DEF = to bend your head and upper body as a greeting or as a sign of respect.

[15] Goatly, Andrew The Language of Metaphors. London: Routledge., 1997., p. 450

This frame describes an Action and specifies the relationship between a human argument, performing the function of Agent, and an argument fulfilling the function of Goal and semantically marked as part of the body (head).

The elaboration of the cognitive axis entails the formulation of the predicate conceptual schemata, which are cognitive constructs encoding semantic, syntactic and pragmatic information and representing our knowledge about the lexical unit in question. Conceptual schemata are codified at three levels: lexeme, subdomain and domain.

Polysemy of MOVEMENT verbs

Many MOVEMENT verbs fall within several subdomains. This double/multiple membership may be accounted for on the following grounds:

a) The meaning component focalized

b) The genus of the lexeme

c) The metaphorical extension of the verb

Let us examine each of these factors.

Focalization of a meaning component

We have used Dik's (1997a) pragmatic functions of Focus and Topic to account for some instances of polysemy in the semantic field of MOVEMENT. These functions specify the information status of the constituents of the predicate within the communicative setting in which they occur, and they are assigned to the constituents after the assigning of semantic and syntactic functions. The Topic is the entity about which the predication predicates something in the setting in question, whereas the Focus refers to the most relevant information in the setting:

(1) As for Mary (Focus), I don't care for her (Topic).

The application of such functions to the paradigmatic description of the lexicon is based on the organization of the lexicon at three levels: domain, subdomain and lexeme. In consonance with this idea, we may formulate various levels of focalization:

Level of focalization 1: Domain

Level of focalization 2: Subdomain

Levels of focalization 3, 4: Lexeme

A domain stands for the level of focalization number 1. It performs the function of Focus in that it represents one of the basic areas of meaning.
A subdomain represents the level of focalization number 2 in that it focuses on an area of meaning within a domain.

The following levels of focalization are formulated at lexeme-level. This means that the lexemes of a subdomain represent different levels of focalization based on the meaning hierarchies within the subdomain.

What is most relevant is that what is Focus on a level becomes Topic on the level below. Then a domain, which performs the function of Focus on the level of focalization number 1, becomes topic at subdomain-level in that it presents the given information, since all the subdomains of MOVEMENT lexicalize the concept of movement. Therefore, the archilexeme of the lexical field, move, which performs the function of Focus at domain-level in that it codifies the nuclear meaning of the domain, becomes Topic at subdomain-level, since it is the definiens of the archilexeme of each subdomain.

Similarly, a subdomain, which acts as Focus on the level of focalization number 2, becomes Topic at lexeme-level, since all the lexemes in the subdomain share the nuclear information formalised by the subdomain. Then, as we move down in the semantic hierarchy which characterizes the internal structure of each subdomain, what is Focus in the meaning definition of the archilexeme (level of focalization number 3) becomes Topic in the meaning definition of its hyponyms (level of focalization number 4). For example, if we take the subdomain analysed above, To move down, the definiens “to move down” acts as Focus in the definition of fall (the archilexeme), and as Topic in the definition of plunge, plummet and come down, the function of Focus being performed by the semantic parameters of manner and place in that they individuate the members of the subdomain[16].

[16] Goatly, Andrew. The Language of Metaphors. London: Routledge., 1997., p. 450

I have found polysemantic words in Th. Dreiser's works now we have analyses them

Let us now consider the functions of Topic and Focus in the case of lexemes belonging to several subdomains. Here the function of Focus applies to a particular meaning component, which thus becomes especially relevant. The verbs whizz and zoom involve quick movement, thus belonging to the subdomain to move quickly. But they can also denote movement through the air:

The bullets whizzed past. (Th. Dreiser)

Then, these verbs belong to the subdomain to move quickly or to move through the air depending on which parameter is highlighted, whether manner or medium.

Similarly, the verbs circle and whirl refer to circular movement in the air. If the manner component is focalized, then the verbs fall in the subdomain to move in a circular manner. If the focus is on the medium, then the verbs belong to the subdomain to move through the air.

The table below shows the double membership of these verbs.

VERB

FOCUS

DIMENSION

MEANING

Whizz

zoom

circle

whirl

Manner

To move quickly

To move in a circular manner

To move (an engine/device) very quickly with a loud whistling noise

To move (a vehicle/an aircraft) very quickly with a loud buzzing/humming noise

To move in a circular manner in the air

To turn round in the air very quickly

whizz

zoom

circle

whirl

Medium

To move through the air

To move very quickly through the air with a loud whistling noise

To move very quickly through the air with a loud noise

To fly around in circles

To move very quickly in a circular manner through the air

Genus of the lexeme

Many verbs describe generic movement. Verb membership is then determined by the semantic parameter of medium or direction, or by the parameter specifying the nature of the subject/object.

The table below presents the verbs whose membership is influenced by the medium parameter.

VERB

MEDIUM

DIMENSION

MEANING

dart

Air

Land

To move through the air

To move quickly using one's feet

To fly suddenly and quickly (insects)

To run suddenly

dive

plunge

Air

To move down through air

To move down through air

To move downwards

To move down through air quickly and steeply

To move down through air suddenly a long way

To fall suddenly a long way from a high position

Dive

plunge

Water

To move in/down below the surface of a liquid

To cause smb/smth to move in/down below the surface of a liquid

To move head-first down into water

To cause sth to move down into water quickly and violently

sink

Air

Water

Liquid

Substance

To move down through air

To move in/down below the surface of a liquid

To move down through air

To move down below the surface of a liquid/ soft substance

glide

Water

Air

Land

To move over liquid

To move through the air

To move smoothly

To move (boat) quietly and smoothly across water

To fly quietly

To move quietly and smoothly in an effortless way

The verb dart describes sudden movement in air and on land:

(3) He darted across the room. (Th. Dreiser)

(4) Bees were darting from one flower to another. (Th. Dreiser)

The verbs dive, plunge and sink designate downward movement in air and water:

(5) She plunged into the swimming-pool. (Th. Dreiser)

(6) The falcon plunged towards its prey. (Th. Dreiser)

Sink, as the general term, denotes movement in a wider variety of contexts:

(7) Helen sank into water/mud/an armchair. (Th. Dreiser)

However, we postulate that the verbs dart, dive and sink prototypically describe movement in a given medium: dart is prototypically associated with air, and dive and sink with water. Our claim is supported by the fact that the medium parameter need not be syntactically present:

(8) She dived from the bridge and rescued the drowning child. (Th. Dreiser)

(9) The aircraft-carrier, hit by a torpedo, sank at once. (Th. Dreiser)

Further, as we will show below, sink has a metaphorical projection onto FEELING, which codifies the metaphor Emotion = Liquid (Goatly 1997)[17]:

(10) When he crashed, his heart sank at the thought that he might die.

Finally, glide refers to quiet/smooth movement in a wide range of contexts (water, air, land):

(11) The cruiser glided across the sea. (Th. Dreiser)

(12) An owl glided over the fields. (Th. Dreiser)

(13) The snake glided towards its prey. (Th. Dreiser)

As mentioned above, the domain of MOVEMENT is marked by the semantic parameter of direction, which can determine verb membership. The lexemes jump, vault, leap, hop and spring are subsumed under various subdomains

[17] Goatly, Andrew. The Language of Metaphors. London: Routledge., 1997., p. 450

depending on whether they denote forward or upward/downward movement over an obstacle:

VERB

DIRECTION

DIMENSION

MEANING

Jump

Vault

Leap

Hop

Spring

Forwards

To move forwards quickly/suddenly

To move forwards quickly using your legs

To jump onto sth with your hands on it

To jump energetically a long distance

To jump on one foot (sb)/with both feet (birds/small animals)

To jump suddenly

Jump

Vault

Leap

Over sth

To move across/over/

through

To move over sth quickly using your legs

To jump over sth with your hands on it

To jump over sth energetically

Jump

Spring

Hop

Up/Down

To move up/down using one's feet

To move up/down quickly using one's feet

To jump suddenly

To jump on one leg

(14) Robert jumped one metre/over the fence/out of the shadow. (Th. Dreiser)

(15) Carol sprang at him/to her feet. (Th. Dreiser)

Finally, as shown below, verb membership can also be determined by the parameter describing the nature of the subject or object.

ARGUMENT

SEMANTIC SCOPE

VERB

DIMENSION

MEANING

Human/

Object

shake

tremble

quiver

To move from side to side/back and forth/up and down repeatedly

To move quickly from side to side/ up and down

To shake un-controllably/ slightly

To shake slightly

Part of the body

shake

tremble

quiver

To move one's body

To move one's body quickly from side to side/up and down

To shake un-controllably/slightly

To shake slightly

Subject

Human

Boat

sail

To move towards a place

To move over liquid

To travel to a place by ship

To move (boat) over the sea

Object

rise

fall

To move upwards

To move downwards

To move upwards through air

To move down from a high position/the sky/a tree

Vehicle/

aircraft

plunge

plummet

To move in/downwards below the surface of a liquid

To move downwards through air

To move (vehicle) below the surface of water

To move down through air very quickly

Human

rise

fall

plunge

plummet

To move one's body by raising it

To move to the ground

To stand up (fml)

To move to the ground from force of weight / loss of balance

To fall suddenly a long way from a high position

To fall very quickly from a high position

Object

swing

lift

raise

bend

To move from side to side/back and forth/up and down repeatedly

To cause stb/sth to move up

To move in a different direction

To move regularly from side to side/back and forth

To cause sb/sth to move up

To lift sth

To turn in a curve/angle

Part of the body

swing

lift

raise

bend

To move a part of one's body

To move regularly from side to side/back and forth

To move a part of one's body upwards (esp. head/arm/leg/foot)

To move a part of one's body upwards

To move a part of one's body downwards

The verbs shake, tremble and quiver may be found with a subject argument semantically characterized as human or as concrete. But they can also take an

object denoting a part of the body via the metaphor Body part = Human (Goatly 1997)[18]:

(16) Mark was so nervous that his knees were shaking. (Th. Dreiser)

Sail typically occurs with a subject semantically characterized as boat. Its use with a human agent results from a metonymical process (content for receptacle):

(17) They sailed the Mediterranean. (Th. Dreiser)

Rise designates upward movement of both human and concrete entities, but the prototypical argument is human, as shown in the restricted use of rise with human subjects when it describes body movement:

(18) She rose to greet me. (Th. Dreiser)

Fall, plunge and plummet, which denote downward movement, may also occur with human and concrete entities:

(19) He fell off the horse. (Th. Dreiser)

(20) The vase fell from her hand. (Th. Dreiser)

Lastly, the verbs swing, lift, raise and bend take an object semantically marked as object or part of the body:

(21) She lifted her head when I came in. (Th. Dreiser)

(22) The suitcase is too heavy for him to lift. (Th. Dreiser)

Metaphorical extension of the lexemes

The verbs creep and escape fall within various subdomains because of their metaphorical extension.

VERB

SUBDOMAIN

MEANING

Creep

To move in a particular way

To move quietly and slowly in order to get to a place without being noticed

[18] Goatly, Andrew. The Language of Metaphors. London: Routledge., 1997., p. 450

To move slowly

To move (light/shadow/mist) very slowly, so that you hardly notice it (lit.)

Escape

To move off/away from a place/thing/person

To leave a place after doing sth illegal

To move out of a place

To move (gas/liquid) out of an object/a container

Creep typically describes a person's slow movement towards a place and thus falls primarily within the subdomain To move in a particular way, which refers to movement on land. Yet it also belongs to the subdomain To move slowly through a process of personification (Object/Substance=Human), whereby a concrete entity semantically marked as “light/ shadow/ mist” is seen as a human entity. The meaning components speed --“slowly”-- and secrecy --“without/hardly being noticed”-- are basic to the definition of both verbs.

On the other hand, escape falls in the subdomains To move off/away from a place/ thing/ person and To move out of a place. This double membership obtains from the metaphorization of liquid as a human entity:

(23) Gas is escaping from this hole. (Th. Dreiser)

Interfield membership of MOVEMENT verbs

We have so far analysed the intrafield membership of a set of MOVEMENT verbs, i.e. their grouping under several subdomains within the semantic domain of MOVEMENT. We will now focus on the verbs' interfield membership, i.e. their projection onto other semantic fields.

The relations of a semantic domain with others codify metaphorical processes, thus showing that lexical structure is governed by conceptual structure., or, in Sweetser's words (1990:25), “much of meaning is grounded in speakers' understanding of the world”. Indeed, each language is equivalent to a particular conceptual system by means of which we interpret our environment, and this conceptual organization is reflected in the lexicon. This means that metaphor is not

only a cognitive but also a linguistic phenomenon. Metaphorical processes are encoded in the lexicon and must thus be integrated in a lexical model.

Therefore, the codification of metaphorical processes in the lexicon not only tells us a great deal about how we understand and construct reality but also reflects the internal organization of the lexicon.

Below we sketch the metaphors codified in the domain of MOVEMENT, which establish connections with the semantic fields of COGNITION, SPEECH, CHANGE, FEELING and ACTION.

MET. PROCESS

TYPE METAPHOR

METAPHOR

LEX. EXPRESSION

TARGET DOMAIN

Reification

Concretization

Idea = Object

swing, revolve, stuff

cram, shove

COGNITION

Words = Object

raise, drop, pass

SPEECH

Ideas/Words = Cloth

spin, weave

SPEECH

Place/Space

Activity = Place

rush, leave, quit abandon

ACTION

Orientational

Health = Up

fall, sink

CHANGE

Pitch = Up

rise, raise, sink, lower drop

CHANGE

More = Up

jump, rise, raise, fall sink, plunge, plummet come down, lower drop, sink

CHANGE

Importance/Status = Up

rise, climb, come down

CHANGE

Happy = Up

fall, sink, lift

FEELING

Activity/Process = Movement forward

push, prod

ACTION

Personification

Emotion = Sense expression

shake, tremble, shiver shudder, quiver

FEELING

Idea = Human

slip, escape

COGNITION

Body part = Human

fall, sink

FEELING

Following Goatly (1997), the metaphorization of abstract entities can obtain through a process of reification or personification. Reifying metaphors fall into three categories:

(i) Concretizing metaphors, which codify the representation of abstract entities as objects or cloth/clothes (first row).

(ii) Orientational metaphors, i.e. equations linked to the notion of place/space (second row).

(iii) Metaphors related to the notion of orientation. Abstract concepts such as health, pitch, happiness, amount and rank are seen as entities on a vertical axis (up/down).

The last set of equations codify the personification of abstract entities. Note that some verbs codify several metaphors, e.g. rise, fall, sink, lower. In this regard, we may affirm that the intrafield membership correlates with the interfield double membership.

MOVEMENT AND CHANGE

The projection of MOVEMENT onto CHANGE touches upon verbs denoting an increase or decrease in amount or degree, thus linking MOVEMENT to CHANGE, since the semantic parameters of amount and degree traverse the domain of CHANGE. The connection between both semantic fields obtains from a set of orientational metaphors (cf. above):

(24) He has risen to the position of manager. (Th. Dreiser)

(25) Share prices have plunged. (Th. Dreiser)

MOVEMENT AND FEELING

MOVEMENT verbs also extend to FEELING. This extension results from the codification of several metaphorical processes:

- the metaphorical representation of a feeling (happiness) on an up/down scale:

(26) Whenever I feel down, Martha lifts my spirits.

(27) Peter's face fell when I broke the news to him.

- the personification of body parts. This metaphor interacts with the previous one (cf. example above).

- the metaphorical structuring of emotions as sense expressions. The verbs shake, tremble,shiver, shudder and quiver describe body movement as expression of an internal emotional state (anxiety, fear, disgust). This metaphorical process can be explained by the fact that emotions have corresponding physical effects on the experiencer, and these effects have come to represent the emotion that caused them:

(28) He trembled like a leaf at the sight of the tiger. (Th. Dreiser)

MOVEMENT AND COGNITION

The metaphorical projection of MOVEMENT into COGNITION results from a process of reification or personification of abstract entities. On the one hand, ideas can be metaphorized as objects moving in/into (revolve, penetrate) or out of somebody's mind (slip, escape):

(29) The importance of her decision did not penetrate at first. (Th. Dreiser)

(30) His surname has slipped my mind. (Th. Dreiser)

(31) There is a major point which seems to have escaped you. (Th. Dreiser)

To use Halliday's terminology (1994:117), the last examples are instances of the please-type metaphorical structuring of mental processes. Mental processes can be represented either as like-types or please-types[19]. This means that I like X is equivalent to X pleases me. Then, It has slipped my mind/It has escaped me has the same meaning as I have forgotten it.

Ideas can also be seen as objects which are pushed into someone's mind:

(32) He stuffed my head full of strange ideas. (Th. Dreiser)

Following Reddy (1993), the verbs stuff, cram and shove lexicalize an aspect of the conduit metaphor, which explains the conceptualization of communication as the transfer of thoughts bodily from one person to another.

MOVEMENT AND SPEECH

[19] Halliday, Mark. A. K. An Introduction to Functional Grammar. London: Edward Arnold., 1994. p. 464

The verbs raise, drop, pass, spin and weave show the extension of MOVEMENT to SPEECH. Ideas can be communicated like objects being moved: raise (a subject, an objection), drop7 (a hint, remark), pass (a sentence, remark):

(33) You shouldn't drop hints about promotion to your boss. (Th. Dreiser)

Words can also be metaphorically seen as strands of thread that the speaker puts together to produce a coherent message:

(34) The old sea captain sat by the fire spinning yawns. (Th. Dreiser)

MOVEMENT AND ACTION

The connection of MOVEMENT with ACTION is established though the metaphorization of activities as places. Activities can be described as if they were linear motion. It is then possible to move into (rush) or away from an activity (leave, quit, abandon):

(35) They abandoned the game because of the rain. (Th. Dreiser)

On the other hand, causing an activity is causing movement forward:

(36) She pushed me into taking the job. (Th. Dreiser)

The semantic analysis of the field of MOVEMENT has shown that words are embedded in a set of rich semantic relations. The focalization of a meaning component and the genus of the lexeme account for the extension of a few MOVEMENT verbs to other subdomains within the domain (intrafield extensions). On the other hand, the metaphorical processes encoded in the semantic domain of MOVEMENT account for the projection of many verbs onto other semantic fields (interfield extensions), thus giving proof of the linguistic significance of metaphor.

CHAPTER III The problems of working at a system of exercises for teaching English vocabulary

3.1 A lexical approach of teaching vocabulary

A lexical approach to language teaching foregrounds vocabulary learning, both in the form of individual, high frequency words, and in the form of word combinations (or chunks). The impetus for a lexical approach to language teaching derives from the following principles[20]:

- a syllabus should be organised around meanings
- the most frequent words encode the most frequent meanings and
- words typically co-occur with other words
- these co-occurrences (or chunks) are an aid to fluency

A syllabus organised around meanings rather than forms (such as grammar structures) is called a semantic syllabus. A number of theorists have suggested that a syllabus of meanings – especially those meanings that learners are likely to need to express – would be more useful than a syllabus of structures. For example, most learners will at some time need to express such categories of meaning (or notions) as possession or frequency or regret or manner. Simply teaching learners a variety

[20] www.Cambrige lesson UK

of structures, such as the present simple or the second conditional, is no guarantee that their communicative needs will be met. The present simple, for example, supports a wide range of meanings (present habit, future itinerary, past narrative, etc), some of which may be less useful than others. Wouldn't it be better to start with the more useful meanings themselves, rather than the structure?

A semantic syllabus – i.e. one based around meanings – is likely to have a strong lexical focus. The following sentences, for example, all involve the present simple, but they express different notions. These notional meanings are signalled by certain key words (underlined):

Does this towel belong to you? (possession)

How often do you go to London? (frequency)

I wish I'd done French, (regret)

Exercise is the best way of losing weight, (manner)

Words like belong, often, wish and way carry the lion's share of the meaning in these sentences: the grammar is largely padding. A lexical approach argues that meaning is encoded primarily in words. This view motivated two coursebook writers, Dave and Jane Willis, to propose that a lexical syllabus might be the best way of organising a course. The Willises believed that a syllabus based around the most frequent words in the language would cover the most frequent meanings in the language. Accordingly, they based their beginners' course around the 700 most frequent words in English. They used corpus data (i.e. computer banks of naturally occurring text – see page 68) to find out how these words 'behaved' – that is, the kinds of words and structures that were associated with these high frequency words.

3.2 The principles of teaching lexical chunks

So far we have been talking about lexical chunks as if they were a single al chunks undifferentiated category. But there are different types of chunks and different degrees of 'chunkiness'. Of the different types, the following are the most important for teaching purposes[21]:

- collocations – such as widely travelled; rich and famous; make do with; set the table
- phrasal verbs – such as get up; log on; run out of; go on about
- idioms, catchphrases and sayings – such as hell for leather; get cold feet; as old as the hills; mind your own business; takes one to know one
- sentence frames – such as would you mind if... ?; the thing is ...; I'd... if I were you; what really gets me is ...
- social formulae – such as see you later; have a nice day; yours sincerely
- discourse markers – such as frankly speaking; on the other hand; I take your point; once upon a time; to cut a long story short...

Within these categories further distinctions can be made in terms of fixedness and idiomaticity. Fixed chunks are those that don't allow any variation: you can say over the moon (to mean ecstatic) but not under the moon (to mean not ecstatic). Nor over the full moon, over the sun, etc. Many chunks are semi-fixed, in that they allow some degree of variation. Nice to see you is semi-fixed in that it allows lovely, good, wonderful, etc. in the nice slot, and meet, talk to, hear from, etc. in the see slot.

[21] www.Cambrige lesson UK

Some chunks are transparent in that the meaning of the whole is clear from their parts, as in the case of as old as the hills and to knock down. Others are much more idiomatic: to spill the beans and to knock off (meaning to steal). Neither fixedness nor idiomaticity are absolute values, however. Rather there is a cline from very fixed to very free, and from very idiomatic to very transparent. Phrasal verbs are a case in point. Some phrasal verbs are syntactically flexible: I'll bring up the paper or I'll bring the paper up. Others are not: I can't tell the twins apart but not I can't tell apart the twins. Moreover, the combination bring up has a range of meanings, some literal (I'll bring up the paper), some semi-idiomatic (Don't bring that subject up again) and some very idiomatic (They brought their children up to speak Italian).

The ability to deploy a wide range of lexical chunks both accurately and appropriately is probably what most distinguishes advanced learners from intermediate ones. How is this capacity developed? Probably not by learning rules – as we saw with word formation, the rules (if there are any) are difficult to learn and apply. A lexical approach is based on the belief that lexical competence comes simply from:

- frequent exposure, and
- consciousness-raising

To which we could perhaps add a third factor:

- memorising

Classroom language provides plentiful opportunities for exposure to lexical chunks. Many learners are familiar with expressions like I don't understand and I don't know long before they have been presented with the 'rules' of present simple negation. By increasing the stock of classroom phrases, teachers can exploit the capacity of chunks to provide the raw material for the later acquisition of grammar. Many teachers cover their classroom walls with useful phrases and insist on their

use whenever an appropriate opportunity arises. A sampling of phrases I have noticed on classroom walls includes:

What does X mean? How do you say X?

What's the (past/plural/opposite, etc.) of X?

Can you say that again? Can you write it up?

How do you spell it? I'm not sure.

I've forgotten. I left it at home.

I haven't finished yet. It's (your/my/his) turn.

The repetitive nature of classroom activity ensures plentiful exposure to these chunks. This is vital, because occasional and random exposure is insufficient. Many learners simply aren't aware if a combination is one that occurs frequently (and is therefore a chunk) or if it is a one-off. Nevertheless, there is more chance of encountering instances of chunking in authentic text than in text that has been 'doctored' for teaching purposes.

This is yet another argument for using authentic texts in the classroom, despite the difficulties often associated with them.

Here, for example, is an extract from a fairly well-known authentic text:

Yo, I'll tell you what I want what I really really want,

So tell me what you want what you really really want

I'll tell you what I want what I really really want,

So tell me what you want what you really really want

I wanna I wanna I wanna I wanna I wanna really really really wanna

zigazig ha If you want my future, forget my past,

if you wanna get with me, better make it fast

Now don't go wasting my precious time

Get your act together we could be just fine

If you wannabe my lover, you gotta get with my friends

Make it last forever, Friendship never ends

If you wannabe my lover, you have got to give,

Taking is too easy but that's the way it is.

What d'ya think about that? Now you know how I feel.

Say you can handle my love, are you for real?

I won't be hasty, I'll give you a try

If you really bug me then I'll say goodbye

(from Wannabe by the Spice Girls)

Like many pop songs, the lyrics of this song are rich in lexical chunks, including sentence frames (I'll tell you what I...; what I really [really] want [is ...]; If you wanna ... better ...; If you really, then I'll ...), collocations (wasting my precious time; last forever; taking it... easy; give you a try), and catchphrases (better make it fast; get your act together; that's the way it is; are you for real?).

How could you use the above song text? Essentially, the approach need not be very different from the approach to the legal English text on page 110. That is:

- check understanding of text (for example, by eliciting a paraphrase or translation of the text)
- using transcript, set tasks focusing on features of words in combination

Examples of such tasks might be:

• Underline all contractions. Decontract them (i.e. wanna = want to)

• Find examples of these sentence patterns in the song:

... tell... what...

If you ... imperative ...

If you ... you have got to ...

If you ... then I'll...

• Write some more examples, using these patterns, that would fit the theme of the song.

• Use examples from the song to show the difference between tell and say.

Here are some more ideas for teaching collocation:

Learners sort words on cards into their collocational pairs (e.g. warm + welcome, slim + chance, golden + opportunity, lucky + break, mixed + reception, etc). Use the same cards to play pelmanism. Or they sort them into binomial pairs (pairs of words that follow a fixed sequence and often have idiomatic meaning such as hot and cold, to and fro, out and about, sick and tired). Or into groups, according to whether they collocate with particular 'headwords': e.g. trip (business, day, round, return, boat), holiday (summer, family, public, one month, working) and weekend (long, every, last, next, holiday). Follow up by asking learners to write sentences using these combinations.

Read out a list of words: learners in groups think of as many collocations or related expressions as they can. The group with the most collocations wins a point. Good words for this include parts of the body (face, head, back, foot, hand), colours (red, green, blue, black, etc.) and opposites, such as weak/strong, narrow/wide, safe/dangerous, old/young, etc.

Fill in a collocational grid, using dictionaries, to show common collocations. For example, here's a very simple (and completed) one for wide and broad.

3.3 Polysemy in Teaching English on Intermediate Level and The principles of teaching phrasal verbs

Polysemy in Teaching English on Intermediate Level

Practicing polysemy is distinguishing between the various meaning of a single word form with several but closely related meanings (head: of a person, of a pin, of an organization). In my opinion the most important aspect of vocabulary teaching for intermediate learners is to foster learner independence so that learners will be able to deal with new lexis and expand their vocabulary beyond the end of the course. Therefore guided discovery, contextual guesswork and using dictionaries should be the main ways to deal with discovering meaning. Teachers can help students with specific techniques and practice in contextual guesswork, for example, the understanding of discourse markers and identifying the function of the word in the sentence . In my opinion the most important aspect of teaching polysemy for learners is to foster independence so that learners will be able to deal with new lexis and expand their vocabulary beyond the end of the course. Therefore guided discovery, contextual guesswork should be the main ways to deal with discovering meaning.

Intermediate level includes the 5th — 9th form pupils. They already have some basic knowledge in studying a foreign language. If pupils have had good achievements in language learning, they are usually interested in the subject and work willingly both in class and at home. The desire to learn depends fully on

the teacher's ability to involve each pupil in language activities during the lesson. Pupils give preferences to those exercises which require thinking [1; 61].

Exercise 1

Give all the meanings you know to the following verbs, illustrating them with examples: to get; to go; to bring; to make; to do; to let; to buy; to begin; to feel.

Exercise 2

The noun leg has several meanings: 1) one of the long parts of your body that your feet are joined to; 2)one of the series of games in a football competition played between two teams; 3) one of the upright parts that support a piece of furniture; 4) the part of your trousers that covers your leg; 5) one part of a long journey or race.

Match the meanings of the word face with the sentences given below:

1) One of the legs on the table was a bit wobbly.

2) Here, pull up your pant legs and let me see if your knees are hurt.

3) The legs of my jeans were covered in mud.

4) Leeds will have to win the second leg if they are to go forward to the finals.

5) The men looked pensive as the carriage approached the final leg of the trip to the big house on the hill.

6) When this can expand no further, it splits and is rolled off, like a nylon stocking from a leg.

7) Raise the leg a fraction higher and repeat this tiny movement 15 times, holding each raise for 1 second.

8) Officers then shot Mao in the leg several times and he collapsed.

9) Breathing through his mouth, he manipulated his probe between her legs.

10) Another screaming beast collapsed on broken hind legs.

Exercise 3

Define the meaning of the noun head as used in the sentences below. How many different meanings did you find?

1) According to Rice, the head of the planning committee, the project is 25% completed.

2) Collins suffered severe head injuries in the accident.

3) He turned his head to kiss her.

4) I picked up a hammer and hit the head of the nail as hard as I could.

5) Hwang is head of the local Communist Party, and is also a farmer.

6) People going out in conditions like this need their heads examined.

7) She was outside cutting the dead heads off the roses.

8) She saw her father, a head above the rest of the crowd.

9) Keep arms hanging, head down and neck and shoulders relaxed.

Exercise 4

How many meaning of the following words do you know? Name them:

head, bench, to feel, to dress, hand, leg, power.

Exercise 5

Match the idiomatic expressions of the noun head with their meaning.

1) heads up!

2) heads will roll;

3) to be/fall head over heels in love;

4) to be/stand head and shoulders above somebody;

5) to give somebody their head;

6) to hold up your head;

7) to go over somebody's head;

8) to keep your head above water;

9) to put your heads together;

10)to turn/stand something on its head;

a) to discuss a difficult problem together;

b) to be too difficult for someone to understand;

c) to manage to continue to live on your income or keep your business working when this is difficult because of financial problems;

d) to be much better than other people;

e) to show pride or confidence, especially in a difficult situation;

f) to make people think about something in the opposite way to the way it was originally intended;

g) to give someone the freedom to do what they want to do;

h) to love or suddenly start to love someone very much;

i) used to say that someone will be punished severely for something that has happened;

j) used to warn people that something is falling from above.

The principles of teaching phrasal verbs

Phrasal verbs are another instance of the fuzziness at the boundary between words and grammar. They are particularly problematic for learners both because of their lexical meanings (which are often idiomatic) and their grammatical form. Here is how phrasal verbs are often grouped, according to their grammar:

2 There are four types of phrasal verb.

Type 1: intransitive e.g. come to (recover consciousness) These don't take an object.

Type 2: transitive inseparable e.g. look into (investigate) these must take an object which always comes after the verb.

Type 3: transitive separable e.g. put off (postpone) the object can either come between the verb and the particle or after the verb. If we use a pronoun then it must go between.

Type 4: three-part, e.g. put up with (endure) these are always transitive inseparable.

From Naunton J, Think Ahead to First Certificate, Longman

Traditional approaches to the teaching of phrasal verbs have tended to focus on these rules[22]. Hence, when phrasal verbs are presented they are categorised according to whether they are Type 1, Type 2, etc. They are also often grouped according to their lexical verb (that is, the word that carries the major share of the meaning): get up, get back, get off, get over, etc, and exercises are designed to test the learner's knowledge of the difference. For example:

Use phrasal verbs with get to complete these sentences:

1. 1 I can't _____ how much Julia has changed: it's amazing!
2. Excuseme, I want to _____ at the next stop.
3. The concert was cancelled so I'm going to see if I can _____ my money _____.

Typical exercise types used in the teaching of phrasal verbs include:

- sentence gap-fills (as the example above)
- re-phrasing: e.g. changing the verb in the sentence (e.g. depart) to a phrasal verb that has a similar meaning (e.g. set off)
- matching: e.g. matching the phrasal verb with its synonym

More recently, exercise types have focused on the meanings of the particles – a particle being the adverb or preposition component of the phrasal verb (in, back, off, around, etc). A focus on particles aims to sensitise learners to the shared meanings of a group such as carry on, drive on, hang on, go on and come on.

[22] www.English Lec.net

Conclusion

So far we have been discussing the concept of meaning, different types of word-meanings and the changes they undergo in the course of the historical development of the English language. When analysing the word-meaning we observe, however, that words as a rule are not units of a single meaning. Monosemantic words, words having only one meaning are comparatively few in number, these are mainly scientific terms. The bulk of English words are p o l y s e m a n t i c , that is to say possess more than one meaning. The actual number of meanings of the commonly used words ranges from five to about a hundred. In fact, the commoner the word the more meanings it has.

The problem of polysemy is mainly the problem of interrelation and interdependence of the various meanings of the same word. Polysemy viewed diachronically is a historical change in the semantic structure of the word resulting in disappearance of some meanings (or) and in new meanings being added to the ones already existing and also in the rearrangement of these meanings in its semantic structure. Polysemy viewed synchronically is understood as coexistence of the various meanings of the same word at a certain historical period and the arrangement of these meanings in the semantic structure of the word.

The concepts of central (basic) and marginal (minor) meanings may be interpreted in terms of their relative frequency in speech. The meaning having the highest frequency is usually the one representative of the semantic structure of the word, i.e. synchronically its central (basic) meaning.

As the semantic structure is never static the relationship between the diachronic and synchronic evaluation of the individual meanings of the same word may be different in different periods of the historical development of language.

The semantic structure of polysemantic words is not homogeneous as far as the status of individual meanings is concerned. Some meaning (or meanings) is representative of the word in isolation, others are perceived only in certain contexts.

The whole of the semantic structure of correlated polysemantic words of different languages can never be identical. Words are felt as correlated if their basic (central) meanings coincide.

This research also highlights the significance of polysemy in grammar. Most grammatical forms are polysemantic. It is sometimes maintained that the case of grammatical polysemy can be observed in various structural meanings inherent in the given form, one of them being always invariable, found in any context of the use of the form. The semantic structure of polysemantic words is not homogeneous as far as the status of individual meaning is concerned. Some meanings are representatives of the word in isolation, others are perceived only in certain contexts. Context is a minimal stretch of speech necessary to determine individual meanings.

In the conclusion, I can say that the problem of polysemy may cause difficulties during the translation or communication. To overcome them pupils need to see and practice words in context, since it is the context that allows them to understand the meaning of the word.

The problem of polysemy is mainly the problem of interrelation and interdependence of various meanings of the same word. Though it is the object of confusion and one of the most controversial problems in linguistics. It is of great importance in studying English as it presents the diverse meanings of expressive layer.

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