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NAMANGAN DAVLAT UNIVERSITETI**

INGLIZ FILOLOGIYASI FAKULTETI

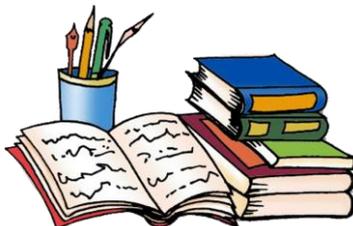
INGLIZ TILI O'QITISH METODIKASI KAFEDRASI

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LECTURE 1

INTRODUCTION, LEXICOLOGY AS A SCIENCE.

Plan for the lecture

1. Subject matter of the Lexicology
2. Types of Lexicology and its links with other branches of Linguistics.
3. Relationships, approaches and sub branches.
4. Word and word studies in Lexicology

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

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

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

Special lexicology deals with the words of a definite language. *Ex.:* English lexicology¹, Russian lexicology³, Uzbek lexicology³ and so on. Descriptive lexicology studies the words at a synchronic aspect. It is concerned with the vocabulary of a language as they exist at the present time.

Historical or diachronic lexicology deals with the development of the vocabulary and the changes it has undergone. *Ex.* In descriptive lexicology the words «to take», «to adopt» are considered as being English not differing from such native words as «child», «foot», «stone» etc. But in historical lexicology they are treated as borrowed words.

Comparative lexicology¹ deals with the properties of the vocabulary of two or more languages. In comparative lexicology the main characteristic features of the words of two or more languages are compared. *Ex.* Russian—English lexicology, English—French lexicology and etc.

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

Lexicology is connected with grammar because the word seldom occurs in isolation. Words alone do not form communication. It is only when words are connected and joined by the grammar rules of a language communication becomes possible. On the other hand grammatical form

and function of the word affect its lexical meaning.² *For example.* When the verb «go» in the continuous tenses is followed by «to» and an infinitive, it expresses a future action. *Ex.* He is not going to read this book. Participle II of the verb «go» following the link verb «be» denotes the negative meaning. *Ex.* The house is gone.

So the lexical meanings of the words are grammatically conditioned.

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

Lexicology is also closely linked with the history of the language. In examining the word *information* in terms of its historical development we establish its French origin and study the changes in its semantic and morphological structures. If we don't know the history of the language it will be very difficult to establish different changes in the meaning and form of the words which have undergone in the course of the historical development of the language.

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

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

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

Synchronic approach deals with the vocabulary as it exists at a given time, at the present time. The diachronic approach studies the changes and the development of vocabulary in the course of time. *Ex.* Synchronically the words «help», «accept», «work», «produce» are all of them English words. But diachronically they came from different languages. Such words as «childhood», «kingdom», «friendship», «freedom» were at one time compound words because the suffixes *-do?*, *-hood*, *-ship* were independent words but synchronically they are derived words because «dom» and «hood» became suffixes.

In the 19th century and at the beginning of the 20th century lexicology was mainly based on historical principles. At the present time the following method of linguistic research are widely used by lexicologists: distributional, transformational, analysis into immediate constituents, statistical, componential, comparative etc.

Lexicology has some subdivisions such as:

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

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

The wordformation, the semantic structure of correlated words and their usage in speech are different in different languages. Every language has its own lexical system. Not all the meanings which the English word has may be found in its corresponding word in Uzbek. For example, compare the meanings of the word «**hand**» and its corresponding.

KEY WORDS : Subject matter of lexicology

Special and general lexicology: the difference between them

Descriptive and historical lexicology

The difference between comparative and non-comparative lexicology

The connection of lexicology with other aspects of the language

The main relationships between the words

The methods of linguistic analyses used in Modern lexicology

Correlated words and their components

ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS

1. What is the subject-matter of lexicology? What types of lexicology do you know?
3. What is the difference between general and special lexicologies?
4. What is the difference between descriptive and historical lexicologies?
5. What is the difference between comparative and noncomparative lexicologies?
6. What can you say about the connection of lexicology with other aspects of the language?
7. How is lexicology connected with grammar (phonetics, stylistics, history of the language)?
8. What are the main relationships between the words?
9. What is the difference between the paradigmatic and syntagmatic relationships in words?
10. What do you know about diachronic and synchronic approaches to the study of the vocabulary of the language?
11. What are the methods of linguistic

analysis used in Modern Lexicology? 12. What are the main subdivisions of lexicology?

RECOMMENDED LITERATURE

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LECTURE 2. DIVISIONS OF THE SUBJECT OF LEXICOLOGY

There are two principal approaches in linguistic science to the study of language material, namely the synchronic (*Gr. syn* — ‘together, with’ and *chronos* — ‘time’) and the diachronic (*Gr. dia* — ‘through’) approach. With regard to Special Lexicology the synchronic approach is concerned with the vocabulary of a language as it exists at a given time, for instance, at the present time. It is special

Descriptive Lexicology that deals with the vocabulary and vocabulary units of a particular language at a certain time. A Course in Modern English Lexicology is therefore a course in Special Descriptive Lexicology, its object of study being the English vocabulary as it exists at the present time.

The diachronic approach in terms of Special Lexicology deals with the changes and the development of vocabulary in the course of time. It is special Historical Lexicology that deals with the evolution of the vocabulary units of a language as time goes by. An English Historical Lexicology would be concerned, therefore, with the origin of English vocabulary units, their change and development, the linguistic and extralinguistic factors modifying their structure, meaning and usage within the history of the English language.

It should be emphatically stressed that the distinction between the synchronic and the diachronic study is merely a difference of approach separating for the purposes of investigation what in real language is inseparable. The two approaches should not be contrasted, or set one against the other; in fact, they are intrinsically interconnected and interdependent: every linguistic structure and system actually exists in a state of constant development so that the synchronic state of a language system is a result of a long process of linguistic evolution, of its historical development.

A good example illustrating both the distinction between the two approaches and their interconnection is furnished by the words to beg and beggar.

Synchronically, the words to beg and beggar are related as a simple and a derived word, the noun beggar being the derived member of the pair, for the derivative correlation between the two is the same as in the case of to sing — singer, to teach — teacher, etc. When we approach the problem diachronically, however, we learn that the noun beggar was borrowed from Old French and only presumed to have been derived from a shorter word, namely the verb to beg, as in the English language agent nouns are commonly derived from verbs with the help of the agent suffix **-er**.

Closely connected with Historical Lexicology is Contrastive and Comparative Lexicology whose aims are to study the correlation between the vocabularies of two or more languages, and find out the correspondences between the vocabulary units of the languages under comparison. Needless to say, one can hardly overestimate the importance of Contrastive Lexicology as well as of Comparative Linguistics in general for the purpose of class-room teaching of foreign languages. Of primary importance in this respect is the comparison of the foreign language with the mother tongue.

Lexicology and Sociolinguistics

It is a matter of common knowledge that the vocabulary of any language is never stable, never static, but is constantly changing, growing and decaying. The changes in the vocabulary of a language are due both to linguistic and extralinguistic causes or to a combination of both. The extralinguistic causes are determined by the social nature of the language. In this respect there is a tremendous difference between Lexicology, on the one hand, and Phonology, Morphology and Syntax, on the other. Words, to a far greater degree than sounds, grammatical forms, or syntactical arrangements, are subject to change, for the word-stock of a language directly and immediately reacts to changes in social life, to whatever happens in the life of the speech community in question. To illustrate the immediate connection between the development of vocabulary and the extra-linguistic causes a few examples will suffice.

The intense development of science and technology has lately given birth to a great number of new words such as **computer, cyclotron, radar, psycholinguistics**, etc.; the conquest and research of outer space started by the Soviet people contributed words like **sputnik, lunokhod, babymoon, moon-car, spaceship**, etc. It is significant that the suffix **-nik** occurring in the noun **sputnik** is freely applied to new words of various kinds, e.g. **flopnik, mousenik, woofnik**, etc.¹

The factor of the social need also manifests itself in the mechanism of word-formation. Among the adjectives with the suffix **-y** derived from noun stems denoting fabrics (cf. **silky, velvety, woolly**, etc.) the adjective **tweedy** stands out as meaning not merely resembling or like tweed but rather 'of sports style'. It is used to describe the type of appearance (or style of clothes)

which is characteristic of a definite social group, namely people going in for country sports. Thus, the adjective **tweedy** in this meaning defines a notion which is specific for the speech community in question and is, therefore, sociolinguistically conditioned.

From the above-adduced examples it follows that in contrast with Phonology, Morphology and Syntax, Lexicology is essentially a sociolinguistic science. The lexicologist should always take into account correlations between purely linguistic facts and the underlying social facts which brought them into existence, his research should be based on establishing scientifically grounded interrelation and points of contact which have come into existence between the language and the social life of the speech community in question.

§ 4. Lexical Units

It was pointed out above that Lexicology studies various lexical units: morphemes, words, variable word-groups and phraseological units. We proceed from the assumption that the word is the basic unit of language system, the largest on the morphologic and the smallest on the syntactic plane of linguistic analysis. The word is a structural and semantic entity within the language system.

It should be pointed out that there is another approach to the concept of the basic language unit. The criticism of this viewpoint cannot be discussed within the framework of the present study. Suffice it to say that here we consistently proceed from the concept of the word as the basic unit in all the branches of Lexicology. Both words and phraseological units are names for things, namely the names of actions, objects, qualities, etc. Unlike words proper, however, phraseological units are wordgroups consisting of two or more words whose combination is integrated as a unit with a specialised meaning of the whole. To illustrate, the lexical or to be more exact the vocabulary units **tattle, wall, taxi** are words denoting various objects of the outer world; the vocabulary units **black frost, red tape, a skeleton in the cupboard** are phraseological units: each is a word-group with a specialised meaning of the whole, namely **black frost** is 'frost without snow or rime', **red tape** denotes bureaucratic methods, **a skeleton in the cupboard** refers to a fact of which a family is ashamed and which it tries to hide.

Varieties of Words

Although the ordinary 'speaker is acutely word-conscious and usually finds no difficulty either in isolating words from an utterance or in identifying them in the process of communication, the precise linguistic definition of a word is far from easy to state; no exhaustive definition of the word has yet been given by linguists.

The word as well as any linguistic sign is a two-facet unit possessing both form and content or, to be more exact, soundform and meaning. Neither can exist without the other. For example, [θimbl] is a word within the framework of the English language primarily because it has the lexical meaning — 'a

small cap of metal, plastic, etc. worn on the finger in sewing.. .¹ (*Russ. напёрсток*) and the grammatical meaning of the Common case, singular. In other languages it is not a word, but a meaningless sound-cluster.

When used in actual speech the word undergoes certain modification and functions in one of its forms.

The system showing a word in all its word-forms is called its paradigm.² The lexical meaning of a word is the same throughout the paradigm, i.e. all the word-forms of one and the same word are lexically identical. The grammatical meaning varies from one form to another (cf. **to take, takes, took, taking** or **singer, singer's, singers, singers'**). Therefore, when we speak of the word **singer** or the word **take** as used in actual utterances (cf., His brother is a well-known singer *or* I wonder who has taken my umbrella) we use the term *w o r d* conventionally, because what is manifested in the speech event is not the word as a whole but one of its forms which is identified as belonging to one definite paradigm.

There are two approaches to the paradigm: (a) as a system of forms of one word it reveals the differences and relationships between them; (b) in abstraction from concrete words it is treated as a pattern on which every word of one part of speech models its forms, thus serving to distin-

guish one part of speech from another. Cf. the noun paradigm — (), **-s, -s, -s'** as distinct from that of the regular verb — (), **-s, -ed₁, -ed₂, -ing**, etc.¹

Besides the grammatical forms of words, i.e. word-forms, some scholars distinguish lexical varieties which they term *v a r i a n t s* of *w o r d s*. Distinction is made between two basic groups of variants of words.

In actual speech a word or to be more exact a polysemantic word is used in, one of its meanings. Such a word in one of its meanings is described as lexico-semantic variant. Thus Group One comprises lexico-semantic variants, i.e. polysemantic words in each of their meanings, as exemplified by the meaning of the verb **to learn** in word-groups like **to learn at school**, cf. **to learn about (of) smth**, etc.

Group Two comprises phonetic and morphological variants. As examples of phonetic variants the pronouncing variants of the adverbs **often** and **again** can be given, cf. ['o:fn] and ['o:ftən], [ə'geɪn] and [ə'gen]. The two variant forms of the past indefinite tense of verbs like **to learn** illustrate morphological variants, cf. **learned [-d]** and **learnt [-t]**. Parallel formations of the **geologic — geological, phonetic — phonetical** type also enter the group of morphological variants.²

It may be easily observed that the most essential feature of variants of words of both groups is that a slight change in the morphemic or phonemic composition of a word is not connected with any modification of its meaning and, vice versa, a change in meaning is not followed by any structural changes, either morphemic or phonetic. Like word-forms variants of words are identified in the process of communication as making up one and the same word. Thus, within the language system the word exists as a system and unity of all its forms and variants.

§ 6. Course of Modern English

Modern English Lexicology aims at giving a systematic description of the word-stock of Modern English. Words, their component parts — morphemes — and various types of word-groups, are subjected to structural and semantic analysis primarily from the synchronic angle. In other words, Modern English Lexicology investigates the problems of word-structure and word-formation in Modern English, the semantic structure of English words, the main principles underlying the classification of vocabulary units into various groupings the laws governing the replenishment of the vocabulary with new vocabulary units.

It also studies the relations existing between various lexical layers of the English vocabulary and the specific laws and regulations that govern its development at the present time. The source and growth of the English vocabulary, the changes it has undergone in its history are also dwelt upon, as the diachronic approach revealing the vocabulary in the making cannot but contribute to the understanding of its workings at the present time.

It has now become a tradition to include in a Course of Lexicology a Modern English Lexicology as a subject of study forms part of the Theoretical Course of Modern English and as such is inseparable from its other component parts, i.e. Grammar, Phonetics, Stylistics, on the one hand, and the Course of History of the English Language, on the other.

The language learner will find the Course of Modern English Lexicology of great practical importance. He will obtain much valuable information concerning the English wordstock and the laws and regulations governing the formation and usage of English words and word-groups. Besides, the Course is aimed both at summarising the practical material already familiar to the students from foreign language classes and at helping the students to develop the skills and habits of generalising the linguistic phenomena observed. The knowledge the students gain from the Course of Modern English Lexicology will guide them in all their dealings with the English word-stock and help them apply this information to the solution of practical problems that may face them in class-room teaching. Teachers should always remember that practical command alone does not qualify a person to teach a language. •

This textbook treats the following basic problems:

1. Semasiology and semantic classifications of words;
2. Word-groups and phraseological units;
3. Word-structure;
4. Word-formation;
5. Etymological survey of the English word-stock;
6. Various aspects of vocabulary units and replenishment of Modern English word-stock;
7. Variants and dialects of Modern English;
8. Fundamentals of English Lexicography;
9. Methods and Procedures of Lexicological Analysis.

All sections end with a paragraph entitled "Summary and Conclusions". The aim of these paragraphs is to summarise in brief the contents of the preceding section, thus enabling the student to go over the chief points of the exposition of problem or problems under consideration. Material for Reference at the end of the book and the footnotes, though by no means exhaustive, may be helpful to those who wish to attain a more complete and thorough view of the lexicological problems.

II. Semasiology

By definition Lexicology deals with words, word-forming morphemes (derivational affixes) and word-groups or phrases.¹ All these linguistic units may be said to have meaning of some kind: they are all significant and therefore must be investigated both as to form and meaning. The branch of lexicology that is devoted to the study of meaning is known as
Semasiology.²

It should be pointed out that just as lexicology is beginning to absorb a major part of the efforts of linguistic scientists³ semasiology is coming to the fore as the central problem of linguistic investigation of all levels of language structure. It is suggested that semasiology has for its subject - matter not only the study of lexicon, but also of morphology, syntax and sentential semantics. Words, however, play such a crucial part in the structure of language that when we speak of semasiology without any qualification, we usually refer to the study of word-meaning proper, although it is in fact very common to explore the semantics of other elements, such as suffixes, prefixes, etc.

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 meaning⁴ we shall confine ourselves to a brief survey of the problem as it is viewed in modern linguistics both in our country and elsewhere.

6. What is a metonymy?
7. What words are often used metonymically?
8. What is the restriction of meaning?
9. What is the extension of meaning?
10. What is the difference between the amelioration of meaning and the deterioration of meaning,

L E C T U R E 3

WORD MEANING THE SEMANTIC STRUCTURE OF THE WORD

Plan for the lecture

1. The definition of the «meaning of the word»
2. Referential and functional approaches to the study of meaning.
3. Types of meanings. Motivation and its different types.
4. The paradigmatic and syntagmatic approach to meaning. (2 hours).
5. Similarity of the words based on descriptive character

SEMANTIC STRUCTURE OF THE WORD

It is generally known that most words convey several concepts and thus possess the corresponding number of meanings. Most English words have many meanings. It should be noted that the wealth of expressive resources of a language largely depends on the degree to which polysemy has developed in the language. Sometimes people who are not very well informed in linguistic matters claim that a language is lacking in words if the need arises for the same word to be applied to several different phenomena. In actual fact, it is exactly the opposite.

When analysing the semantic structure of a polysemantic word, it is necessary to distinguish between two levels of analysis.

On the first level, the semantic structure of a word is treated as a system of meanings. For example, the semantic structure of the noun "fire" may be described in the following way:

1. ОГОНЬ - ОЛОВ
2. ПОЖАР - ЁТ
3. ВОДУШЕВЛЕНИЕ, ПЫЛ - ТАШАББУС, СВЕЧЕНИЕ - ЁҚИШ
4. ЖАР, ЛИХОРАДКА - ИССИҚЛИК

meaning (I) holds a kind of dominance over the other meanings conveying the concept in the most general way whereas meanings (II)—(V) are associated with special circumstances, aspects and instances of the same phenomenon.

Meaning (I) (generally referred to as the main meaning) presents the centre of the semantic structure of the word holding it together. It is mainly through meaning (I) that meanings (II)—(V) (they are called secondary meanings) can be associated with one another, some of them exclusively through meaning (I) - the main meaning, as, for instance, meanings (IV) and (V).

It would hardly be possible to establish any logical associations between some of the meanings of the noun "bar" except through the main meaning[1]:

It is not in every polysemantic word that such a centre can be found.

Some semantic structures are arranged on a different principle. In the following list of meanings of the adjective "dull" one can hardly hope to find a generalized meaning covering and holding together the rest of the semantic structure.

Dull, adj.

1. A dull book, a dull film - uninteresting, monotonous, boring.
2. A dull student - slow in understanding, stupid.
3. Dull weather, a dull day, a dull colour - not clear or bright.
4. A dull sound - not loud or distinct.
5. A dull knife - not sharp.
6. Trade is dull - not active.
7. Dull eyes (arch.) - seeing badly.
8. Dull ears (arch.) - hearing badly.

There is something that all these seemingly miscellaneous meanings have in common, and that is the implication of deficiency, be it of colour (m. III), wits (m. 11), interest (m. 1), sharpness (m. V), etc. The implication of insufficient quality, of something lacking, can be clearly distinguished in each separate meaning.

Dull, adj.

1. Uninteresting - deficient in interest or excitement.
2. ... Stupid - deficient in intellect.
3. Not bright- deficient in light or colour.
4. Not loud - deficient in sound.
5. Not sharp - deficient in sharpness.
6. Not active - deficient in activity.
7. Seeing badly - deficient in eyesight.
8. Hearing badly - deficient in hearing.

-The transformed scheme of the semantic structure of "dull" clearly shows that the centre holding together the complex semantic structure of this word is not one of the meanings but a certain component that can be easily singled out within each separate meaning.

On the second level of analysis of the semantic structure of a word: each separate meaning is a subject to structural analysis in which it may be represented as sets of semantic components.

The scheme of the semantic structure of "dull" shows that the semantic structure of a word is not a mere system of meanings, for each separate meaning is subject to further subdivision and possesses an inner structure of its own.

Therefore, the semantic structure of a word should be investigated at both these levels: 1) of different meanings, 2) of semantic components within each separate meaning. For a monosemantic word (i. e. a word with one meaning) the first level is naturally excluded.

Meaning and Context

It's important that there is sometimes a chance of misunderstanding when a word is used in a certain meaning but accepted by a listener or reader in another.

It is common knowledge that context prevents from any misunderstanding of meanings. For instance, the adjective "dull", if used out of context, would mean different things to different people or nothing at all. It is only in combination with other words that it reveals its actual meaning; "a dull pupil", "a dull play", "dull weather", etc. Sometimes, however, such a minimum context fails to reveal the meaning of the word, and it may be correctly interpreted only through a second-degree context as in the following example: "The man was large, but his wife was even fatter". The word "fatter" here serves as a kind of indicator pointing that "large" describes a stout man and not a big one.

Current research in semantics is largely based on the assumption that one of the more promising methods of investigating the semantic structure of a word is by studying the word's linear relationships with other words in typical contexts, i. e. its combinability or collocability.

The scientists have established that the semantics of words which regularly appear in common contexts are correlated and, therefore, one of the words within such a pair can be studied through the other.

They are so intimately correlated that each of them casts, as it were, a kind of permanent reflection on the meaning of its neighbour. If the verb "to compose" is frequently used with the object "music", so it is natural to expect that certain musical associations linger in the meaning of the verb "to composed".

Note, also, how closely the negative evaluative connotation of the adjective "notorious" is linked with the negative connotation of the nouns with which it is regularly associated: "a notorious criminal", "thief", "gangster", "gambler", "-gossip", "liar", "miser", etc.

All this leads us to the conclusion that context is a good and reliable key to the meaning of the word.

It's a common error to see a different meaning in every new set of combinations. For instance: "an angry man", "an angry letter". Is the adjective "angry" used in the same meaning in both these contexts or in two different meanings? Some people will say "two" and argue that, on the one hand, the combinability is different ("man" —name of person; "letter" -name of object) and, on the other hand, a letter cannot experience anger. True, it cannot; but it can very well convey the anger of the person who wrote it. As to the combinability, the main point is that a word can realize the same meaning in different sets of combinability. For instance, in the pairs "merry children", "merry laughter", "merry faces", "merry songs" the adjective "merry" conveys the same concept of high spirits.

The task of distinguishing between the different meanings of a word and the different variations of combinability is actually a question of singling out the different denotations within the semantic structure of the word.

- 1) a sad woman,
- 2) a sad voice,
- 3) a sad story,
- 4) a sad scoundrel (- an incorrigible scoundrel)
- 5) a sad night (= a dark, black night, arch, poet.)

Obviously the first three contexts have the common denotation of sorrow whereas in the fourth and fifth contexts the denotations are different. So, in these five contexts we can identify three meanings of "sad".

CHANGE OF MEANING OF WORDS

The meaning of a word is a changeable category. The causes of semantic changes may be either linguistic or extra-linguistic. Extra-linguistic causes are different changes in the life of the people speaking the language, the coming into-existence of new notions and objects, changes in economic and social life, changes of ideas and etc.

Ex. the word «mill» originally meant ручная мельница (кўл тегирмони). The development of industry gave use to the meaning «mill*»

Ex. a cotton **mill**, a steel **mill**. The word «**atom**» meant indivisible substance. Now the scientists discovered that atom can be divided and this changes our concept of atomic indivisibility. A change in the meaning may be brought about by different linguistic developments in the lexical system as a whole.

"The word may change its meaning by the shortening of a word group.
Ex. The old meaning of the verb «to starve*» was «to die» and it was often used in the word group «to starve of hunger*». The modern meaning of the verb «to starve*» is the result of the shortening of the word group, «to starve of hungers».

The meaning of the word «week!y» a newspaper published weekly is the shortened form of the word group «weekly newspapers», «a musicals is the shortened form of the word group «a musical comedy*» etc.

The appearance of a new word which is synonymous to the word already existing in the language may cause a change in the meanings of words. *Ex.* the old meaning of the word «deer» was an animal. It was used for all kinds of animals. When the Latin word «**animal**» came into the English language the meaning of the word «deer» was changed. Now it is used to name only one kind of animal (deer—олень, буґу).

The words may change their meaning when they are used transferently, i. e. metaphorically or metonymically. A metaphor is a shift of meanings caused by the likeness (se-milarity) of some property of two objects). Metaphor is based on the similarities of objects.

Ex. the words «warm» and «cold» may be used to denote the certain qualities of human voices because of some kind of similarity between these qualities and warm and cold temperature.

warm temperature cold temperature

The similarity may be based on several shapes.

1) similarity of form. *Ex.* eye of a needle, a head of a pin; 2) similarity of function. *Ex.* the head of the state, the head of the demonstration; 3) similarity of position. *Ex.* the foot of the mountain, a foot of the page, the top of the table, the leg of the table.

The usage of proper names for common nouns may cause a metaphor too. Some scientists use widely some characters. *Ex.* He is a Pushkin of our days (he is a very strong poet).

Ex. warm voice cold voice

She is a Pushkin. Sometimes the names of animals are used to denote the human qualities.

Ex. She is a fox (she is very cunning). She is a parrot (She is talkative).

We must differ a metaphor from a simile. In simile we use before the words «as» and «like». *Ex.* She is a monkey (metaphor). She is like a monkey (similar).

METAPHOR

It is a transfer of the meaning on the basis of comparison. Herman Paul points out that

metaphor can be based on different types of similarity:

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

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

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

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

In some cases we have a complex similarity, e.g. the leg of a table has a similarity to a

human leg in its shape, position and function.

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

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

Metonymy is a shift of meaning or a change of meaning caused by a close, stable, constant connection between two or more objects. Metonymy should not be mixed up with a metaphor. In metonymy a part is used instead of the whole but metaphor is based on the likeness. *Ex.* She has a fox on (metonymy). It means she wears fur-coat made out of the fur of a fox. «Black shirts» was given for fascists in Italy because the fascists wore black shirts, «red - coat» means British soldiers because they wore red uniforms.

The kettle is boiling (water is boiling). Sometimes names of human organs may be used metonymically.

Ex. Will you lend me your ear? (listen to me). He has a good hand. (He has a good handwriting.)

The name of a person can be used to denote a thing connected with that person. *Ex.* Do you know Byron? We mean his poems not himself. *Ex.* I like Pushkin means I like his works. Geographical names are also used metonymically. *Ex.* boston — a name of town — material. Champaine — a province in France.

It is a transfer of the meaning on the basis of contiguity. There are different types of metonymy:

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

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

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

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

e) names of inventors very often become terms to denote things they invented, e.g.

«watt»), «oni»), «rentgen)> etc

f) some geographical names can also become common nouns through metonymy, e.g.

holland (linen fabrics), Brussels (a special kind of carpets), china (porcelain), astrachan ~ (a sheep fur) etc.

The result of semantic change can be observed in: 1) restriction (or narrowing) of meaning. Restriction of meaning is the capacity of a word to narrow its meaning in the course of historical development; 2) extension (or widening) of meaning. It is the expansion of polysemy in the course of its historical development, i.e. it is the widening of meaning. *Ex.* The word «fowl» meant in old English «any bird» but in modern English it denotes «a domestic hen or cock, — old meaning of «affection» was —any feeling, new meaning is a feeling of love. The word «junk» originally meant sailor's word meaning «old rope». Now it means «rubbish, useless stuff». This is an example of extension of meaning. The word «meat» originally meant «food» now it means one special type of food. This is an example of narrowing of

meaning. As a result of change of meaning a word may get a new meaning which will be broader or more generalized than the old one. *Ex.* season. The old meaning of the word «season» was «spring». The new meaning is any part of the year. Here is another example. The old meaning of «to bootleg*» was to sell alcoholic drinks illegally* New meaning is «to sell anything illegally*».

The meaning of a word may become ameliorated as a result of semantic change. *Ex.* the old meaning of the word «nice» was «foolish», now it means «good», «fine».

The old meaning of «marshal» was a servant who looked after horses. New meaning is a high military rank (Маршал).

The meaning of a word may become deteriorated as a result of semantic change. *Ex.* the old meaning of «villain» was «farm labourers, new meaning is ярамац (злодей). The old meaning of «knave» was—бола (мальчик), new meaning is «қаллоб» (машенник),

Compare the metaphorical meanings of the correlated words in three languages.

English	Russian	Uzbek
Eagle	орёл (бургут)	бургут (орёл)
1. орёл (бургут)	1. хищная птица (ёввойи куш)	1. большая хищная птица (энг катта йиртқич куш)
2. монета с изображением орла (бургут расми бор танга)	2. перен. о гордом, смелом, сильном человеке (кучли; кўркмас одам)	2. хищный человек (йиртқич, ёвуз)
3. созвездие (юлдузлар) туркуми		
4. жарг. курсант, день полочки (курсант, мояна олинадиган кун)		
falcon	сокол	лочин
1. сокол (лочин)	1. хищная птица (йиртқич куш)	1. хищная птица (йиртқич куш)
2. ист. фалкон	2. перен. о молодце (кўчма. эпчил)	2. перен. стокательный человек (кўчма. энгил, чакқон ғоят ғайратли одам)

KEY WORDS :

Meaning of words it's subject-matter

The goal of semasiology

Referential approach to meaning

Grammatical meaning

Lexical meaning and its types

The difference between lexical and grammatical meaning

Differential and functional meaning of the word

The motivation of the word and its types

ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS.

1. What causes of semantic change do you know?

2. What is the extralinguistic causes of semantic change?

3. What is the linguistic cause of semantic change?
4. What is a metaphor?
5. What is the similarity based on?
6. What is a metonymy?
7. What words are often used metonymically?
8. What is the restriction of meaning?
9. What is the extension of meaning?
10. What is the difference between the amelioration of meaning and the deterioration of meaning,

LECTURE 4

Types of Meaning

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.

Grammatical Meaning

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.

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).¹

Lexical Meaning

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 word **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.

Part-of-Speech Meaning

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

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**).

Denotational and Connotational Meaning

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. 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

Emotive Charge

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 **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 e m o t i v e c h a r g e 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 e m o t i v e i m p l i c a t i o n s 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.

Stylistic Reference

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.¹

The greater part of the l i t e r a r y l a y e r of Modern English vocabulary are words of general use, possessing no specific stylistic reference and known as n e u t r a l w o r d s . Against the background of neutral words we can distinguish two major subgroups — s t a n d a r d c o l l o q u i a l words and l i t e r a r y o r b o o k i s h 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’, **ought** — ‘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.

§ 11. Emotive Stylistic reference and emotive charge of words are closely connected and to a certain degree interdependent.¹

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.

Summary and Conclusions

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.

2. 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.

LECTURE 5.

Semantic groups of words.

Word-meaning is liable to change in the course of the historical development of language. Changes of lexical meaning may be illustrated by a diachronic semantic analysis of many commonly used English words. The word **fond** (*OE. fond*) used to mean 'foolish', 'foolishly credulous'; **glad** (*OE, glaed*) had the meaning of 'bright', 'shining' and so on.

Change of meaning has been thoroughly studied and as a matter of fact monopolised the attention of all semanticists whose work up to the early 1930's was centered almost exclusively on the description and classification of various changes of meaning. Abundant language data can be found in almost all the books dealing with semantics. Here we shall confine the discussion to a brief outline of the problem as it is viewed in modern linguistic science.

To avoid the ensuing confusion of terms and concepts it is necessary to discriminate between the causes of semantic change, the results and the nature of the process of change of meaning.¹ These are three closely bound up, but essentially different aspects of one and the same problem.

Discussing the causes of semantic change we concentrate on the factors bringing about -this change and attempt to find out *why* the word changed its meaning.

Analysing the nature of semantic change we seek

i-See *St. Ullmann*. The Principles of Semantics. Chapter 8, Oxford, 1963. 28

to clarify the process of this change and describe **how** various changes of meaning were brought about. Our aim in investigating the results of semantic change is to find out *what* was changed, i.e. we compare the resultant and the original meanings and describe the difference between them mainly in terms of the changes of the denotational components.

§ 21. Causes of Semantic Change

The factors accounting for semantic changes may be roughly subdivided into two groups: a) extra-linguistic and b) linguistic causes.

By extra-linguistic causes we mean various changes in the life of the speech community, changes in economic and social structure, changes in ideas, scientific concepts, way of life and other spheres of human activities as reflected in word meanings. Although objects, institutions, concepts, etc. change in the course of time in many cases the soundform of the words which denote them is retained but the meaning of the words is changed. The word **car**, e.g., ultimately goes back to Latin **carrus** which meant 'a four-wheeled wagon' (*ME. carre*) but now that other means of transport are used it denotes 'a motor-car', 'a railway carriage' (in the USA), 'that portion of an airship, or balloon which is intended to carry personnel, cargo or equipment'.

Some changes of meaning are due to what may be described as purely linguistic causes, i.e. factors acting within the language system. The commonest form which this influence takes is the so-called ellipsis. In a phrase made up of two words one of these is omitted and its meaning is transferred to its partner. The verb **to starve**, e.g., in Old English (*OE. steorfan*) had the meaning 'to die' and was habitually used in collocation with the word **hunger** (*ME. sterven of hunger*). Already in the

16th century the verb itself acquired the meaning 'to die of hunger'. Similar semantic changes may be observed in Modern English when the meaning of one word is transferred to another because they habitually occur together in speech. Another linguistic cause is discrimination of synonyms which can be illustrated by the semantic development of a number of words. The word **land**, e.g., in Old English (*OE. land*) meant both 'solid part of earth's surface' and 'the territory of a nation'. When in the Middle English period the word **country** (*OFr. contree*) was borrowed as its synonym, the meaning of the word **land** was somewhat altered and 'the territory of a nation' came to be denoted mainly by the borrowed word **country**.

Some semantic changes may be accounted for by the influence of a peculiar factor usually referred to as linguistic analogy. It was found out, e.g., that if one of the members of a synonymic set acquires a new meaning other members of this set change their meanings too. It was observed, e.g., that all English adverbs which acquired the meaning 'rapidly' (in a certain period of time — before 1300) always develop the meaning 'immediately', similarly verbs synonymous with **catch**, e.g. **grasp**, **get**, etc., by semantic extension acquired another meaning — 'to understand'.¹

. Nature of Semantic Change

Generally speaking, a necessary condition of any semantic change, no matter what its cause, is some connection, some association between the old meaning and the new. There are two kinds of association involved as a rule in various semantic changes namely: a) similarity of meanings, and b) contiguity of meanings.

S i m i l a r i t y of meanings or metaphor may be described as a semantic process of associating two referents, one of which in some way resembles the other. The word **hand**, e.g., acquired in the 16th century the meaning of 'a pointer of a clock or a watch' because of the similarity of one of the functions performed by the hand (to point at something) and the function of the clockpointer. Since metaphor is based on the perception of similarities it is only natural that when an analogy is obvious, it should give rise to a metaphoric meaning. This can be observed in the wide currency of metaphoric meanings of words denoting parts of the human body in various languages (cf. 'the leg of the table', 'the foot of the hill', etc.). Sometimes it is similarity of form, outline, etc. that underlies the metaphor. The words **warm** and **cold** began to denote certain qualities of human voices because of some kind of similarity between these qualities and warm and cold temperature. It is also usual to perceive similarity between colours and emotions.

It has also been observed that in many speech communities colour terms, e.g. the words **black** and **white**, have metaphoric meanings in addition to the literal denotation of colours.

C o n t i g u i t y of meanings or metonymy may be described as the semantic process of associating two referents one of which makes part of the other or is closely connected with it.

, This can be perhaps best illustrated by the use of the word **tongue** — 'the organ of speech' in the meaning of 'language' (as in **mother tongue**; cf. also *L. lingua*,

Russ. язык). The word **bench** acquired the meaning ‘judges, magistrates’ because it was on the **bench** that the judges used to sit in law courts, similarly **the House** acquired the meaning of ‘members of the House’ (**Parliament**).

It is generally held that metaphor plays a more important role in the change of meaning than metonymy. A more detailed analysis would show that there are some semantic changes that fit into more than the two groups discussed above. A change of meaning, e.g., may be brought about by the association between the sound-forms of two words. The word **boon**, e.g., originally meant ‘prayer, petition’, ‘request’, but then came to denote ‘a thing prayed or asked for’. Its current meaning is ‘a blessing, an advantage, a thing to be thanked for.’ The change of meaning was probably due to the similarity to the sound-form of the adjective **boon** (an Anglicised form of French **bon** denoting ‘good, nice’).

Within metaphoric and metonymic changes we can single out various subgroups. Here, however, we shall confine ourselves to a very general outline of the main types of semantic association as discussed above. A more detailed analysis of the changes of meaning and the nature of such changes belongs in the diachronic or historical lexicology and lies outside the scope of the present textbook.

23. Results of Semantic Change

Results of semantic change can be generally observed in the changes of the denotational meaning of the word (restriction and extension of meaning) or in the alteration of its connotational component (amelioration and deterioration of meaning).

Changes in the denotational meaning may result in the restriction of the types or range of referents denoted by the word. This may be illustrated by the semantic development of the word **hound** (*OE. hund*) which used to denote ‘a dog of any breed’ but now denotes only ‘a dog used in the chase’. This is also the case with the word **fowl** (*OE. fuzol, fuzel*) which in old English denoted ‘any bird’, but in Modern English denotes ‘a domestic hen or cock’. This is generally described as “restriction of meaning” and if the word with the new meaning comes to be used in the specialised vocabulary of some limited group within the speech community it is usual to speak of *s p e c i a l i s a t i o n* of meaning. For example, we can observe restriction and specialisation of meaning in the case of the verb **to glide** (*OE. glidan*) which had the meaning ‘to move gently and smoothly’ and has now acquired a restricted and specialised meaning ‘to fly with no engine’ (cf. **a glider**).

Changes in the denotational meaning may also result in the application of the word to a wider variety of referents. This is commonly described as *e x t e n s i o n* of meaning and may be illustrated by the word **target** which originally meant ‘a small round shield’ (a diminutive of **targe**, cf. *ON. targa*) but now means ‘anything that is fired at’ and also figuratively ‘any result aimed at’.

If the word with the extended meaning passes from the specialised vocabulary into common use, we describe the result of the semantic change as the *g e n e r a l i s a t i o n* of meaning. The word **camp**, e.g., which originally was used only as a military term and meant ‘the place where troops are lodged in

tents' (cf. *L. campus* — 'exercising ground for the army) extended and generalised its meaning and now denotes 'temporary quarters' (of travellers, nomads, etc.). As can be seen from the examples discussed above it is mainly the denotational component of the lexical meaning that is affected while the connotational component remains unaltered. There are other cases, however, when the changes in the connotational meaning come to the fore. These changes, as a rule accompanied by a change in the denotational' component, may be subdivided into two main groups: a) *pejorative development* or the acquisition by the word of some derogatory emotive charge, and b) *ameliorative development* or the improvement of the connotational component of meaning. The semantic change in the word **boor** may serve to illustrate the first group. This word was originally used to denote 'a villager, a peasant' (cf. *OE. zebur* 'dweller') and then acquired a derogatory, contemptuous connotational meaning and came to denote 'a clumsy or ill-bred fellow'. The ameliorative development of the connotational meaning may be observed in the change of the semantic structure of the word **minister** which in one of its meanings originally denoted 'a servant, an attendant' but now — 'a civil servant of higher rank, a person administering a department of state or accredited by one state to another'.

It is of interest to note that in derivational clusters a change in the connotational meaning of one member does not necessarily affect the others. This peculiarity can be observed in the words *accident* and *accidental*. The lexical meaning of the noun *accident* has undergone pejorative development and denotes not only 'something that happens by chance', but usually 'something unfortunate'. The derived adjective *accidental* does not possess in its semantic structure this negative connotational meaning (cf. also *fortune*: *bad fortune*, *good fortune* and *fortunate*).

Summary and Conclusions

1. Not only the sound-form but also the meaning of the word is changed in the course of the historical development of language. The factors causing semantic changes may be roughly subdivided into extra-linguistic and linguistic causes. Change of meaning is effected through association between the existing meaning and the new. This association is generally based on the similarity of meaning (metaphor) or on the contiguity of meaning (metonymy).

Semantic changes in the denotational component may bring about the extension or the restriction of meaning. The change in the connotational component may result in the pejorative or ameliorative development of meaning.

Causes, nature and result of semantic changes should be regarded as three essentially different but closely connected aspects of the same linguistic phenomenon.

LECTURE 6

THE MORPHEMIC STRUCTURE OF ENGLISH WORDS AND WORD FORMATION

Plan for the lecture

1. The structure of the word formation
2. Monomorphemic and polymorphemic words
3. Types of morphemes
4. Synchronic and diachronic aspects of the morphological structure of the word
5. Principles of morphemic analysis.

There are two levels of approach to the study of **word-structure**: the level of **morphemic analysis** and the level of **derivational** or word-formation analysis.

Word is the principal and basic unit of the language system, the largest on the morphologic and the smallest on the syntactic plane of linguistic analysis.

It has been universally acknowledged that a great many words have a composite nature and are made up of morphemes, the basic units on the morphemic level, which are defined as the smallest indivisible two-facet language units.

The term **morpheme** is derived from **Greek morphē** "form" + **-erme**. The Greek suffix **-erme** has been adopted by linguistics to denote the smallest unit or the minimum **distinctive feature**.

The morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit of form. A form in these cases is a recurring discrete unit of speech. Morphemes occur in speech only as constituent parts of words, not independently, although a word may consist of a single morpheme. Even a cursory examination of the morphemic structure of English words reveals that they are composed of morphemes of different types: root-morphemes and affixational morphemes. Words that consist of a root and an affix are called derived words or derivatives and are produced by the process of word building known as affixation (or derivation).

The root-morpheme is the lexical nucleus of the word; it has a very general and abstract lexical meaning common to a set of semantically related words constituting one word-cluster, e.g. (to) **teach, teacher, teaching**. Besides the lexical meaning root-morphemes possess all other types of meaning proper to morphemes except the part-of-speech meaning which is not found in roots.

Affixational morphemes include inflectional affixes or inflections and derivational affixes. **Inflections** carry only grammatical meaning and are thus relevant only for the formation of word-forms. **Derivational affixes** are relevant for building various types of words. They are lexically always dependent on the root which they modify. They possess the same types of meaning as found in roots, but unlike root-morphemes most of them have the part-of-speech meaning which makes them structurally the important part of the word as they condition the lexico-grammatical class the word belongs to.

Due to this component of their meaning the derivational affixes are classified into affixes building different parts of speech: nouns, verbs, adjectives or adverbs.

Roots and derivational affixes are generally easily distinguished and the difference between them is clearly felt as, e.g., in the words **helpless, handy, blackness, Londoner, refill**, etc.: the root-morphemes **help-, hand-, black-, London-, fill-**, are understood as the lexical centers of the words, and **-less, -y, -ness, -er, re-** are felt as morphemes dependent on these roots.

Distinction is also made of free and bound morphemes.

Free morphemes coincide with word-forms of independently functioning words. It is obvious that free morphemes can be found only among roots, so the morpheme **boy-** in the word **boy** is a free morpheme; in the word **undesirable** there is only one free morpheme **desire-**; the word **pen-holder** has two free morphemes **pen-** and **hold-**. It follows that **bound morphemes** are those that do not coincide with separate word-forms, consequently all derivational morphemes, such as **-ness, -able, -er** are bound. Root-morphemes may be both free and bound. The morphemes **theor-** in the words **theory, theoretical, or horr-** in the words **horror, horrible, horrify; Angl-** in **Anglo-Saxon; Afr-** in **Afro-Asian** are all bound roots as there are no identical word-forms.

It should also be noted that morphemes may have different phonemic shapes. In the word-cluster **please, pleasing, pleasure, pleasant** the phonemic shapes of the word stand in complementary distribution or in alternation with each other. All the representations of the given morpheme, that manifest alternation are called **allomorphs/or** morphemic variants/ of that morpheme.

The combining form **allo-** from Greek **allos** "other" is used in linguistic terminology to denote elements of a group whose members together constitute a structural unit of the language (allophones, allomorphs).

Thus, for example, **-ion/ -tion/ -sion/ -ation** are the positional variants of the same suffix, they do not differ in meaning or function but show a slight difference in sound form depending on the final phoneme of the preceding stem. They are considered as variants of one and the same morpheme and called its **allomorphs**.

Allomorph is defined as a positional variant of a morpheme occurring in a specific environment and so characterized by complementary description.

Complementary distribution is said to take place, when two linguistic variants cannot appear in the same environment.

Different morphemes are characterized by **contrastive distribution**, i.e. if they occur in the same environment they signal different meanings. The

suffixes **-able** and **-ed**, for instance, are different morphemes, not allomorphs, because adjectives in **-able** mean "capable of beings".

Allomorphs will also occur among prefixes. Their form then depends on the initials of the stem with which they will assimilate.

Two or more sound forms of a stem existing under conditions of complementary distribution may also be regarded as allomorphs, as, for instance, in long a: length n.

The morphological analysis of word-structure on the morphemic level aims at splitting the word into its constituent morphemes - the basic units at this level of analysis - and at determining their number and types. The four types (root words, derived words, compound, shortenings) represent the main structural types of Modern English words, and conversion, derivation and composition the most productive ways of word building.

According to the number of morphemes words can be classified into **monomorph**ic and **polymorph**ic. **Monomorph**ic or **root-words** consist of only one root-morpheme, e.g. **small, dog, make, give**, etc. All polymorph word fall into two subgroups: **derived words** and **compound words** - according to the number of root-morphemes they have. Derived words are composed of one root-morpheme and one or more derivational morphemes, e.g. acceptable, outdo, disagreeable, etc. Compound words are those which contain at least two root-morphemes, the number of derivational morphemes being insignificant. There can be both root- and derivational morphemes in compounds as in **pen-holder, light-mindedness**, or only root-morphemes as in **lamp-shade, eye-ball**, etc.

These structural types are not of equal importance. The clue to the correct understanding of their comparative value lies in a careful consideration of: 1) the importance of each type in the existing wordstock, and 2) their frequency value in actual speech.

Frequency is by far the most important factor. According to the available word counts made in different parts of speech, we find that derived words numerically constitute the largest class of words in the existing wordstock; derived nouns comprise approximately 67% of the total number, adjectives about 86%, whereas compound nouns make about 15%. Root words come to 18% in nouns, i.e. a trifle more than the number of compound words; adjectives root words come to approximately 12%.

But we cannot fail to perceive that root-words occupy a predominant place. In English, according to the recent frequency counts, about 60% of the total number of nouns and 62% of the total number of adjectives in current use are root-words.

Of the total number of adjectives and nouns, derived words comprise about 38% and 37% respectively while compound words comprise an insignificant 2% in nouns and 0.2% in adjectives.

Thus it is the root-words that constitute the foundation and the backbone of the vocabulary and that are of paramount importance in speech. It should also be mentioned that root words are characterized by a high degree of collocability and a complex variety of meanings in contrast with words of other structural types whose semantic structures are much poorer. Root- words also serve as parent forms for all types of derived and compound words.

Principles of morphemic analysis.

In most cases the morphemic structure of words is transparent enough and individual morphemes clearly stand out within the word. The segmentation of words is generally carried out according to the method of **Immediate and Ultimate Constituents**. This method is based on the binary principle, i.e. each stage of the procedure involves two components the word immediately breaks into. At each stage these two components are referred to as the Immediate Constituents. Each Immediate Constituent at the next stage of analysis is in turn broken into smaller meaningful elements. The analysis is completed when we arrive at constituents incapable of further division, i.e. morphemes. These are referred to Ultimate Constituents.

A synchronic morphological analysis is most effectively accomplished by the procedure known as the analysis into Immediate Constituents. ICs are the two meaningful parts forming a large linguistic unity.

The method is based on the fact that a word characterized by morphological divisibility is involved in certain structural correlations. To sum up: as we break the word we obtain at any level only ICs one of which is the stem of the given word. All the time the analysis is based on the patterns characteristic of the English vocabulary. As a pattern showing the interdependence of all the constituents segregated at various stages, we obtain the following formula:

$un^+ \{ un(gentle) + -man] + -ly \}$

Breaking a word into its Immediate Constituents we observe in each cut the structural order of the constituents.

A diagram presenting the four cuts described looks as follows:

1. **un- / gentlemanly**
2. **un- / gentleman / - ly**
3. **un- / gentle / - man / - ly**
4. **un- / gentl / - e / - man / - ly**

A similar analysis on the word-formation level showing not only the morphemic constituents of the word but also the structural pattern on which it is built.

The analysis of word-structure at the morphemic level must proceed to the stage of Ultimate Constituents, For example, the noun “friendliness” is first segmented into the ICs: friend recurring in the adjectives friendly-

looking and friendly and ness found in a countless number of nouns, such as **unhappiness, blackness, sameness**, etc. the 1C ness is at the same time an UC of the word, as it cannot be broken into any smaller elements possessing both sound-form and meaning. Any further division of *-ness* would give individual speech-sounds which denote nothing by themselves. The 1C friendly is next broken into the ICs friend and “ly” which are both UCs of the word.

Morphemic analysis under the method of Ultimate Constituents may be carried out on the basis of two principles: the so-called **root-principle** and **affix principle**.

According to the affix principle the splitting of the word into its constituent morphemes is based on the identification of the affix within a set of words, e.g. the identification of the suffix *-er* leads to the segmentation of words **singer, teacher, swimmer** into the derivational morpheme *-er* and the roots **teach-, sing-, drive-**.

According to the root-principle, the segmentation of the word is based on the identification of the root-morpheme in a word-cluster, for example the identification of the root-morpheme **agree-** in the words **agreeable, agreement, disagree**.

As a rule, the application of these principles is sufficient for the morphemic segmentation of words.

However, the morphemic structure of words in a number of cases is not always so transparent and simple as in the cases mentioned above. Sometimes not only the segmentation of words into morphemes, but the recognition of certain sound-clusters as morphemes become doubtful which naturally affects the classification of words. In words like **retain, detain, contain** or **receive, deceive, conceive, perceive** the sound-clusters [re], [de] seem to be singled quite easily, on the other hand, they undoubtedly have nothing in common with the phonetically identical prefixes *re-*, *de-* as found in words **re-write, reorganize, de-organize, de-code**. Moreover, the [-tavn] or [-si:v] possess any lexical or functional meaning of their own. Yet, these sound-clusters are felt as having a certain meaning because [re] distinguishes **retain** from **detain** and [-tain] distinguishes **retain** from **receive**.

It follows that all these sound-clusters have a differential and a certain distributional meaning as their order arrangement point to the affixal status of *re-*, *de-*, *con-*, *per-* and makes one understand **-tain** and **-ceive** as roots. The differential and distributional meanings seem to give sufficient ground to recognize these sound-clusters as morphemes, but as they lack lexical meaning of their own, they are set apart from all other types of morphemes and are known in linguistic literature as pseudo- morphemes.

When we analyse the word we compare the word with other words which have the same morphemes. The word «denationalize» may be divided

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

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

According to the number of morphemes words are divided into monomorphemic and polymorphemic. Monomorphemic words consist of one root — morpheme. *Ex.* boy, girl, dog, cat. Polymorphemic words consist of more than two morphemes. *Ex.* teach/er, un/reason/able. Morphemes are arranged in the word according to certain rules. The relations within the word and the interrelations between different types and classes of words are called derivational relations. The basic unit at the derivational level is the stem. The stem is a part of the word which remains unchanged throughout its paradigm.

Derivational level of analysis. Stems. Types of Stems.

The morphemic analysis of words only defines the constituent morphemes, determining their types and their meaning but does not reveal the hierarchy of the morphemes comprising the word. Words are no mere sum totals of morpheme, the latter reveal a definite, sometimes very complex interrelation. Morphemes are arranged according to certain rules, the arrangement differing in various types of words and particular groups within the same types. The pattern of morpheme arrangement underlies the classification of words into different types and enables one to understand how new words appear in the language. These relations within the word and the interrelations between different types and classes of words are known as **derivative or word-formation relations**.

The analysis of derivative relations aims at establishing a correlation between different types and the structural patterns words are built on. The basic unit at the derivational level is the **stem**.

The stem is defined as that part of the word which remains unchanged throughout its paradigm, thus the stem which appears in the paradigm (to) **ask** (), **asks**, **asked**, **asking** is **ask-**; the stem of the word **singer** (), **singer's**, **singers**, **singers'** is **singer-**. It is the stem of the word that takes the

inflections which change the word grammatically as one or another part of speech.

The structure of stems should be described in terms of IC's analysis, which at this level aims at establishing the patterns of typical derivative relations within the stem and the derivative correlation between stems of different types.

There are three types of stems: simple, derived and compound.

Simple stems are semantically non-motivated and do not constitute a pattern on analogy with which new stems may be modeled. Simple stems are generally monomorphic and phonetically identical with the root morpheme. The derivational structure of stems does not always coincide with the result of morphemic analysis. Comparison proves that not all morphemes relevant at the morphemic level are relevant at the derivational level of analysis. It follows that bound morphemes and

all types of pseudo- morphemes are irrelevant to the derivational structure of stems as they do not meet requirements of double opposition and derivative interrelations. So the stem of such words as **retain, receive, horrible, pocket, motion**, etc. should be regarded as simple, non- motivated stems.

Derived stems are built on stems of various structures though which they are motivated, i.e. derived stems are understood on the basis of the derivative relations between their immediate constituents and the correlated stems. The derived stems are mostly polymorphic in which case the segmentation results only in one immediate constituents that is itself a stem, the other immediate constituent being necessarily a derivational affix.

Derived stems are not necessarily polymorphic.

Compound stems are made up of two stems, both of which are themselves stems, for example **match-box, driving-suit, pen-holder**, etc. It is built by joining of two stems, one of which is simple, the other derived.

In more complex cases the result of the analysis at the two levels sometimes seems even to contracted one another.

Key words

The morphemic structure of the words in Modern English. Words and morphemes. (2 hours).

Simple, derived, compound and compound-derived words. The principles of morphemic analyses of the word. Degrees of derivation. Problems of productivity of word forming means. Word-building and its methods of investigation. The notion of word-building pattern.

ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS

1. What is a morpheme? 2. What is the word made up of? 3. What is the difference between a morpheme and a phoneme? 4. What is the difference between a morpheme and a word? 5. What types of morphemes do you know? 6. What is the morphemic analysis? 7. How can we analyse the morphemic structure of words with the help of I.C. method? 8. What is the stem? 9. What types of stems do you know? 10. What are the synchronic and diachronic approaches to the analysis of the stem? 11. Can all the words which have in their structure an affix have derived stems? 12. What is the unit of the derivational level?

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LECTURE 7 WORD-STRUCTURE

Word-building is one of the main ways of enriching vocabulary. There are four main ways of word-building in modern English: affixation, composition, conversion, abbreviation. There are also secondary ways of word-building: sound interchange, stress interchange, sound imitation, blends, back formation.

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

Suffixation.

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

There are different classifications of suffixes :

1. Part-of-speech classification. Suffixes which can form different parts of speech are given here :

a) noun-forming suffixes, such as : -er (criticizer), -dom (officialdom), -ism (ageism),

b) adjective-forming suffixes, such as : -able (breathable), -less (symptomless), -ous (prestigious),

c) verb-forming suffixes, such as -ize (computerize) , -ify (micrify),

d) adverb-forming suffixes , such as : -ly (singly), -ward (tableward),

e) numeral-forming suffixes, such as -teen (sixteen), -ty (seventy).

2. Semantic classification . Suffixes changing the lexical meaning of the stem can be subdivided into groups, e.g. noun-forming suffixes can denote:

- a) the agent of the action, e.g. -er (experimenter), -ist (taxist), -ent (student),
- b) nationality, e.g. -ian (Russian), -ese (Japanese), -ish (English),
- c) collectivity, e.g. -dom (moviedom), -ry (peasantry, -ship (readership), -ati (literati),
- d) diminutiveness, e.g. -ie (horsie), -let (booklet), -ling (gooseling), -ette (kitchenette),
- e) quality, e.g. -ness (copelessness), -ity (answerability).

3. Lexico-grammatical character of the stem. Suffixes which can be added to certain groups of stems are subdivided into:

- a) suffixes added to verbal stems, such as : -er (commuter), -ing (suffering), -able (flyable), -ment (involvement), -ation (computerization),
- b) suffixes added to noun stems, such as : -less (smogless), -ful (roomful), -ism (adventurism), -ster (pollster), -nik (filmmaker), -ish (childish),
- c) suffixes added to adjective stems, such as : -en (weaken), -ly (pinkly), -ish (longish), -ness (clannishness).

4. Origin of suffixes. Here we can point out the following groups:

- a) native (Germanic), such as -er, -ful, -less, -ly.
- b) Romanic, such as : -tion, -ment, -able, -eer.
- c) Greek, such as : -ist, -ism, -ize.
- d) Russian, such as -nik.

5. Productivity. Here we can point out the following groups:

- a) productive, such as : -er, -ize, -ly, -ness.
- b) semi-productive, such as : -eer, -ette, -ward.
- c) non-productive , such as : -ard (drunkard), -th (length).

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

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

Prefixation

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

because they are met in the language as words, e.g. over- (overhead) (cf over the table).

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

Prefixes can be classified according to different principles :

1. Semantic classification :

a) prefixes of negative meaning, such as : in- (invaluable), non- (nonformals), un- (unfree) etc,

b) prefixes denoting repetition or reversal actions, such as: de- (decolonize), re- (revegetation), dis- (disconnect),

c) prefixes denoting time, space, degree relations, such as : inter- (interplanetary) , hyper- (hypertension), ex- (ex-student), pre- (pre-election), over- (overdrugging) etc.

2. Origin of prefixes:

a) native (Germanic), such as: un-, over-, under- etc.

b) Romanic, such as : in-, de-, ex-, re- etc.

c) Greek, such as : sym-, hyper- etc.

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

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

Composition

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

The third pattern is easily mixed up with word-groups unless they have solid or hyphenated spelling.

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

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

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

There are two characteristic features of English compounds:

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

Whereas for example in Russian compounds the stems are bound morphemes, as a rule.

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

Ways of forming compound words.

Compound words in English can be formed not only by means of composition but also by means of :

a) reduplication, e.g. too-too, and also by means of reduplication combined with sound interchange , e.g. rope-ripe,

b) conversion from word-groups, e.g. to micky-mouse, can-do, makeup etc,

c) back formation from compound nouns or word-groups, e.g. to bloodtransfuse, to fingerprint etc ,

d) analogy, e.g. lie-in (on the analogy with sit-in) and also phone-in, brain-drain (on the analogy with brain-drain) etc.

Classifications of English compounds

1. According to the parts of speech compounds are subdivided into:

a) nouns, such as : baby-moon, globe-trotter,

b) adjectives, such as : free-for-all, power-happy,

c) verbs, such as : to honey-moon, to baby-sit, to henpeck,

d) adverbs, such as: downdeep, headfirst,

e) prepositions, such as: into, within,

f) numerals, such as : fifty-five.

2. According to the way components are joined together compounds are divided into:

a) neutral, which are formed by joining together two stems without any joining morpheme, e.g. ball-point, to windowshop,

b) morphological where components are joined by a linking element : vowels «o» or «i» or the consonant «s», e.g. {«astrospace», «handicraft», «sportsman»),

c) syntactical where the components are joined by means of form-word stems, e.g. here-and-now, free-for-all., do-or-die .

3. According to their structure compounds are subdivided into:

a) compound words proper which consist of two stems, e.g. to job-hunt, train-sick, go-go, tip-top b) derivational compounds, where besides the stems we have affixes, e.g. ear-minded, hydro-skimmer,

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

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

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

a) subordinative compounds where one of the components is the semantic and the structural centre and the second component is subordinate; these subordinative relations can be different:

with comparative relations, e.g. honey-sweet, eggshell-thin, with limiting relations, e.g. breast-high, knee-deep, with emphatic relations, e.g. dog-cheap, with objective relations, e.g. gold-rich, with cause relations, e.g. love-sick, with space relations, e.g. top-heavy, with time relations, e.g. spring-fresh, with subjective relations, e.g. foot-sore etc

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

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

Conversion

Conversion is a characteristic feature of the English word-building system. It is also called affixless derivation or zero-suffixation. The term «conversion» first appeared in the book by Henry Sweet «New English Grammar» in 1891.

Conversion is treated differently by different scientists, e.g. prof. A.I. Smirntitsky treats conversion as a morphological way of forming words when one part of speech is formed from another part of speech by changing its paradigm, e.g. to form the verb «to dial» from the noun «dial» we change the paradigm of the noun (a dial,dials) for the paradigm of a regular verb (I dial, he dials, dialed, dialing). A. Marchand in his book «The Categories and Types of Present-day English» treats conversion as a morphological-syntactical word-building because we have not only the change of the paradigm, but also the change of the syntactic function, e.g. I need some good paper for my room. (The noun «paper» is an object in the sentence). I paper my room every year. (The verb «paper» is the predicate in the sentence).

Conversion is the main way of forming verbs in Modern English. Verbs can be formed from nouns of different semantic groups and have different meanings because of that, e.g.

a) verbs have instrumental meaning if they are formed from nouns denoting parts of a human body e.g. to eye, to finger, to elbow, to shoulder etc. They have instrumental meaning if they are formed from nouns denoting tools, machines, instruments, weapons, e.g. to hammer, to machine-gun, to rifle, to nail,

b) verbs can denote an action characteristic of the living being denoted by the noun from which they have been converted, e.g. to crowd, to wolf, to ape,

c) verbs can denote acquisition, addition or deprivation if they are formed from nouns denoting an object, e.g. to fish, to dust, to peel, to paper,

d) verbs can denote an action performed at the place denoted by the noun from which they have been converted, e.g. to park, to garage, to bottle, to corner, to pocket,

e) verbs can denote an action performed at the time denoted by the noun from which they have been converted e.g. to winter, to week-end .

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

Nouns can also be formed by means of conversion from verbs. Converted nouns can denote:

a) instant of an action e.g. a jump, a move,

b) process or state e.g. sleep, walk,

c) agent of the action expressed by the verb from which the noun has been converted, e.g. a help, a flirt, a scold ,

d) object or result of the action expressed by the verb from which the noun has been converted, e.g. a burn, a find, a purchase,

e) place of the action expressed by the verb from which the noun has been converted, e.g. a drive, a stop, a walk.

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

LECTURE 8

WORD FORMATION

Problems for discussion

Plan for the lecture

1. Different points of view to the study of conversion.
2. The study of conversion on the diachronic level and on the synchronic level.
3. The most common types of conversion.
4. The connection of derived and underlying word in converted pairs.

W o r d - F o r m a t i o n is the system of derivative types of words and the process of creating new words from the material available in the language after certain structural and semantic formulas and patterns. For instance, the noun driver is formed after the pattern v+-er, i.e. a verbal stem +-the noun-forming suffix -er. The meaning of the derived noun driver is related to the meaning of the stem drive- 'to direct the course of a vehicle' and the suffix -er meaning 'an active agent': a driver is 'one who drives' (a carriage, motorcar, railway engine, etc.). Likewise compounds resulting from two or more stems joined together to form a new word are also built on quite definite structural and semantic patterns and formulas, for instance adjectives of the snow-white type are built according to the formula n+a, etc. It can easily be observed that the meaning of the whole compound is also related to the meanings of the component parts. The structural patterns with the semantic relations they signal give rise to regular new creations of derivatives, e.g. sleeper, giver, smiler or soot-black, tax-free, etc.

In conformity with structural types of words described above¹ the following two types of word-formation may be distinguished, word-derivation and word-composition (or compounding). Words created by word-derivation have in terms of word-formation analysis only one derivational base and one derivational affix, e.g. cleanness (from clean), to overestimate (from to estimate), chairmanship (from chairman), openhandedness (from openhanded), etc. Some derived words have no derivational affixes, because derivation is achieved through conversion², e.g. to paper (from paper), a fall (from to fall), etc. Words created by word-composition have at least two bases, e.g. lamp-shade, ice-cold, looking-glass," daydream, hotbed, speedometer, etc.

Within the types, further distinction may be made between the ways of forming words. The basic ways of forming words in word-derivation, for instance, are a f f i x a t i o n and c o n v e r s i o n . It should be noted that the understanding of word-formation as expounded here excludes semantic word-building as well as shortening, sound- and stress-interchange which traditionally are referred, as has been mentioned above, to minor ways of word-formation. By semantic word-building some linguists understand any change in word-meaning, e.g. stock — 'the lower part of the trunk of a tree'; 'something lifeless or stupid'; 'the part of an instrument that serves as a base', etc.; bench — 'a long seat of wood or stone'; 'a carpenter's table', etc. The majority of linguists, however, understand this process only as a change in the meaning³ of a word that may result in the

appearance of homonyms.

Conversion is a very productive way of forming new words in Modern English, (ex. work—to work, pen—to pen, to walk—walk). The term «conversion» was first used by Sweet in his book «New English Grammar» in 1892.

There are a lot of approaches to the study of conversion. Some linguists think that conversion is the formation of words without affixes. Others say that conversion is the formation of new words with the help of a zero morpheme. Conversion is also defined as a shift from one part of speech to another². These treatments of conversion cause some doubt.

The treatment of conversion as a non-affixal word-building does not help us to distinguish the cases of conversion and soundinterchange. *Ex.* Sing-song and paper *n*-pa-per *v*.

If we accept the point of view of the linguists who treat conversion as «a shift from one part of speech to another» we can't differ between parts of speech, i. e. between noun and verb, noun and adjective etc.

Prof. A. L. Smirnitsky says that conversion is the formation of a new word by a change of paradigm. It is the paradigm that is used as a wordbuilding means. *Ex.* in Uzbek:

китоблар, китобнинг, китобни, китобга, китобдан, китобда, китоби, китобим, китобинг, **-лар,-нинг,-ни,-га,-дан,-да, и,-им, -инг** etc are the paradigms of the noun «китоб». In English book, books'; book's; -s, 's, s' are the paradigms of the noun «book»; book *v*—booked, (he) books, booking, booked,-ed, **ed (the ending of P II)-s,-ing**, are the paradigms of the verb «to book». So conversion can be described as a morphological way of forming words.

There are two approaches to the study of conversion: synchronic and diachronic. On the diachronic level we study the origin of conversion, how the converted pairs appeared in the language. Conversion was born in XIII century as a result of the disappearance of inflexions in the course of the historical development of the English language in Middle English.

Ex. lufu — luf — love *n*.

lufian — luf — love *v*

andswarn — andswar — answer *n*

andswarian — andswar — answer *v*

Some new words formed by conversion were created on the analogy of the semantic patterns existed in the language.

Ex. to motor—travel by car

to phone—use the telephone

to wire—send a telegram

On the synchronic level conversion is considered as a type of forming new words by means of paradigms. The two words differ only in their

paradigms. Synchronically the most common types of conversion are the creation of verbs from nouns and the formation of nouns from verbs:

1) verbs converted from nouns:

ape — to ape, a face — to face, a butcher — to butcher, a dust—to dust, a doctor—to doctor etc.

2) nouns converted from verbs:

to jump—a jump, to move—a move, to help—a help, to drive—a drive, to walk—a walk etc.

Derivations from the stems of other parts of speech are less common.

Ex. wrong {*adj*} — to wrong, up (*adj*) — to up, down (*adv*)—to down. Nouns may be also formed from verb + postpositive phrases. *Ex.* to make up — a make + up. to call up—a call up, to take off—a take off etc.

New words formed from simple or root stems are more frequent than those formed from suffixed stems. No verbal formations from prefixed stems are found.

In converted pairs the derived word and the underlying word are connected with each other in their meaning. The derived verb shows the act performed by the thing denoted by the noun.

Ex. «to finger» means «to touch with the finger», «to hand» means «to give the hand», «to help with the hand», «to train» means «to go by train, «to buss means «to go by bus», «to week-end means to spend the week-end».

Derived nouns denote the act or the result of an action.

Ex. «a knock» means «the result of knocking», «a cut» means «the result of cutting», «a call» means «the result of calling», a find means «the result of finding», «a run» means «the result of running. Synchronically it is difficult to define which of the two words within a converted pair is the derived member. How should we say that one of the members of converted pairs is a derived word?

The problem of the criterion of semantic derivation was raised in linguistic literature not so long ago. Prof. Smirnitsky was the first to put forward the theory of semantic derivation in his book on English Lexicology. Later on P. A. Soboleva developed Smirnitsky's ideas and worked out three more criteria.

1) If the lexical meaning of the root morpheme coincides with the lexico-grammatical meaning of the stem we say that the noun has the simple stem. *Ex.* man (*n*)—man (*v*), father (*n*)— father (*v*), map (*n*)—map (*v*), paper (*n*)— paper (*v*). The noun is the name for a concrete thing here the verbs **map, man, father, paper** denote a process, therefore the lexico-grammatical meaning of their stems does not coincide with the lexical meaning of the roots which is of a substantival character.

2) According to analogous synonymic word pairs like **converse** — **conversation**, **exhibit** — **exhibition**, **occupy** — **occupation** we say in

converted pairs work (*v*)— work (*n*), show (*u*), — show (*n*) chat (*v*) — chat (*n*) the verb has the simple stem.

3) if the noun has more derivatives than the verb, the verb is a derived word in converted pairs and vice versa. *Ex.* hand(*ra*)—handed, handful, handy, handless etc. hand (*v*) — handable. Here the verb «hand» is formed from the noun «hand», because the noun has more derivatives than the verb.

Semantic Structure of Polysemantic Words

—————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); ² 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 *планишайба, 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.

Polysemy and Arbitrariness of Semantic Structure

The words of different languages which are similar or identical in lexical meaning, especially in the denotational meaning are termed *c o r r e l a t e d w o r d s*. 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.¹

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

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**.

Summary and Conclusions

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.

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.

LECTURE 9 TYPES OF WORD FORMATION

1. Shortening and its characteristic features.
2. Clippings and abbreviations.
3. Clippings and the original words.
4. Soundinterchange.
5. Backformation.
6. Blending.

The shortening of words means substituting a part for a whole, part of the word is taken away and used for the whole. *Ex.* **demo** (demonstration), **dub** (double), **vac** (vacuum cleaner), **doc** (doctor), **fig** (figure), **Mrs** (missis).

A shortened word is in some way different from its prototype in usage. The shortened word and its full form have the same lexical meaning but differ only in stylistic reference.

Ex. **exam** (colloq) examination (neutral), **chapman** (neutral), **chap** (colloq).

Shortened words are structurally simple words and in most cases have the same lexical meaning as the longer words from which they are derived. 'Shortening is not a derivational process because there are no structural patterns after which new shortened words could be built therefore we can't say that shortening is a derivational wordformation. We must distinguish lexical abbreviations and clippings.

Abbreviations consist of the first letters of a word group or a compound word (CPSU, YCL, USA, BBC, NATO) or the component of a two member word group H (hydrogin)— bomb, V. —Day—Victory Day) is shortened. The last one is not changed. Clipping consists in the cutting off of one or several syllables of a word. In many cases the stressed syllables are preserved. *Ex.* **Sis.** (sister), **Jap** (Japanese), **doc** (doctor), **phone** (telephone), **lab** (laboratory).

Clipping is classified into the following types depending on which part of the word is clipped: 1) Words that have been shortened at the end: *ex.* **ad** (advertisement), **lab** (laboratory), **Jap** (Japanese), **doc** (doctor), **sis** (sister), **vac** (vacuum cleaner) ;2) Words that have been shortened at the beginning: *ex.* **car** (motor-car), **phone** (telephone), **van** (caravan), **cast** (broadcast); 3) Words in which syllables have been omitted from the middle the so called syncope, *ex.* **maths** (mathematics), **specs** (spectacles); 4) Words that have been shortened at the beginning and at the end: *ex.* **flu** (influenza), **tec** (detective), **frig** (refrigerator).

Clippings and abbreviations have some peculiarities as simple words. They take the plural endings and that of the possessive case. They take

grammatical inflexions, *ex. exams, docs, cars, doc's* they are used with articles: **the USA, a lab, a vac, a doc**, etc. They may take derivational affixes: **YCL-er, M. P-ess** hanky (from handkerchief), unkie (from uncle).

Clippings do not always coincide in meaning with the original word. *Ex. doc* and **doctor** have the meaning **one who practises medicine**, but **doctor** is also **the highest degree given by a university to a scholar or scientist** and **a person who has received such a degree** whereas **doc** is not used with these meanings.

Among abbreviations there are homonyms. One and the same sound and graphical complex may be different words.

Ex. vac-vacation; vac-vacuum cleaner; prep-preparation; prep-preparatory school.

In abbreviations we stress each letter.

Ex. TUC ['ti/ju:si:] — Trade Union Congress.

If they are pronounced in accordance with the rules of phonetics we stress the first syllable.

Ex. NATO ['neitou], *UNO* ['}u:nou]

Soundinterchange. Sound interchange is an alternation in the phonetic composition of the root. *Ex. food* (*n*)—*feed* (*v*), *speak* (*o*)—*speech* (*n*), *strong* (*ad*)—*strength* (*n*).

Sound interchange may be considered as a way of forming words only diachronically because in Modern English we can't find a single word which can be formed by changing the root-vowel of a word or by shifting the place of the stress. Sound interchange is non-productive.

Soundinterchange may be divided into vowel interchange and consonant interchange. *Ex. full*—to fill, *food*—to feed, *blood*—to bleed, *stronger*—*strength*. Here we have vowel interchange and by means of vowel interchange we can distinguish different parts of speech. There are some examples of consonant interchange: *advice*—to advice, *use* [ju:s] — to use [ju:z], *speak*—*speech*, *break*—*breach*, *defence*—*defend*, *offence*-*offend*.

Back-formation. The term «back-formation» has a diachronic relevance (historical meaning).

Ex. The nouns **beggar, butler, cobbler, typewriter** are very much like the nouns **actor, painter, teacher**, which have the suffixes -er, -or. On the analogy of the derivatives **teacher, speaker, reader** the words **beggar, butler, cobbler, typewriter** etc. synchronically are derived from *to beg, to butle, to cob, to typewrite*, because we do not feel any difference between the relationship «*speak*—*speakers* and «*beg*—*beggar*». But if we study their origin we see **butle** was derived from «**butler**», «**to beg**» was derived from «**beggar**» (*begar* comes from trench «*begard*», «*begart*»). So backformation «denotes the derivation of new words by subtracting a real or supposed affix from existing words through misinterpretation of their structure.

Blending. Blending is the formation of a new word by a connection of parts of two words to form one word.

Ex. The noun «smog» is composed of the parts of nouns «smoke» and «fog» (sm (oke+f) og. The result of blending is an **unanalysable** simple word. We do not analyse the blended words (sm+og) because their parts can't be called morphemes.

Ex. clash = clap-crash; flush=flash+blush, language =sl-ang+language, brunch-=breakfast+lunch, smare=smoke+ha-ze, seadrome=sea+airdrome). There are many blends in the terminological vocabulary. *Ex.* racon=radar+beacon, transceiver = transmitter + receiver.

KEY WORDS :

Conversion-productive way of forming words

Different approaches to the study of conversion

Diachronic approach to the study of conversion

Synchronic approach to the study of conversion

The origin of conversion

Common types of conversion

Prof. A. Soboleva's three criteria

Converted pairs

Shortening and its features

Abbreviations and their peculiarities

Clippings and their peculiarities

The difference between the clipping and the original word

The homonymy of abbreviations

Sound-interchange-a way of forming words diachronically

The distinction between vowel-interchange and consonant-interchange

Backformation

The peculiarities of blending

ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS

1. When was the term «conversion» first used? 2. What approaches to the study of conversion do you know? 3. Why do the treatments of conversion as a non-affixal wordbuilding, a shift from one part of speech to another cause doubt to us? 4. What is A. I. Smirnitsky's point of view to conversion? 5. What problems of conversion do you study on the diachronic level? 6. What is the origin of conversion? 7. How is conversion treated on synchronic level? 8. What are the most common types of conversion do you know? 9. What are the less common types of conversion? 10. How is the derived word connected with the underlying word in their meaning in

converted pairs? 11. How should we say that one of the members of converted pairs is a derived word?

1. What do you understand by the term «shortening»? 2. Why can't we say that shortening is a derivational word-formation? 3. What distinction is made between abbreviations and clippings. 4. What is the classification of clippings? 5. What is the peculiarity of shortened words? 6. What is the difference between the clipping and the original word? 7. What is the homonymy of abbreviations? 8. What do you understand by the term sound-interchange? 9. What is the distinction between vowel-interchange and consonantinterchange? 10. What is understood by the term «backformation»? 11. What is the peculiarity of blending as a means of word-formation?

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LECTURE 10

FREE WORD COMBINATIONS AND PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS

Plan of the lecture

The subject-matter of phraseology.

1. The classification of phraseological units.
2. The point of view about stability, idiomaticity and the equevalency of phraseological units to words.
3. The history of phraseological units
4. The synonymy, polysemy of phraseological units.

Functionally and semantically inseparable units are usually called phraseological units. Phraseological units cannot be freely made up in speech but are reproduced as ready made units. The lexical components in phraseological units are stable and they are non-motivated i. e. its meaning

cannot be deduced from the meaning of its components and they do not allow their lexical components to be changed or substituted.

•In phraseological units the individual components do not seem to possess any lexical meaning outside the word group.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

At present the term «phraseological unite is usually used not to all set expressions but only to those which are completely or partially non-motivated¹.

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

Ex. dutch courage (courage given by drink), to bring to book (to bring to justice), small years (in the childhood), small beers (weak beer). Stability of phraseological units is seen in its disallowance of the substitution of word groups. **Ex:** «to shrug one's-shoulders* does not allow to substitute either «shrug» or «shoulder».

Idiomaticity of phraseological units is lack of word groups. If a word group does not allow word by word translation it is called idiomatic word groups. **Ex:** to kick the bucket in the soup, under a cloud .

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

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

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

Among the phraseological units there are the so-called imperative phraseological units¹.

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

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

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

The history of many phraseologisms is an interesting record of the nation's past, of its way of life, customs and'

traditions. Many phraseological units are connected with commerce, **Ex:** to talk shop, to make the best of the bargain, to have all one's goods in the shop window, a drug on the market. Many phraseological units are associated with the sea (the waves). **Ex;** all at sea, to nail one's colours to the mast, to sail under false colours. Many phraseological units were borrowed from the Bible, **Ex:** *the root of all evil. Daily bread* .

There is a subject of discussion among the linguists about the state of such combinations like «to give in», «to make up», «to take off», «to get up», «to give up», etc; what is the nature of the second element of such combinations? The second element of such units is not a word therefore they are not phraseological units. Phraseological units, as we know, consist of words. The second element is not a morpheme because it is not a part of the

word, they are not adverbs because adverbs have definite lexical meanings and are used in a certain function in the sentence. But these units (get up, give up etc) have idiomatical meanings therefore. A. V. Koo-nin calls such units «set phrases* which have no phraseological character. There are synonyms among phraseological units,

KEY WORDS :

Phraseological unit
The most peculiarities of phraseological units
Different approaches to the study of phraseological units
Stability of phraseological units
Idiomaticity of phraseological units
Classification of phraseological units according to their semantic and grammatical inseparability
Proverbs, sayings and quotations
The history of phraseological units
The discussion among the linguistics about the state of combinations, like “give up”
The synonymy of phraseological units
The polysemy of phraseological units

ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS

1. What is a phraseological unit? 2. What are the most peculiarities of phraseological units?
3. What is academician V. V. Vinogradov's classification of phraseological units based on?
4. How does prof. N. N. Amasova classify phraseological units? 5. What is the stability of phraseological units? 6. What is the ideomaticity of phraseological units?
7. Why does prof. A. I. Smirnitsky say that phraseological units are the word equivalents? 8. Why do we include proverbs, sayings quotations in phraseological units? 9. What is the history of phraseological units? 10. What kind of discussion of the so-called word groups as «give up» was among the linguists? 11. What is the synonymy of phraseological units? 12. What is the polysemy of phraseological units?

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LECTURE 11 WORD-COMPOSITION

Means of Composition

From the point of view of the means by which the components are joined together compound words may be classified into:

1) Words formed by *merely* placing one constituent after another in a definite order which thus is indicative of both the semantic value and the morphological unity of the compound, e.g. **rain-driven, house-dog, pot-pie** (cf. **dog-house, pie-pot**). This means of linking the components is typical of the majority of Modern English compounds in all parts of speech.

As to the order of components, subordinative compounds are often classified as: a) *asyntactic* compound in which the order of bases runs counter to the order in which the motivating words can be brought together under the rules of syntax of the language. For example, in variable phrases adjectives cannot be modified by preceding adjectives and noun modifiers are not placed before participles or adjectives, yet this kind of asyntactic arrangement is typical of compounds, e.g. **red-hot, bluish-black, pale-blue, rain-driven, oil-rich**. The asyntactic order is typical of the majority of Modern English compound words; b) *syntactic* compounds whose components are placed in the order that resembles the order of words” in free phrases arranged according to the rules of syntax of Modern English. The order of the components in compounds like **blue-bell, mad-doctor, blacklist** (*a+n*) reminds one of the order and arrangement of the corresponding words in phrases **a blue bell, a mad doctor, a black list** (*A+N*), the order of compounds of the type **door-handle, day-time, spring-lock** (*n+n*) resembles the order of words in nominal phrases with attributive function of the first noun (*N+N*), e.g. **spring time, stone steps, peace movement**.

2) Compound words whose ICs are joined together with a *special linking-element* — the linking vowels [ou] and occasionally [i] and the linking consonant [s/z] — which is indicative of composition as in, e.g., **speedometer, tragicomic, statesman**. Compounds of this type can be both nouns and adjectives, subordinative and additive but are rather few in number since they are considerably restricted by the nature of their components. The additive compound adjectives linked with the help of the vowel [ou] are limited to the names of nationalities and represent a specific group with a bound root for the first component, e.g. **Sino-Japanese, Afro-Asian, Anglo-Saxon**.

In subordinative adjectives and nouns the productive linking element is also [ou] and compound words of the type are most productive for scientific terms. The main peculiarity of compounds of the type is that their constituents are nonassimilated bound roots borrowed mainly from classical languages, e.g. **electro-dynamic, filmography, technophobia, videophone, sociolinguistics, videodisc**.

A small group of compound nouns may also be joined with the help of linking consonant [s/z], as in **sportsman, landsman, saleswoman, bridesmaid**. This small group of words is restricted by the second component which is, as a rule, one of the three bases **man-, woman-, people-**. The commonest of them is **man-**.¹

Types of Bases

Compounds may be also classified according to the nature of the bases and the interconnection with other ways of word-formation into the so-called compounds proper and' derivational compounds.

C o m p o u n d s p r o p e r are formed by joining together bases built on the stems or on the word-forms of independently functioning words with or without the help of special linking element such as **doorstep, age-long, baby-sitter, looking-glass, street-fighting, handiwork, sportsman**. Compounds proper constitute the bulk of English compounds in all parts of speech, they include both subordinative and coordinative classes, productive and non-productive patterns.

D e r i v a t i o n a l c o m p o u n d s, e.g. **long-legged, three-cornered, a break-down, a pickpocket** differ from compounds proper in the nature of bases and their second IC. The two ICs of the compound **long-legged** — 'having long legs' — are the suffix **-ed** meaning 'having'

the base built on a free word-group **long legs** whose member words lose their grammatical independence, and are reduced to a single component of the word, a derivational base. Any other segmentation of such words, say into **long-** and **legged-** is impossible because firstly, adjectives like ***legged** do not exist in Modern English and secondly, because it would contradict the lexical meaning of these words. The derivational adjectival suffix **-ed** converts this newly formed base into a word. It can be graphically represented as **long legs** → **[(long-leg) + -ed] -> long-legged**. The suffix **-ed** becomes the grammatically and semantically dominant component of the word, its head-member. It imparts its part-of-speech meaning and its lexical meaning thus making an adjective that may be semantically interpreted as 'with (or having) what is denoted by the motivating word-group'. Comparison of the pattern of compounds proper like **baby-sitter, pen-holder** [*n+(v + -er)*] with the pattern of derivational compounds like **long-legged** [*(a+n) + -ed*] reveals the difference: derivational compounds are formed by a derivational means, a suffix in case of words of the **long-legged** type, which is applied to a base that each time is formed anew on a free word-group and is not recurrent in any other type of words. It follows that strictly speaking words of this type should be treated as pseudo-compounds or as a special group of derivatives. They are habitually referred to derivational compounds because of the peculiarity of their derivational bases which are felt as built by composition, i.e. by bringing together the stems of the member-words of a phrase which lose their independence in the process. The word itself, e.g. **long-legged**, is built by the

application of the suffix, i.e. by derivation and thus may be described as a suffixal derivative.

Derivational compounds or pseudo-compounds are all subordinative and fall into two groups according to the type of variable phrases that serve as their bases and the derivational means used:

a) **d e r i v a t i o n a l c o m p o u n d a d j e c t i v e s** formed with the help of the highly-productive adjectival suffix **-ed** applied to bases built on attributive phrases of the *A+N*, *Num + N*, *N+N* type, e.g. **long legs, three corners, doll face**. Accordingly the derivational adjectives under discussion are built after the patterns $[(a+n) + -ed]$, e.g. **long-legged, flat-chested, broad-minded**; $[(num + n) + -ed]$, e.g. **two-sided, three-cornered**; $[(n + n) + -ed]$, e.g. **doll-faced, heart-shaped**.

b) **d e r i v a t i o n a l c o m p o u n d n o u n s** formed mainly by conversion applied to bases built on three types of variable phrases — verb-adverb phrase, verbal-nominal and attributive phrases.

The commonest type of phrases that serves as derivational bases for this group of derivational compounds is the *V + Adv* type of word-groups as in, e.g., **a breakdown, a break-through, a cast-away, a lay-out**. Semantically derivational compound nouns form lexical groups typical of conversion, such as an *a c t o r i n s t a n c e* of the action, e.g. **a holdup** — ‘a delay in traffic’ from **to hold up** — ‘delay, stop by use of force’; a *r e s u l t* of the action, e.g. **a breakdown** — ‘a failure in machinery that causes work to stop’ from **to break down** — ‘become disabled’; an *a c t i v e a g e n t o r r e c i p i e n t* of the action, e.g. **cast-offs** — ‘clothes that the owner will not wear again’ from **to cast off** — ‘throw away as unwanted’; **a show-off** — ‘a person who shows off’ from **to show off** — ‘make a display of one’s abilities in order to impress people’. Derivational compounds of this group are spelt generally solidly or with a hyphen and often retain a level stress. Semantically they are motivated by transparent derivative relations with the motivating base built on the so-called phrasal verb and are typical of the colloquial layer of vocabulary. This type of derivational compound nouns is highly productive due to the productivity of conversion.

The semantic subgroup of derivational compound nouns denoting agents calls for special mention. There is a group of such substantives built on an attributive and verbal-nominal type of phrases. These nouns are semantically only partially motivated and are marked by a heavy emotive charge or lack of motivation and often belong to terms as, e.g., a **kill-joy, a wet-blanket** — ‘one who kills enjoyment’; **a turnkey** — ‘keeper of the keys in prison’; **a sweet-tooth** — ‘a person who likes sweet food’; **a red-breast** — ‘a bird called the robbin’. The analysis of these nouns easily proves that they can only be understood as the result of conversion for their second ICs cannot be understood as their structural or semantic centres, these compounds belong to a grammatical and lexical groups different from those their components do. These compounds are all animate nouns whereas their second ICs belong to inanimate objects. The meaning of the active agent is not found in either of

the components but is imparted as a result of conversion applied to the word-group which is thus turned into a derivational base.

These compound nouns are often referred to in linguistic literature as “bahuvrihi” compounds or exocentric compounds, i.e. words whose semantic head is outside the combination. It seems more correct to refer them to the same group of derivational or pseudo-compounds as the above cited groups.

This small group of derivational nouns is of a restricted productivity, its heavy constraint lies in its idiomaticity and hence its stylistic and emotive colouring.

Correlation Types of Compounds.

The description of compound words through the correlation with variable word-groups makes it possible to classify them into four major classes: adjectival-nominal, verbal-nominal, nominal and verb-adverb compounds.

I. **A d j e c t i v a l - n o m i n a l** comprise four subgroups of compound adjectives, three of them are proper compounds and one derivational. All four subgroups are productive and semantically as a rule motivated. The main constraint on the productivity in all the four subgroups is the lexical-semantic types of the head-members and the lexical valency of the head of the correlated word-groups.

Adjectival-nominal compound adjectives have the following patterns:

1) the polysemantic $n+a$ pattern that gives rise to two types:

a) compound adjectives based on semantic relations of resemblance with adjectival bases denoting most frequently colours, size, shape, etc. for the second IC. The type is correlative with phrases of comparative type **as A + as + N**, e.g. **snow-white, skin-deep, age-long**, etc.

b) compound adjectives based on a variety of adverbial relations. The type is correlative with one of the most productive adjectival phrases of the **A + prp + N** type and consequently semantically varied, cf. **colour-blind, road-weary, care-free**, etc.

2) the monosemantic pattern $n+v_{en}$ based mainly on the **Compound Adjectives**

Summary and Conclusions

1. Compound words are made up of two ICs, both of which are derivational bases.

2. The structural and semantic centre of a compound, i.e. its head-member, is its second IC, which preconditions the part of speech the compound belongs to and its lexical class.

3. Phonetically compound words are marked by three stress patterns — a unity stress, a double stress and a level stress. The first two are the commonest stress patterns in compounds.

4. Graphically as a rule compounds are marked by two types of spelling — solid spelling and hyphenated spelling. Some types of compound words are characterised by fluctuations between hyphenated spelling and spelling with a space between the components.

5. Derivational patterns in compound words may be mono- and polysemantic, in which case they are based on different semantic relations between the components.

6. The meaning of compound words is derived from the combined lexical meanings of the components and the meaning of the derivational pattern.

7. Compound words may be described from different points of view:

a) According to the degree of semantic independence of components compounds are classified into coordinative and subordinative. The bulk of present-day English compounds are subordinative.

b) According to different parts of speech. Composition is typical in Modern English mostly of nouns and adjectives.

c) According to the means by which components are joined together they are classified into compounds formed with the help of a linking element and without. As to the order of ICs it may be asyntactic and syntactic.

d) According to the type of bases compounds are classified into compounds proper and derivational compounds.

e) According to the structural semantic correlation with free phrases compounds are subdivided into adjectival-nominal compound adjectives, verbal-nominal, verb-adverb and nominal compound nouns.

8. Structural and semantic correlation is understood as a regular interdependence between compound words and variable phrases. A potential possibility of certain types of phrases presupposes a possibility of compound words conditioning their structure and semantic type.

LECTURE 13 Borrowings.

Borrowing as a means of replenishing the vocabulary of present-day English is of much lesser importance and is active mainly in the field of scientific terminology. It should be noted that many terms are often made up of borrowed morphemes, mostly morphemes from classical languages.²

1) The present-day English vocabulary, especially its terminological layers, is constantly enriched by words made up of morphemes of Latin.

But though these words consist of borrowed morphemes they cannot be regarded as true borrowings because these words did not exist either in the Greek or in the Latin word-stock. All of them are actually formed according to patterns of English word-formation, and many function in Modern English as new affixes and semi-affixes.¹ Words with some of them can be found in the vocabulary of various languages and reflect as a rule the general progress in science and technology.

It is noteworthy that a number of new affixes appeared in Modern English through different types of borrowing. This can be exemplified by the Russian suffix **-nik** which came within the words **sputnik**, **lunnik** and acquired the meaning of 'one who is connected with something', but which under the influence of **beatnik**² acquired a derogatory flavour and is now a slang suffix. It is used to denote 'person who rejects standard social values and becomes a devotee of some fact or idea', e.g. **FOLK-NIK**, **protestnik**, **filmmik**, etc. The

prefix **mini-** is now currently used with two meanings: a) 'of very small size', e.g. **minicomputer, minicar, mini war, ministate**, and b) 'very short', as in **minidress, minicoat, miniskirt**, etc.; the prefix **maxi-** was borrowed on the analogy of **mini-** also in two meanings: a) 'very large', e.g. **maxi-order, maxi-taxi**, and b) 'long, reaching down to the ankle', e.g. **maxicoat, maxi-dress, maxilength**. The suffix **-naut** is found in, e.g., **astronaut, aquanaut, lunarnaut**, etc.

Numerous borrowed root-morphemes remain bound in the vocabulary of Modern English but acquire a considerable derivative force and function as components of a specific group of compounds productive mainly in specialised spheres, e.g. **acoust(o)** — **acousto-optic, acousto-electronics; ge(o)-**, e.g. **geowarfare, geoscientist, multi-** e.g. **multi-cultural, multi-directional, multispectral, etc.; cosm(o)-**, e.g. **cosmodrome, cosmonautics, cosmonaut**, etc.

2) There are true borrowings from different languages as well. They, as a rule, reflect the way of life, the peculiarities of development of the speech communities from which they come. From the Russian language there came words like **kolkhoz, Gosplan, Komsomol, udarnik, sputnik, jak**, etc.

The words borrowed from the German language at the time of war reflect the aggressive nature of German fascism, e.g. **Blitzkrieg**³, **Wehrmacht**⁴, **Luftwaffe**⁵

LECTURE 14

ENGLISH LEXICOGRAPHY. MAIN TYPES OF ENGLISH DICTIONARIES.

Plan for the lecture

1. The volume of dictionary and its use.
2. Changeableness of vocabulary system and the influence of extra-linguistic causes in the development of a language.
3. The causes of changeableness of the vocabulary system, owing to linguistic laws. (2 hours).
4. Problems of classification of vocabulary system of the English language, as a definite system of lexical units.
5. Problems of linguistic criteria of distinguishing lexico-semantic groups.
6. The stylistic differentiation of the vocabulary system of Modern English.

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

Synonyms are words belonging to the same part of speech different in morphemic composition and phonemic shape but identical or similar in

meaning and interchangeable at least in some contexts. *Ex.* jump, hop, leap, spring, defend, protect, guard shield; absence, privation, lack, want; error, mistake; go, leave, depart. Complete synonyms do not exist. Bloomfield says each linguistic form has a constant and 1 specific meaning.

Polysemantic words can not be synonymous in all their meanings. *Ex.* The verb «look» is a synonym of see, watch, observe, in the meaning of «cMOTperb» but in another of its meaning it is synonymous with the verbs seem, appear (to look pale).

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

Synonyms may be divided into:

1) ideographic synonyms; 2) stylistic synonyms. Synonyms which differ in their denotational meanings are called ideographic synonyms. If the difference lies in their stylistic difference the synonyms are said to be stylistic. *Ex.* beautiful (usually about girls) and handsome (usually about men). These are ideographic synonyms but «to die — to pass away», «to begin — to commence», «to see — to behold», «to end — to complete», «horse — steed» are stylistic synonyms.

neutral words

to see
a girl
money
food
to live

stylistically coloured words

to behold (bookish)
a maiden (poetic)
dough (colloquial)
grub (colloquial)
to hand out (colloquial)

Prof. Aznaurova E. S. ¹points out that stylistic synonyms carry emotional evaluative information.

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

possible

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

impossible

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

The main sources of synonyms are:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Antonyms may be divided into: 1) root antonyms: *ex.* good — bad, beautiful — ugly, kind — cruel, old — young.

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

— a new book, an old man—a young man, a thin man—a fat man, a thin book — a thick book.

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

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

Polysemantic words may have antonyms in some of their meanings and none in the others. *Ex.* when the word «criticism» means «blame» its antonym is «praise», it has no antonym.¹

The majority of linguists nowadays agree that the vocabulary should be studied as a system. We must study interrelated systems. For different purposes of study different types of grouping of words may be effective. Words joined together by one common semantic component form **semantic fields**. *Ex.* the semantic field of time.

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

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

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

Neologism is any word which is formed according to the productive structural patterns or borrowed from another language and felt by the speakers as something new. So neologisms are newly coined words or phrase or a new meaning for an existing word or a word borrowed from another language. As a result of the development of science and industry many new words are appeared in the language. *Ex.* isotope, tape-recorder, supermarket, V-day (Victory day). The research of cosmic space by the scientists gave birth to new words: sputnik, lunik, space-rocket, space-ship. Neologisms are mainly formed by; 1) wordformation (mainly productive type).

Ex. -gen, -ogen: **carinogen** (biological term)

-ics: **psycholinguistics, electronics sputnik—to sputnik** (conversion)

—nik: filmnik, folknik.

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

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

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

The disappearance of words may be caused as a result of influence of borrowings.

Ex. the Scandinavian «take» and «die» ousted O. E. ni-man and sweldan.

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

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

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

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

Speech also expresses the speakers attitude to what he is talking about. The speaker may wish to warn, to influence people, to express his approval or disapproval. Words expressing emotion are called **emotionally coloured**

words. Demi-nutive and derogatory affixes play an important role in forming emotionally coloured words.

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

In Uzbek: дадажон, сингилгинам, =изало=, бытало=, Interjections also express emotion without naming them:

Ahl, Hush!, Hell!, Nonsense!, Pooh;

In Uzbek: вой айланай, эш.

The derogatory suffixes may form emotionally coloured words.

Ex. **bastard** — внебрачный weakling-слабое
существо

ребенок hibster-хиппи

drunkard — пьяница

dullard—тупица

In Uzbek: оймича, оймтилла, ўргилибгина кетай

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

Ex. also-run—ну и скакун, непосредственность

never-say-die — несдающиеся, неприклонный,

stick-in-the mud—отсталый человек, растяпа

die-hard — крайний консерватор, живучий

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

a bare — скучный человек

a washout — пропавший человек

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

Ex. even, ever, all, so, awfully, tremendously, wonderfully, terribly.

awfully glad, terribly important . . .

The Uzbek words: ош, фи\он, аф\он, фарёд are used as the intensifiers.

Neologisms may be divided into:

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

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

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

Neologisms are mainly formed by: 1) wordformation (mainly productive type).

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

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

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

The disappearance of words may be caused as a result of influence of borrowings.

Ex. the Scandinavian «take» and «die» ousted O. E. *ni-man* and *sweldan*.

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

Ex. *steed* (horse), *slay* (kill), *welkin* (sky)

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

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

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

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

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

The Uzbek words: ; *оҳ*, *фифон*, *аффон*, *фарёд* are used as the intensifiers.

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

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

cattwitted — мелочный, *dirty dog* — грязный подлец,

colt — a young male horse used for a young unexperienced person, *pur* — щенок, They have negative evaluation. But in English we have words which have positive evaluation, ex. *bunny* — кролик, *bunting* — птичка (ласк). In the English language we can find a lot of vulgar words which are used in emotional speech: ex. *Damn!* *Alas!*

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

He is a bull (it has a positive evaluation) She is a bull (it has a negative evaluation)

In Uzbek: «чехра» has positive evaluation but «башара» has negative;

On different occasions and situations the speaker uses different words, chooses different words in different spheres of communication. There are some words which are used in lecture, in a poem or when speaking to a child, an official person etc. They are very highly frequent words. These words are called stylistically neutral words.

Ex. evening, man, girl, table, horse, read, write, speak, beautiful, nice etc.

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

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

«Horse» is stylistically neutral and may be used in any situation. «Steed» belongs to poetic vocabulary. It has a lofty meaning. «Gee-gee» — is a nursery word neutral in a child's speech. And it is not used in adult conversation. So stylistically coloured words are suitable only on certain definite occasions in specific conditions of communication.

Each stylistically coloured word has a neutral synonym:

Ex. steed — horse, ire — anger, sustain— suffer, obtain— get, accomodation — room, woe — sorrow, fair—beautiful, slay— kill.

Among the stylistically — coloured words we can find:

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

Ex. The word «money» has the following slang words as: beans, brass, dibs, dough, chink, oof, wads. Each stylistically coloured word has a neutral synonym:

Ex. steed—horse, ire—anger, sustain— suffer, obtain— get, accomodation — room, woe — sorrow, fair — beautiful, slay—kill.

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

KEY WORDS :

Synonyms and their types

The main sources of synonyms

Antonyms The classification of antonyms
The interchangeability of antonyms
Neologism and its types
The formation of neologism
The difference between neologism and obsolete words
Archaisms
Emotionally coloured words
The difference between stylistically marked words and stylistically neutral words

ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS

1. What is understood by the term «synonym»? 2. Are there complete synonyms in English? 3. Can polysemantic words have the same synonyms in all their meanings? 4. What is the dominant of a synonymic group? 5. What is the difference between ideographic synonyms and stylistic ones? 6. Do the synonyms occur in the same surroundings? 7. What is the collocability of synonyms? 8. What are the main sources of synonyms? 9. What is understood by the term «antonyms»? 10. What is the classification of antonyms? 11. What is the interchangeability of antonyms in contexts? 12. What are the semantic fields? 13. What is the difference between neologisms and obsolete words? 14. What words are called emotionally coloured words? 15. What is the difference between stylistically marked words and stylistically neutral words?

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L E C T U R E 15

Some Basic Problems of Dictionary-Compiling

Plan for the lecture

1. The origin of the lexicography
2. The connection of lexicography with the problems of lexicology

3. Synchronic and diachronic approaches to the study of lexicography
4. Different types of lexicography
5. Other types of specialized dictionaries
6. Difference between Lingual and bilingual dictionaries
7. The definition of the meaning of words in dictionaries
8. The most important problem of lexicographer

Lexicography is a science of dictionary-compiling. Modern English lexicography appeared in the 15th century. In this period English-Latin dictionaries were in existence. The first dictionary of the English language was published in 1755 by Samuel Johnson, in which he gave the origin of words and examples from the works of the best writers.

Another major milestone is the New English Dictionary of Oxford English Dictionary. It was written from 1888 up to 1928. It covers the vocabulary of English with a full historical evidence. It gives the full history of words. It has 13 volumes and a supplement containing neologisms (new words).

The first important dictionary in American lexicography is Webster's American Dictionary of the English language. It was published in 1828 in two volumes.

Lexicography depends on its development in the solution of some general problems of lexicology. So, lexicography is closely connected with the problems of lexicology. The compilers approach to lexicological problems differently. For example, there is no clear border-line between homonymy and polysemy in different dictionaries. Thus in some dictionaries words such as fly — *namia* (*Myxa*), (a two winged insect) and fly — *пашма* (*myxa*), (a flap of cloth covering the buttons on a garment) are treated as two different words and in others (*Ex.* the Concise Oxford Dictionary and the Advanced Learners Dictionary of Current English) — as different meanings of one and the same word.

There are encyclopaedic and linguistic dictionaries. An Encyclopaedic dictionary gives the information of extralinguistic world. It gives the information about the important events, animals, and all branches of knowledge. They deal not with words, but with facts and concepts.

There are two main types of dictionaries: general dictionaries and special dictionaries. General dictionaries are divided into explanatory dictionaries and parallel or translation dictionaries (bilingual and multilingual).

The best known explanatory dictionaries are: «The Shorter Oxford Dictionary* in two volumes, based on the NED, the COD (one volume). Chamber's 20th Century Dictionary (one volume), WNID, New Comprehensive Standard Dictionary, the New Random House Dictionary, Webster's Collegiate Dictionary etc.

Most of these dictionaries present the spelling, usage, pronunciation and meaning of words, grammatical information, origin of words, derivatives,

phraseology, etymology, synonyms and antonyms. Pronunciation is shown either by means of the International phonetic transcription or in British phonetic notation which is somewhat different in each of the larger reference books. *Ex.* [o:] is given as oh, aw, 6, or, etc.

Translation dictionaries or parallel are word-books containing vocabulary items in one language and their equivalents in another language.

Ex. Russian-English Dictionary under the edition of prof, A. I. Smirnitsky. The English-Russian dictionary by Miller, New English-Russian Dictionary by I. R. Galperin. The Pocket English-Russian Dictionary, by BenroK, HepnioK. English-Uzbek dictionary by J. Buranov and K- R. Rahmanber-diev etc.

The translation dictionaries are based on the comparative study of the languages. Among the general dictionaries we find Learner's Dictionary which is compiled for foreign language learners at different stages of advancement.

Ex. The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English by Hornby, Gatenby, Wakefield: It is a one-language (monolingual) dictionary compiled on the basis of COD. It differs from other dictionaries because it gives the information about the lexical or grammatical valency of words.

The Learner's English-Russian Dictionary by Folomkina, Weiser contains approximately 3.500 words.

Specialized dictionaries give us the information of one or two particular peculiarities of words (*ex.* synonyms, collocability, frequency, etymology, pronunciation, phraseological units etc). The best known dictionary of synonyms is Dictionary of English Synonyms Expressions by Soule and Webster's Dictionary of synonyms.

The best and most comprehensive collection of English phraseology is A. V. Koonin's English phraseological Dictionary (in two volumes). The Oxford Dictionary of English Proverbs, Collin's Book of English Idioms.

There are other types of specialized dictionaries. Dictionaries of collocations. A Reum's Dictionary of English Style, Dictionaries of word Frequency (Dictionary of frequency Value of Combinability of words. Moscow 1976). The Teacher's Book of 30.000 words by E. S. Thorndike and Lorge. Michail West. A General Service List of English Words. Etymological dictionaries; *Ex.* W. Skeat's Etymological Dictionary of the English Language. Pronouncing dictionaries: English Pronouncing Dictionary by D. Jones etc.

The most important problems the lexicographer comes across in compiling dictionaries are the selection of words, the selection, arrangement and definition of meanings, and the illustrative examples to be supplied.

Dictionaries can't possibly register all occasional words. It is impossible to present all occurring technical terms because they are too numerous (*ex.* there are more than 400.000 chemical terminology in English). Therefore selection is made according to the aim of the dictionary.

The choice of correct equivalents depends on the type of the dictionary, and on the aim of the compilers.

Different types of dictionaries differ in their aim, in the information they provide and in their size. They differ in the structure and content of the entry.

The most complicated type of entry is found in explanatory dictionaries. The entry of an explanatory dictionary of the synchronic type usually presents the following data: accepted spelling, pronunciation, grammatical characteristics, the indication of the part of speech, definition of meanings, modern currency, illustrative examples, derivatives, phraseological units, etymology, synonyms, antonyms etc. The entry of translation dictionaries presents the meanings of words with the help of other languages.

Selection and the arrangement of meanings of words in different dictionaries are different. They depend on the aim of the compilers. Diachronic dictionaries list more meanings than synchronic dictionaries of current English as they give not only the meanings in present-day use but also those which have already become archaic or gone out of use. *Ex.* SOD gives 8 meanings of the verb «arrive» while. COD lists only five. The meanings of words in dictionaries may be defined by means of phrases, synonymous words and expressions. Frequency dictionaries, spelling books, etymological, ideographic and other dictionaries may have illustrative examples..

The structure of the dictionary consists of an Introduction and Guide to the use of the dictionary. It • explains all the peculiarities of the dictionary and also gives a key to pronunciation, the list of abbreviations. Dictionaries have some supplementary material. It may include addenda and various word-lists: geographical names, foreign words, tables of weights and measures.

The shortening of words means substituting a part for a whole, part of the word is taken away and used for the whole. *Ex.* **demo** (demonstration), **dub** (double), **vac** (vacuum cleaner), **doc** (doctor), **fig** (figure), **Mrs** (missis).

Key words

- 1.The origin of the lexicography
- 2.The connection of lexicography with the problems of lexicology
- 3.Synchronic and diachronic approaches to the study of lexicography
- 4.Different types of lexicography
- 5.Other types of specialized dictionaries
- 6.Difference between Lingual and bilingual dictionaries
7. The definition of the meaning of words in dictionaries
8. The most important problem of lexicographer

Answer the questions

- 1.What is the task of lexicography?
- 2.What kind of types of dictionaries do you know?
3. What kind of types of dictionaries presents spelling of the words?
4. What kind of types of dictionaries presents Etymology of the words?
- 5.What kind of types of dictionaries presents

Pronunciation of the words? 6. What kind of types of dictionaries presents meaning of words? 7. What kind of types of dictionaries presents grammatical information? 8. What kind of dictionary is translation dictionary?

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LECTURE 17 Local Varieties in the British Isles, Canada and the USA

On the British Isles there are some local varieties of English which developed from Old English local dialects. There are six groups of them: Lowland /Scottish/, Northern, Western, Midland, Eastern, Southern. These varieties are used in oral speech by the local population. Only the Scottish dialect has its own literature /R. Berns/.

One of the best known dialects of British English is the dialect of London - Cockney. Some peculiarities of this dialect can be seen in the first act of «Pigmalion» by B. Shaw, such as : interchange of /v/ and /w/ e.g. wery vell; interchange of /f/ and /θ/ , /v/ and /θ/ , e. g. / fing /thing/ and fa:ve / father/; interchange of /h/ and /-/ , e.g. «'eart» for «heart» and «hart» for «art; substituting the diphthong /ai/ by /ei/ e.g. «day» is pronounced /dai/; substituting /au/ by /a:/ , e.g. «house» is pronounced /ha:s/, «now» /na:/ ; substituting /ou/ by /o:/ e.g. «don't» is pronounced /do:nt/ or substituting it by / / in unstressed positions, e.g. «window» is pronounced /wind /.

Another feature of Cockney is rhyming slang: «hat» is «tit for tat», «wife» is «trouble and strife», «head» is «loaf of bread» etc. There are also such words as «tanner» /sixpence/, «peckish»/hungry/.

Peter Wain in the «Education Guardian» writes about accents spoken by University teachers: «It is a variety of Southern English RP which is different from Daniel Jones's description. The English, public school leavers speak, is called «marked RP», it has some characteristic features : the vowels are more central than in English taught abroad, e.g. «bleck het»/for «black hat»/, some diphthongs are

also different, e.g. «house» is pronounced /hais/. There is less aspiration in /p/, /b/, /t/ /d/.

The American English is practically uniform all over the country, because of the constant transfer of people from one part of the country to the other. However, some peculiarities in New York dialect can be pointed out, such as: there is no distinction between / / and /a: / in words: «ask», «dance» «sand» «bad», both phonemes are possible. The combination «ir» in the words: «bird», «girl» «ear» in the word «learn» is pronounced as /oi/ e.g. /boid/, /goil/, /loin/. In the words «duty», «tune» /j/ is not pronounced /du:ti/, /tu:n/.

BRITISH AND AMERICAN ENGLISH

British and American English are two main variants of English. Besides them there are : Canadian, Australian, Indian, New Zealand and other variants. They have some peculiarities in pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary, but they are easily used for communication between people living in these countries. As far as the American English is concerned, some scientists /H.N. Menken, for example/ tried to prove that there is a separate American language. In 1919 H.N. Menken published a book called «The American Language». But most scientists, American ones including, criticized his point of view because differences between the two variants are not systematic.

American English begins its history at the beginning of the 17-th century when first English-speaking settlers began to settle on the Atlantic coast of the American continent. The language which they brought from England was the language spoken in England during the reign of Elizabeth the First.

In the earliest period the task of Englishmen was to find names for places, animals, plants, customs which they came across on the American continent. They took some of names from languages spoken by the local population - Indians, such as :»chipmuck»/an American squirrel/, «igloo» /Escimo dome-shaped hut/, «skunk» / a black and white striped animal with a bushy tail/, «squaw» / an Indian woman/, »wigwam» /an American Indian tent made of skins and bark/ etc.

Besides Englishmen, settlers from other countries came to America, and English-speaking settlers mixed with them and borrowed some words from their languages, e.g. from French the words «bureau»/a writing desk/, «cache» /a hiding place for treasure, provision/, «depot»/ a store-house/, «pumpkin»/a plant bearing large edible fruit/. From Spanish such words as: »adobe» / unburnt sun-dried brick/, »bananza» /prosperity/, «cockroach» /a beetle-like insect/, «lasso» / a noosed rope for catching cattle/ were borrowed.

Present-day New York stems from the Dutch colony New Amsterdam, and Dutch also influenced English. Such words as: «boss», «dope», «sleigh» were borrowed .

The second period of American English history begins in the 19-th century. Immigrants continued to come from Europe to America. When large groups of immigrants from the same country came to America some of their words were borrowed into English. Italians brought with them a style of cooking which became widely spread and such words as: «pizza», «spaghetti» came into English. From the great number of German-speaking settlers the following words were

borrowed into English: «delicatessen», «lager», «hamburger», «noodle», «schnitzel» and many others.

During the second period of American English history there appeared quite a number of words and word-groups which were formed in the language due to the new political system, liberation of America from the British colonialism, its independence. The following lexical units appeared due to these events: the United States of America, assembly, caucus, congress, Senate, congressman, President, senator, precinct, Vice-President and many others. Besides these political terms many other words were coined in American English in the 19-th century: to antagonize, to demoralize, influential, department store, telegram, telephone and many others.

There are some differences between British and American English in the usage of prepositions, such as prepositions with dates, days of the week BE requires «on» / I start my holiday on Friday/, in American English there is no preposition / I start my vacation Friday/. In BE we use «by day», «by night»/«at night», in AE the corresponding forms are «days» and «nights». In BE we say «at home», in AE - «home» is used. In BE we say «a quarter to five», in AE «a quarter of five». In BE we say «in the street», in AE - «on the street». In BE we say «to chat to somebody», in AE «to chat with somebody». In BE we say «different to something», in AE - «different from something».

There are also units of vocabulary which are different while denoting the same notions, e.g. BE - «trousers», AE -«pants»; in BE «pants» are «трусы» which in AE is «shorts». While in BE «shorts» are underwear. This can lead to misunderstanding. There are some differences in names of places:

BE	AE	BE	AE
passage	hall	cross-roads	intersection
pillar box	mail-box	the cinema	the movies
studio, bed-sitter		one-room	apartment
flyover	overpass	zebra crossing	Pxing
pavement	sidewalk	tube, uderground	subway
tram	streetcar	flat	apartment
surgery	doctor's office	lift	elevator

Some names of useful objects:

BE	AE	BE	AE
biro	ballpoint	rubber	eraser
tap	faucet	torch	flashlight
parcel	package	elastic	rubber band
carrier bag	shopping bag	reel of cotton	spool of thread

Some words connected with food:

BE	AE	BE	AE
tin	can	sweets	candy
sweet biscuit	cookie	dry biscuit	crackers
sweet	dessert	chips	french fries

minced meat ground beef

Some words denoting personal items:

BE	AE	BE	AE
fringe	bangs/of hair/	turn-ups	cuffs
tights	pantyhose	mackintosh	raincoat
ladder	run/in a stocking/	braces	suspenders
poloneck	turtleneck	waistcoat	vest

Some words denoting people:

BE	AE	BE	AE
barrister,	lawyer,	staff /university/	faculty
post-graduate	graduate	chap, fellow	guy
caretaker	janitor	constable	patrolman
shopassistant	shopper	bobby	cop

If we speak about cars there are also some differences:

BE	AE	BE	AE
boot	trunk	bumpers	fenders
a car,	an auto,	to hire a car	to rent a car

Differences in the organization of education lead to different terms. BE «public school» is in fact a private school. It is a fee-paying school not controlled by the local education authorities. AE «public school» is a free local authority school. BE «elementary school» is AE «grade school» BE «secondary school» is AE «high school». In BE «a pupil leaves a secondary school», in AE «a student graduates from a high school» In BE you can graduate from a university or college of education, graduating entails getting a degree.

A British university student takes three years known as the first, the second and the third years. An American student takes four years, known as freshman, sophomore, junior and senior years. While studying a British student takes a main and subsidiary subjects. An American student majors in a subject and also takes electives. A British student specializes in one main subject, with one subsidiary to get his honours degree. An American student earns credits for successfully completing a number of courses in studies, and has to reach the total of 36 credits to receive a degree.

Differences of spelling.

The reform in the English spelling for American English was introduced by the famous American lexicographer Noah Webster who published his first dictionary in 1806. Those of his proposals which were adopted in the English spelling are as follows:

- a) the deletion of the letter «u» in words ending in «our», e.g. honor, favor;
- b) the deletion of the second consonant in words with double consonants, e.g. traveler, wagon,
- c) the replacement of «re» by «er» in words of French origin, e.g. theater, center,

- d) the deletion of unpronounced endings in words of Romanic origin, e.g. catalog, program,
 e) the replacement of «ce» by «se» in words of Romanic origin, e.g. defense, offense,
 d) deletion of unpronounced endings in native words, e.g. tho, thro.

Differences in pronunciation

In American English we have r-coloured fully articulated vowels, in the combinations: ar, er, ir, or, ur, our etc. In BE the sound / / corresponds to the AE /[^]/, e.g. «not». In BE before fricatives and combinations with fricatives «a» is pronounced as /a:/, in AE it is pronounced / / e.g. class, dance, answer, fast etc.

There are some differences in the position of the stress:

BE	AE	BE	AE
add`ress	adress	la`boratory	`laboratory
re`cess	`recess	re`search	`research
in`quiry	`inquiry	ex`cess	`excess

Some words in BE and AE have different pronunciation, e.g.

BE	AE	BE	AE
/ [^] fju:tail/	/ [^] fju:t l/	/ [^] dousail /	/dos l/
/kla:k/	/kl rk/	/ [^] fig /	/figyer/
/`le3 /	/li:3 r/	/lef ten nt/	/lu:tenant/
/nai /	/ni: r/	/shedju:l/	/skedyu:l/

But these differences in pronunciation do not prevent Englishmen and American from communicating with each other easily and cannot serve as a proof that British and American are different languages.

Words can be classified according to the period of their life in the language. The number of new words in a language is always larger than the number of words which come out of active usage. Accordingly we can have archaisms, that is words which have come out of active usage, and neologisms, that is words which have recently appeared in the language.

ARCHAISMS

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

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

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

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

NEOLOGISMS

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

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

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

Here we can point out several semantic groups when we analyze the group of neologisms connected with computerization, and here we can mention words used:

a) to denote different types of computers, e.g. PC, super-computer, multi-user, neurocomputer / analogue of a human brain/;

b) to denote parts of computers, e.g. hardware, software, monitor, screen, data, vapourware / experimental samples of computers for exhibition, not for production/;

c) to denote computer languages, e.g. BASIC, Algol FORTRAN etc;

d) to denote notions connected with work on computers, e.g. computerman, computerization, computerize, to troubleshoot, to blitz out / to ruin data in a computer's memory/.

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

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

In the sphere of biometrics we have computerized machines which can recognize characteristic features of people seeking entrance : finger-print scanner / finger prints/, biometric eye-scanner / blood-vessel arrangements in eyes/, voice

verification /voice patterns/. These are types of biometric locks. Here we can also mention computerized cards with the help of which we can open the door without a key.

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

With the development of social activities neologisms appeared as well, e.g. youthquake - волнения среди молодежи, pussy-footers - политики, идущий на компромиссы, Euromarket, Eurodollar, European Parliament, Europol etc.

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

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

During Margaret Thatcher's rule the abbreviation PLU appeared which means «People like us» by which snobbistic circles of society call themselves. Nowadays /since 1989/ PLU was substituted by «one of us».

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

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

In connection with criminalization of towns in UK voluntary groups of assisting the police were formed where dwellers of the neighbourhood are joined. These groups are called «neighbourhood watch», «home watch». Criminals wear «stocking masks» not to be recognized.

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

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

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

There are different semantic groups of neologisms belonging to everyday life:

a) food e.g. «starter»/ instead of «hors d'oeuvres»/, macrobiotics / raw vegetables, crude rice/ , longlife milk, clingfilm, microwave stove, consumer electronics, fridge-freezer, hamburgers /beef-, cheese-, fish-, veg- /.

b) clothing, e.g. catsuit /one-piece clinging suit/, slimster , string / miniscule bikini/, hipster / trousers or skirt with the belt on hips/, completelik / a long sweater for trousers/, sweatnik /a long jacket/, pants-skirt, bloomers / lady's sports trousers/.

c) footwear e.g. winklepickers /shoes with long pointed toes/, thongs /open sandals/, backsters /beech sandals with thick soles/.

d) bags, e.g. bumbag /a small bag worn on the waist/, sling bag /a bag with a long belt/, maitre / a small bag for cosmetics/.

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

Neologisms can be also classified according to the ways they are formed. They are subdivided into : phonological neologisms, borrowings, semantic neologisms and syntactical neologisms. Syntactical neologisms are divided into morphological /word-building/ and phraseological /forming word-groups/.

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

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

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

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

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

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

There are many neologisms formed by means of affixation, such as: decompress, to disimprove, overhoused, educationalist, slimster, folknik etc. Phraseological neologisms can be subdivided into phraseological units with transferred meanings, e.g. to buy into/ to become involved/, fudge and dudge /avoidance of definite decisions/, and set non-idiomatic expressions, e.g. electronic virus, Rubic's cube, retail park, acid rain , boot trade etc.

LECTURE 18 MAJOR AND MINOR TYPES OF WORD CLASSES. SPEECH PARTS.

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

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**).

The adverb is a word denoting circumstances or characteristics which attend or modify an action, state or quality. It may also intensify a quality or characteristics.

The adverb is usually defined as a word expressing either property of an action, or property of another property, or circumstances in which an action occurs.

Adverb is a notional word expressing a non-substantive property, that is, a property of a non-substantive referent.

Adverbs modify verbs. They tell you *How* something is done (She *sings* beautifully).

Adverbs can also modify adjectives (Tara is really *beautiful*),

Or even other adverbs (It works very *well*).

There are adverbs connected with numerals, they denote measure or frequency (once, twice, thrice, three times, etc.).

Adverbs modify a whole sentence (Obviously, *I can't know everything*).

Adverbs modify a prepositional phrase (It's immediately *inside the door*).

Morphological composition of adverbs

Simple adverbs are: *here, after, well, now, soon, etc.*

In derived adverbs the most common suffix is -ly (*occasionally, lately, slowly, etc.*). The less common suffixes are: -wise (*clockwise, crabwise*), -ward(s) (*onwards, backwards*), -fold (*twofold, manifold*), -like (*warlike*), -most (*innermost, outermost*), -way(s) (*sideways*).

Compound adverbs are formed from two stems: *sometimes, everywhere, downstairs, etc.*

Composite phrasal adverbs consist of two or more word-forms, as: *a great deal, a little bit, from time to time, etc.*

Adverbs have three main positions in the sentence:

Front (before the subject):

- Now we will study adverbs.

Middle (between the subject and the main verb):

- We often study adverbs.

End (after the verb or object):

- We study adverbs carefully.

The adverbs *enough* and *not enough* usually take a post modifier position:

- Is that music loud enough?

- These shoes are not big enough.

- Notice, though, that when *enough* functions as an adjective, it can come before the noun:

- Did she give us enough time?

- The adverb *enough* is often followed by an infinitive:

- She didn't run fast enough to win.

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