MINISTRY OF HIGHER AND SECONDARY SPECIALIZED EDUCATION OF REPUBLIC OF UZBEKISTAN

NUKUS STATE PEDAGOGICAL INSTITUTE NAMED AFTER AJINIYAZ

FACULTY OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH AND LITERATURE

THEORETICAL GRAMMAR OF ENGLISH
COURSE 3

EDUCATIONAL-METHODICAL COMPLEX P3AEBA P

NUKUS 2019

LECTURE 1
Theme: GENERAL NOTES ON THE MAIN SUBJECT OF LEXICOLOGY AS A SCIENCE ,ITS AIMS AND TASKS.
The plan
1.The subject-matter of Lexicology.

2.Types of Lexicology and its links with other branches of Linguistics.

3.The relationship between words. Diachronic and synchronic approaches to the study of the vocabulary of the language.

- 4.Methods of linguistic research used in Lexicology. Subdivision of Lexicology

- **Problems:** to study the subject-matter of Lexicology, its links with other branches of Linguistics, characterize the diachronic and synchronic approaches to the study of the vocabulary of the language.

- **Glossary:** vocabulary, basic task, the origin of words, the smallest unit, branch of linguistics, descriptive, diachronic, synchronic, approach, lexical meaning, semantic structure, historical development, change, relationship, linguistic research, phenomenon, external, internal, constituent, semantic, unity, morpheme, structural feature,, peculiarities, definition of the word.

- **1.1. The subject-matter of Lexicology.** The term " Lexicology" is of Greek origin, from " lexis"- word and " logos" – learning, science. Lexicology is the part of Linguistics which deals with the vocabulary and characteristic features of words and word groups. The term " vocabulary" is used to denote the system of words and word groups that the language possesses. Lexicology is a branch of Linguistics which studies the vocabulary of the language.[1] It has its own aims and methods of scientific research. Its basic task is a study and systematic description of the vocabulary in respect to its origin, development and current use. Lexicology can study the development of the vocabulary, the origin of words and word-groups[2], their semantic relations and the development of their semantic structure, change of meaning. Lexicology is concerned with words, variable word-groups, phraseological units and morphemes which make up words[3].

1.2.Types of Lexicology and its links with other branches of Linguistics.

- There are five types of lexicology: general, special, descriptive, historical and 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 called language universals.

- *Special lexicology* deals with the words of a definite language. For example, English lexicology[4], Russian lexicology[5], Uzbek lexicology[6], Karakalpak lexicology[7] 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. For example, in descriptive lexicology the words " to take", " tp adopt" are considered as being English not differing from such native words as " child", "foot", "stone", etc. But in historical lexicology they are treated as borrowed words.

- *Comparative lexicology* deals with the properties of the vocabulary of two or more languages. In comparative lexicology the main characteristic features of the words of two or more languages are compared. For example: Russian-English lexicology, English-French lexicology, English-Uzbek, English-Karakalpak lexicology.

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

- Lexicology is linked with phonetics because the order and the arrangement of phonemes are related to its meaning. For example, the words *tip* and *pit* cosist 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 interchangeably because they have different stylistic references.

1.3. The relationship between words. Diachronic and synchronic approaches to the study of the vocabulary of the language.

- 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. For example: to take tea – пить чай, чой ичмоқ, to take tram – ехать на трамвае, трамвайда юрмоқ.

- *The paradigmatic relationship* is the relations between words within the vocabulary: polysemy, synonymy, antonymy of words.

- 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 the vocabulary in the course of time. For example, synchronically, the words *help, accept, work, produce* are all English words. But diachronically they came from different languages. Such words as *childhood, kingdom, friendship, freedom* were at one time compound words because the suffixes –*dom, -hood,-ship* were independent words but synchronically they are derived words because *dom*, *hood* and *ship* became suffixes. Diachronic research gives a valuable result for the development of synchronic investigation.

- **1.4. Methods of linguistic research used in Lexicology. Subdivision of Lexicology**

- In the XIX-th century and at the beginning of the XX-th century lexicology was mainly based on historical principles. At the present time the cognitive and conceptual analysis of the vocabulary are developing. The following methods of linguistic research are widely used by lexicologists: distributional, transformational, analysis into immediate constituents, statistical, componential, comparative, etc. The choice of the method in each case depends on what method will yield the most reliable results in each particular case. Lexicology has some subdivisions such as:

1. *Semasiology* (deals with the meaning of the word);
2. *Wordformation* (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 Russian, Uzbek or Karakalpak. For example, let's compare the meanings of the word *hand* and its corresponding word *қул* :

Қул

1. одамнинг бармоқ учларидан улкагача булган қисми аъзоси (рука);
2. ҳайвонларнинг олдинги оёқлари (лапа);
3. бармоқ (палец);
4. ҳар кимнинг ёзув усули (почерк);
5. имзо (подпись);
6. иш усули (приём работы);
7. ихтиёр, изм (воля);
8. имконият (условия).

Hand

1) кул (рука); 2) ҳайвонларнинг олдинги оёқлари (лапа); 3) тараф (сторона положения); 4) бошқариш (контрольб власть); 5) розилик, вада (согласие, обещание); 6) ёрдам (помощь); 7) бир уйинчи кулидаги карта (карты, находящиеся на руках у одного игрока); 8) ишчи (рабочий); 9)

денгизчи (матрос); 10) бажарувчи шахс (исполнитель, автор); 11) бир туда одам (компания, группа); 12) уста (мастер); 13) эпчиллик (ловкость); 14) ёзув, хат (почерк); 15) карсаклар (аплодисменты); 16) манба (источник); 17) соат стрелкаси (стрелка); 18) курсаткич (указатель); 19) қанот (крыло); 20) боғлам, даста (пучок); 21) кафт (ладонь); 22) сон гушти (окорок); 23) жилов (повод).

- The correlated words *hand* and *қул* may be the components of different phraseological units:
- **Hand**   **Қул**
- The hand of god- худо рози (божья воля)   қули ишга бормайди -
-   (рука не поднимается)
- At the hand –ёнида, яқинида (близко, рядом)   қулни қулга бериб (рука об руку)
- To live from hand to mouth – зурга кун курмоқ   қулинга ерк берма (рукам воли не
-   давай
- (едва сводить концы с концами)   қулидан келмайди (руки короткие)
- At any hand- ҳар эхтимолга қарши
- (во всяком случае)   қули тегмайди (руки не доходят)
- To have clean hands)- ҳақиқатгуй булмоқ
- (быть честным)

- Besides that the correlated words in English and Uzbek may coin different derivatives. For example, **hand** (handful, handless, handy,handily, handiness, hand$_v$), **қул** (қул, қулла, қулсиз, қулли). The verb *to take* does not coincide in the number of meanings with its corresponding word «*олмоқ*». For example: to take an exam – имтихон топширмоқ (сдавать экзамен), to take tea- чой ичмоқ (пить чай), to take off – ечинмоқ (раздеваться),   to give an examination- имтихон олмоқ,, to take a picture – расм олмоқ (фотографировать).

- The norm of lexical valency of a word in English is not the same as in Uzbek or Karakalpak. In Uzbek and Karakalpak the verb *кутармоқ, көтериу (поднимать)* may be combined with the nouns *қул, қөл (рука) and стул (стул)* . However its corresponding English verb *to raise* can be combined with the noun *hand (to raise hands, but not to raise a chair / to lift a chair).*

- The number of English synonymic sets may be substituted by one word in Uzbek or Karakalpak. For example, the verbs *accept, admit, adopt, take, receive* correspond to the meanings of the Uzbek (Karakalpak) word *қабул қилмоқ – қабыл қылыу, қабыллау (принимать)* . In English to the Uzbek word *рассом (художник)* correspond three words. They are: painter, artist, drawer. In Uzbek 6 words are used to express the notion *blow (уриш, зарба, зарб, урилиш, тақиллатиш, тепиш).* In English more that 20 words denote this notion. They are: blow,smack, slap,whack, poke,dig, rap,knock,stroke, etc. The correlated words to *make* and *қилмоқ* have different lexical valancies, to make soup - шурва қилмоқ (пиширмоқ) (готовить суп), to make tea - чой дамламоқ (заварить чай), to make a table - стол ясамоқ (сделать стол), to do lessons - дарс қилмоқ (готовить урок), to ring up - телефон қилмоқ (позвонить), to wish - ният қилмоқ (желать добра) , to try - ҳаракат қилмоқ (стараться).

- **Answer the questions.**
1. What is the subject-matter of Lexicology?
2. What types of Lexicology do you know?
3. What is the difference between general and special Lexicology?
4. What is the difference between descriptive and historical Lexicology?
5. What is the difference between comparative and non-comparative Lexicology?
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.**
1. Arnold I.V. The English word. Moscow, 1986.
2. Buranov J.B., Muminov O.M. A practical course in English lexicology. Tashkent, 1990.

3. Ginzburg R. S., Khidekel S.S.,Sankin A.A. A Course in Modern English Lexicology. Moscow, 1979.
4. Muminov O. M. Lexicology of the English language. Tashkent, 2006.
5. Mathews M. Meanings and etymologies. Essays on language and usage. New York, 1963.
6. Арбекова Т.И. Лексикология английского языка (практический курс). Москва, 1977.

LECTURE 2.
Theme: SEMASIOLOGY. MEANING OF A WORD.
The plan
1. Definition of meaning. Different approaches to the study of meaning.
2. Types of meaning.
3. Motivation of the word.
Problems : the subject- matter of semasiology, the definion of the term " meaning of the word", to study the types of meanings, referential and functional approaches to the study of meaning, the structure of the word and change of meaning of words; to characterize the motivation of the word and explain the connection of the meaning of words with the context.
Glossary: semasiology, meaning of words, the sound form of the word, referent, the functional approach, types of meaning grammatical meaning, lexical meaning, denotational and connotational meaning, distributional differential meaning, morphological motivation, structural pattern, change of meaning, structural pattern, change of meaning, semantic structure, context, deterioration, polysemy, polysemantic, monosemantic, frequency value.

2.1. Definition of meaning. Different approaches to the study of meaning. Types of meanings.

Semasilogy (or semantics) is a branch of linguistics which studies meaning. Semasiology is singled out as an independent branch of Lexicology alongside wordformation, etymology, phraseology and lexicography. The significance of semasiology may be accounted for by three main considerations: 1) Language is the basic human communication system aimed at ensuring the exchange of information between the communicants which implies that the semantic side forms the backbone of communication; 2) by definition Lexicology deals with words, morpheme and word groups. All those linguistic units are two-faced entities having both form and meaning.; 3) Semasiology underlines all other branches of Lexicology. Meaning is the object of semasiological study.

So, Semasiology is concerned with the meaning of words, studies the types of meaning the change of meaning, the semantic structure of words, semantic groupings, synonyms, antonyms, homonyms etc. Ulmann writes "Over eighty years ago a new term was introduced into linguistic studies. In 1883 the French Philologist Michel Breal published an article on what he called the "intellectual laws" of language. In this article he argued that, alongside of phonetics and morphology, the study of the formal elements of human speech, there ought also to be a science of meaning, which he proposed to call *la semantique*, by a word derived from the Greek *sign* … and on the first place Breal himself, who established semantics as a discipline in its own right. Three years after its publication, Breal's "Essay" was translated into English under the title "Semantics" – studies in the science of meanings and although the term had been used in English a few years later this translation played a decisive role in the diffusion of the new science and its name".

There is no generally accepted definition of the term " meaning of the word". F. de. Saussure, a well-known Swiss linguist, says that the meaning is the relation between the object or notion named and the name itself. L.Bloomfield, a well-known American linguist, points out that the meaning is the situation in which the word is uttered. The situations prompt people to utter speech. For example, if we want to know the meaning of the word " apple" we must make a situation for it.

Meaning is the reflection in the human consciousness of an object of extralinguistic reality (a phenomenon, a relationship, a quality, a process) which becomes a fact of language because of its constant indisolluble association with a definite linguistic expressions (E.M.Mednikova).

Meaning is a certain reflection in our mind " of objects, phenomena or relations that makes part of the linguistic sign- its so called inner facet, whereas the sound-form functions, as its outer facet" (A.I.Smirnitsky).

Meaning may be viewed as the function of distribution… the meaning of linguistic unit may be studied only through its relation to other linguistic units (P.S.Ginzburg). The meaning is the realization of the notion by means of a definite language system.

So the term " meaning" is a subject of discussion among the linguists. However at present there is no universally accepted definition of meaning or rather a definition reflecting all the basic characteristic features of meaning and being at the same time operational. Thus, linguists state that meaning is "one of the most ambiguous and most controversial terms in the theory of language " (Steven Ullman). Leech states that the majority of definitions turn out to be a dead end not only on practical but on logical grounds. Numerous statements on the complexity of the phenomenon of meaning are found on the Russian tradition as well by such linguists as A.A.Potebnya, I.A.Bodoen de Kurtene, L.V.Sherba, V.V.Vinogradov, A.I.Smirnitskiy and others.

There are three main categories of definitions to the study of the meaning of a word:

1) referential (or analytical) approach;
2) functional (contextual) approach and
3) operational (or information-oriented definition of meaning).

The referential approach treats the meaning of a word as a relation between the object (the referent) notion and its name (the word). The sound form of the word *dove* is connected with our concept of the bird which it denotes and through it with the referent. Treating the meaning of a word by the referential approach is not quite clear. This point of view can hardly be accepted because meaning is not identical with its meaning.

Our concept is abstract and is connected with the referent but they are not identical. The meaning of words are different in different languages. For example, the concept of " a building for human habitation" is expressed in English by the words "house", in Russian by «дом», in Uzbek by «уй», in Karakalpak by «үй». But the English word "house" does not possess the meaning of " fixed residence of the family" (оила яшайдиган жой; место, где семья обитает) which is one of the meaning of the Russian word «дом»In this meaning in English the word " home" is used. For example, уйга кетмоқ, идти домой – to go home; мен яшайдиган жой, место где семья обитает –the house where I live.

Every word has two aspects: the outer aspect (its sound form) and the inner aspect (its meaning). Sound and meaning don't always constitute a constant unit even in the same language. For example the word "temple" may denote "a part of a human head" and "a large church". In such cases we have homonyms. One and the same word in different syntactical relations can develop different meanings. For example, the verb *treat* in the following sentences:

a) He treated my words as a joke. Он принял мои слова за шутку. У менинг сузларимни ҳазил деб ҳисоблади.
b) The book treats poetry. Книга посвящается поэзии. Китоб шеъриятга бағишланган.
c) They treated me to sweets. Они угощали меня конфетами. Улар мени ширинликлар билан меҳмон қилишди.
d) He treats his son cruelly. Он жестоко обращается со своим сыном. У уз уғлига қупол муомала қилади.

In all these sentences the verb *treat* has different meanings and we can speak about polysemy. On the other hand, one and the same meaning can be expressed by different sound forms. For example, *pilot-airman, horror* and *terror*. In such cases we have synonyms. Both the meaning and the sound can develop in the course of time independently. The word *board* primarily means "a piece of wood". It has developed the meanings: a table, a board of a ship, a stage, a council.

The meaning of a word is the realization of a notion by means of a definite language system. A word is a language unit, while a notion is a unit of thinking. A notion cannot exist without a word expressing it in the language, but there are words which don't express any notion but have a lexical meaning. Interjections express emotions but not notions, but they have lexical meanings. For example: Alas! (disappointment); Oh, my buttons! (surprise). There are also words which express both- notions and emotions. For example: girlie, a pig / when used metaphorically/. The term "notion" was introduced into Lexicology from logics. A notion denotes the reflection in the mind of real objects and phenomena in their relations. Notions, as a rule, are international, especially with the nations of the same cultural level. While meanings can be nationally limited. Grouping of meanings in the semantic structure of a word is determined by the whole system of every language. For example, the English verb "go" and its Uzbek equivalent «бормоқ» have some meanings which coincide: to move from place to place, to extend / the road goes to London/, to work/ Is your watch going?/. On the other hand, they have different meanings: in Uzbek we say: «Ана у келяпти», in English we use the verb "come" in this case. In English we use the verb "go" in the combinations: to go by bus, to go by train. In Russian in these cases we use the verb «ехать». The number of meanings doesn't correspond to the number of words, neither does the number of notions. Their distribution in relation to words is peculiar in every language. The Uzbek has two words

for the English *man: эркак* and *одам, киши*. In English, however *man* cannot be applied to a female person. We say in Uzbek: «У яхши одам». In English we use the word "person". For example: *She is a good person*.

Development of meanings in any language is influenced by the whole network of ties and relations between words and other aspects of the language. The scientists tried to find the essence of meaning establishing the interdependence between words of the objects or phenomena they denote. The best-known analytical model of meaning is the so-called "basic triangle".

concept

sound form   referent

They are connected directly that means that if we hear a sound-form a certain ides arises in our mind and the idea brings out a certain referent that exists in the reality. But the sound form and the referent are connected indirectly because there are no objects or phenomena in the reality that predict a certain sound form, that need to be named by a certain sequence of sounds. The analytical definitions of meanings are usually criticized on the grounds that they cannot be applied to sentences. For example, the sentence *I like to read long novels* does not express single notion, it represents composites of notions specifying the relations between them.

The functional approach treats the meaning as the relation of one word to another. By this approach the meaning can be studied only through context, through its relation to other words. For example: to take the tram (a taxi), to take off, to take care of, to take ill, to take a degree, to take on, to take cold, to take it easy, to take place, to take tea, to take a bath, to take notice, to take part in, to take a book; to look at, to look after, to look forward, to look into, to look up, to look through, to look like, to look pale, etc. The functional approach to meaning defines it as the use of the word in the language. The meaning of the word is revealed by substituting different contexts. For example, the meaning of the word **cat** may be singled out of contexts: *Cats* catch mice. I bought fish for my *cat*. To get a better insight into the semantics of a word it is necessary to analyze as many contexts in which it is realized as possible.

Operational definition of meaning is the defining meaning through its role in the process of communication. Just like functional approach information-oriented definitions are part of studying words in action. They are more interested in how the words work, how the meaning works than what the meaning is. The operational approach began to take shape with the growing interest of linguists in the communicative aspect of the language when the object of study was shifted to the relations between the language we use and the situations within which it is used. In this frame-work meaning is defined as information conveyed from the speaker to the listener in the process of communication. There are different points of view on meaning of a word[4]. S.Ullman states that meaning is one of the most ambiguous and most controversial terms in the theory of language. Leech states that the majority of definitions turn out to be a dead end not only on practical but on logical grounds.

2.2. Types of meanings. There are two main types of meaning: 1) the grammatical meaning, 2) the lexical meaning. *The grammatical meaning* is the formal meaning of a word. It is defined as the meaning belonging to the lexico-grammatical classes and grammatical categories. It is expressed by the word's form. Every word belongs to a definite part of speech and every part of speech has a certain grammatical categories. For example, verbs have tense, voice, mood, person etc, nouns have the categories of case, number etc. For example, the words *asked, thought, talked, took, ran* have the grammatical meaning of tense. The grammatical meaning unites words into big groups such as parts of speech. *The lexical meaning* is the material meaning of a word. This is a meaning which gives the concept of a word. By the lexical meaning the word expresses the basic properties of the thing the word denotes.

2.3. Motivation of the word. The meaning of a word may be realized by its structure. A direct connection between the structural pattern of the word and its meaning is called *the motivation of a word*. Motivation may be morphological, phonetical and semantic. The relationship between morphemic structure and meaning is called morphological motivation. From this point of view the words may be motivated and non motivated.
If we see the connection between the phonetic structure of a word and its meaning we say that the word is phonetically motivated. Ex. Cuckoo, boom, cock, a doodle-doo, bow-wow, mew-mew, etc.

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

motivated. So in most cases the derived and compound words are motivated and simple words are non-motivated. For example: *eatable, readable, reader, doll-faced, singer* are motivated but *eat, read, doll, sing* are non-motivated; ring, finger are non-motivated but finger-ring is motivated.

When the meaning of a word is metaphorically extended or when a word is used as a metaphorically extention of the central meaning we say the word is semantically motivated. For example: He is my mother. Here " mother" is used metaphorically, the whole sentence means that " He looks after me like my mother. So the word " mother" is semantically motivated. He is a fox (He is cunny) , the word " fox" is semantically motivated. We must differ two approaches to the study of motivation: 1) diachronic and 2) synchronic. For example, the words *essex, norfolk, suttom* were non-motivated in old English. But East-Saxon, North Folk, South Town in modern English are motivated. If we compare the motivation of words in different languages it may differ considerably.

- **Answer the questions.**
  - 1. What does Semasiology study?
  - 2. What is the meaning of a word?
  - 3. What types of meaning can we distinguish?
  - 4. Give the definitions to meaning of the famous linguists.
  - 5. What is a grammatical meaning?
  - 6. What is a lexical meaning?
  - 7. What another types of meaning do you know?

- **Recommended literature.**
  1. Arnold I.V. The English word. Moscow, 1986.
  2. Buranov J.B., Muminov O.M. A practical course in English lexicology. Tashkent, 1990.
  3. Ginzburg R. S., Khidekel S.S.,Sankin A.A. A Course in Modern English Lexicology. Moscow, 1979.
  4. Muminov O. M. Lexicology of the English language. Tashkent, 2008.
  5. Mathews M. Meanings and etymologies. Essays on language and usage. New York, 1963.
  6. Арбекова Т.И. Лексикология английского языка (практический курс). Москва, 1977.

LECTURE 3.
Theme: SEMASIOLOGY. MEANING OF A WORD.
The plan

1. Denotative and connotative meaning of a word.
2. Semantic structure of the word.
3. Meaning and context.

Problems : the subject- matter of semasiology, the definion of the term " meaning of the word", to study the types of meanings, referential and functional approaches to the study of meaning, the structure of the word and change of meaning of words; to characterize the motivation of the word and explain the connection of the meaning of words with the context.

Glossary: semasiology, meaning of words, the sound form of the word, referent, the functional approach, types of meaning grammatical meaning, lexical meaning, denotational and connotational meaning, distributional differential meaning, morphological motivation, structural pattern, change of meaning, structural pattern, change of meaning, semantic structure, context, deterioration, polysemy, polysemantic, monosemantic, frequency value.

3.1. Denotative and connotative meaning of a word.

The lexical meaning of a word falls into two: 1) the denotational meaning, 2) the connotational meaning. *Denotational meaning* makes communication possible because words denote thing, concepts, they name them. For example the denotational meaning of the word " *table* " is a piece of furniture consisting of a flat top with four supports (called legs). The common term for a word's objective reference is " denotation". The common term for a word's emotional content is connotation. The words *fragrance* (аромат), *reek (*вонь, скверный запах), *odor* denote "smell". But *fragrance* connotes the speaker's approval of the smell, *reek* connotes his "revulsion" (ҳис туйгуни бирдан узгариши – внезапное изменение чувств) and *odor* carries no connotation at all (Richard M: Eastman).

The connotational meaning is a meaning which has a stylistic shade. It serves to express all sorts of emotions, expressiveness. Connotation may be shortly defined as emotional and evaluative

component of the lexical meaning. Comparing the meanings of English words " well-known", " famous", "notorious" we see that all these words express the denotational meaning "widely known". But the words, " well- known", "famous" has a positive evaluative meaning and "notorious has a negative evaluation. So, the words " well-known"," famous", "notorious" differ in their emotional colouring and evaluation. Connotational meaning consists of such constituents as: emotion, evaluation and intensity (intensifying connotation). The word takes the emotional connotation in contexts corresponding to emotional situations. The denotational meaning is associated with emotions. For example: He besought a favour of the judge. Here the word " beseech, besought" means " to ask eagerly and also anxiously".

The leading semantic component in the semantic structure of a word is usually termed denotative component (or referential component). The denotative component expresses the conceptual content of a word. For example the following list presents denotative components of some English adjectives and verbs:

   lonely, adj. –alone, without company
   notorious, adj.- widely known
   celebrated, adj.-widely known
   to glare, v.- to look
   to glance, v.- to look
   to shiver, v.- to tremble
   to shudder, v. –to tremble

The definitions given in the right column only partially and incompletely describe the meanings of their corresponding words. They don't give a more or less full picture of the meaning of a word. To do it, it is necessary to include in the scheme of analysis additional semantic components which are termed connotations or connotative components.

Evaluative connotation denotes approval or disapproval relations to the thing or phenomena, For example, *colt*-a young male horse used for a young unexperienced person; *pup*- a young dog used for a person. These words have negative evaluation. But in English we have words which have positive evaluation. For example: bunny – кролик, куёнча , bunting – лапочка, жонгинам.

Intensifying connotation is the reinforcement of the sign: it indicates the special importance of the thing expressed. For example, awfully glad, terribly important.

The connotarional meaning may be expressed also either in the emotive charge or in stylistic reference. For example: *aunt* and *auntie*. These words have the same denotational meaning but the word *aunt* has no emotive charge but *auntie* has it. Stylistically words can be divided into literary, neutral and colloquial layers. Neutral words are words of general use. For example: the words *to begin* and *to commence*, *dad* and *father* have the same denotational meanings but *to begin and father* are stylistically neutral words, whereas *dad* is a colloquial word and *to commence* is stylistically literary word. In Uzbek *oma* is a neutral word, but *ала, дада* are colloquial.

Besides the lexical and grammatical meanings we can observe differential, functional and distributional meanings of a word. Differential meaning is the semantic component that serves to distinguish one word from others in words containing the same (identical) morphemes. For example, "note-book". The morpheme "note" serves to distinguish the word from other words : exercise –book, copy-book or: bookshelf, bookcase. The functional meaning may be seen in derivational morphemes. If we see the words with the suffixes *–ment, -er, -ity, -or* we say that they are nouns. For example, *establishment, plurality, teacher, translator, sailor*. If *– ful, -less, -able, -al* etc. are present in words we say adjectives. For example, *helpful, handless, guiltless, readable, national, writable, operational, openable, proposal*. The distributional meaning is found in the all words having more than one morpheme. It is found in the arrangement and order of morphemes making up the word. For example: "teacher" but not erteach; "boyisness" but not "nessboyish".

Different types of the lexical meaning of one and the same word are considered its lexico-semantic variants. Lexico-semantic variants in their correlations and interconnection form the semantic structure of the word. In the semantic structure of the word there is a special information on the members and the conditions of communication. The intercourse and personal contacts in real situations may reveal the pragmatic aspects of the lexical meaning of the word. For example, "Hallo" is used in unofficial situations giving a signal at the same time to the friendly relations of the members of the communication.

   3.2. 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. 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 system of meanings. For example, the semantic structure of the noun "fire" may be described in the following way:

1) огонь (олов)
2) пожар (ут)
3) воодушевление, пыл (ташаббус, энтузиазм)
4)свечение (ёкиш)
5)жар, лихорадка (иссиқлиқ).

Meaning holds a kind of dominance over the other meanings conveying the concept in the most general way whereas meanings (II) (Y) 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, Y) (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 (IY) and (Y). 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, wits, interest, sharpness,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 semantic structure of a word is the system and unity of all the types of meaning that a certain word possesses. The semantic structure has a national character. The semantic structure of correlated words of two different languages can never cover each other. The major meaning is in most cases identical in two languages but others usually differ. The meaning male child can be found both in the English word "boy" and in its Uzbek equivalent "бола" but the meaning "servant" can't be found in the Uzbek word "бола". The emotive value of the word may be different. For example the Russian word *красивый* may have ironical meaning whereas the English word is never used in this meaning. The Russian language has more morphological means than the English one. In English we have *girl-girlie*, in Uzbek - *қиз, қизча, қизалоқ*; but in Russian - *девушка, девчушка, девчонка, девка, девенка*; In English – *house*, in Uzbek-*уй-уйча*, but in Russian - *дом, домик, домишка*.

3.3. 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 commonly known that context prevents from any misunderstanding of meanings. For instance, the adj. *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* 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.

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 compose*. The negative evaluative connotation of the adjective *notorious* is closely linked with the negative connotation of the nouns with which it is regularly associated: *a notorious criminal, thief, gangster, gambler, gossip, liar, miser*, etc.

The word can realize the same meaning in different sets of combinability. For example, in the pairs *merry children, merry laughter, merry faces, merry songs*, the adjective *merry* conveys the same concept of high spirits.(Д.Ашурова. Стилистика текста в парадигме когнитивной лингвистики. Филология масалалари. Ташкент, 2003, №1).

The task of distinguishing between 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. For example: *a sad woman; a sad voice; a sad story; a sad scoundrel (an incorrigible scoundrel); a sad night (a dark, black night, arc. poet.)*

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

- **Answer the questions.**
  - 1. What is the meaning of a word?
  - 2. What types of meaning can we distinguish?
  - 3. What is the denotative meaning?
  - 4. What is the connotative meaning?
  - 5. What is the semantic structure of the word?
  - 6. What is a context?
  - 7. What is the connection between meaning and context?
  - 8. What is the role of the context in defining the meaning?

- **Recommended literature.**
  1. Arnold I.V. The English word. Moscow, 1986.
  2. Buranov J.B., Muminov O.M. A practical course in English lexicology. Tashkent, 1990.
  3. Ginzburg R. S., Khidekel S.S.,Sankin A.A. A Course in Modern English Lexicology. Moscow, 1979.
  4. Muminov O. M. Lexicology of the English language. Tashkent, 2008.
  5. Mathews M. Meanings and etymologies. Essays on language and usage. New York, 1963.
  6. Арбекова Т.И. Лексикология английского языка (практический курс). Москва, 1977.

LECTURE 5.
Theme: POLYSEMY.
The plan

1. Definition of polysemy. Polkysemantic and monosemantic words.
2. Diachronic and synchronic analysis of polysemy.
3. Polysemy and frequency of the word.

Problems : to study the types of meanings; to characterize the notion of polysemy, polysemantic and monosemantic words; motivation of the word and explain the connection of the meaning of words with the context; to explain the diachronic and synchronic analysis of polysemy; to study polysemy and frequency of the word.

Glossary: semasiology, meaning of words, types of meaning grammatical meaning, lexical meaning, denotational and connotational meaning, polysemy, polysemantic, monosemantic, frequency of the word, structural pattern, change of meaning, semantic structure, context, deterioration, frequency value.

5.1. Definition of polysemy. Polysemantic and monosemantic words. Polysemy is the existence within one word of several connected meanings. These meanings appeared as a result of the development

and change of its original meaning. The word " polysemy" means " plurality of meanings", it exists in the language, not in speech.

There are two processes of the semantic development of a word: radiation and concatenation (ўзаро боғлик). In cases of radiation the primary meaning stands in the centre and the secondary meanings proceed out of it like rays. Each secondary meaning can be traced to the primary meaning. For example, in the word " *face*" the primary meaning denotes " the front part of the human head connected with the front position, the meanings: the front part of a watch, the front part of a building, the front part of a playing card were formed. Connected with the word " *face*" itself the meanings: expression of the face, outward appearance are formed.

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

Words are divided into two: polysemantic and monosemantic words. Polysemantic words are words which have more than two meanings. Monosemantic words have only one meaning, most terms, synonyms (molecule, bronchitis, hydrogen, lasar), some pronouns (this, my, both), numerals. S.Ullman writes "The frequency of polysemy in different languages is a variable depending on a number of factors. The progress of civilization will make it necessary not only to form new words but to add fresh meanings to old ones". For example, the word "*man*" has eleven meanings in modern English: 1) человек (одам) 2)адвокат 3)мужчина (эркак) 4)мужественный человек (курқмас одам) 5) человечество (одамийлик) 6) слуга (хизматкор) 7) рабочий (ишчи) 8) муж (эр) 9) рядовые матросы (денгизчилар) 10) вассал 11) пешка (пиёда шахматда).

The word " *room*" has three meanings: 1) комната (хона) 2) место (жой) 3) возможность (кулайлик). The word " *new*" has 8 meanings: 1) новый (янги) 2) иной, другой (бошқа) 3) недавний (яқинда келтирилган) 4) свежий (янги); 5) современный (замонавий); 6) передовой (илғор); 7) вновь обнаруженный (қайта топилган); 8) незнакомый (бегона).

The word *paint* has 7 meanings: 1) красить (буямоқ); 2) писать красками (буёқ билан чизмоқ); 3) описывать, изображать (тасвирламоқ); 4) приукрашивать (буяб курсатмоқ); 5) румяниться, краситься (буянмоқ); 6) пьянствовать (маст булмоқ); 7) смазывать (сурмоқ).

Picture has 9 meanings: *White*
1. картина, рисунок (сурат)   *white cloud* белое облако (оқ булутлар)
2. копия, портрет (нусха)   *white collar* *амер.* служащий (хизматкор)
3. представление (маълумот)   *white hair*   седой волос (оқ соч)
4. живописная поза   *white lie*   невинная ложь (айбсиз хато)
(ранг-баранг сумбат, турили)
5.картинка (ч-л очень красивое)   *white house* белый дом
6. кино (кино)   *white race*   счастливого пути (оқ йул)
7. кинематография   *white witch* добрая колдунья (мехрибон
8. *амер.*дело, сущность (асос, туб)сехргар)
9. картина крови (қон расми)

For example: She is the picture of her mother, to form a clear picture of smth.,
«The frequency of polysemy in different languages is variable depending on a number of factors. As already noted, languages where derivation and composition are sparingly used will tend to fill gaps in vocabulary by adding new meanings to existing terms. Similarly polysemy will arise more often in generic words whose meaning varies according to context than in specific terms whose sense is less subject to variation. The relative frequency of polysemy in various languages may thus provide a further criterion for semantic typology, though once again it is hard to see now this feature could be exactly measured». (*S. Ulmann*)

5.2. Synchronic and diachronic analysis of polysemy. Polysemy may be analysed from two ways: diachronically and synchronically. If polysemy is analysed diachronically it is understood as the development of the semantic structure of the word or we establish how the meanings of the word has changed whether it has got new meanings in the course of the development of the language. From the historical point of view one of the meanings of the word will be primary meaning: that is such a meaning of a word which was first registered. All other meanings are secondary meanings. All other meanings shows that the meaning appeared in the language after the primary meaning was already established. For

example, the primary meaning of the word "*fox*" is *лиса, лисица* but such meanings of this word as *лисий пух (тулки жуни), первокурсник (биринчи курс студенти)* are secondary meanings. Here are other examples: *eye* , the primary meaning is *глаз (куз)* secondary – *взгляд (нигоҳ), глазок в двери (эшикдаги курадиган тешик), ушко иголки (игна кузи), петельки (тугма тақиладиган тешик)* ; *father* – the primary meaning is *отец, папа (ота)* , secondary is *старейший член (ёши улуғ аъзо), родоначальник (қабила бошлиги), духовный отец (диний одам, руҳоний)* ; *fish* - the primary meaning is *рыба (балиқ)*, secondary is *нахал, наглец (сурбет).*

Polysemy is the result of one process of the accumilation of meanings. Synchronically polysemy is understood as the coexistence of various meanings of the word at a certain historical period of the development of English. The principal cause of polysemy according to acad. V.V.Vinogradov's theory is discrepancy between the limited number of words and the unlimited number of things meant.

1. Frequency value. The more often a word is used the more meanings it has. For example, *man, hand, take, see* are very often used in speech and they have many meanings.
2. Syllabic structure of words. The shorter a word is the more meanings it has. The more simple morphological structure a word has, the more meanings it has. For example, *man, woman, table, cat, head, hand,*etc.
3. Stylistic reference of words. A word stylistically neutral having no emotive charge has more meanings while a word with a narrow stylistic reference and has less meanings. *Father –daddy, a horse – steed, girl –girlie.*

From diachronical point of view we distinguish primary meaning and secondary meaning. From synchronical point of view we distinguish between the central meaning and marginal meaning. Central meaning is the most generalized meaning. This is clear to us without any context. Marginal meanings are semantically connected with the central meaning and they as if group around it. Synchronically the main problem of polysemy is to establish whether all the meanings of a word are equally important. We divide the meanings of a word into two: the major (or basic) meaning of a word and the minor meaning. In most cases the surrounding context points out quite clearly which of the meanings of a word is intended. For example: 1. It is a fox. Here "it" shows that the word " fox" is used in the meaning *лиса*

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

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

The meaning which is not dependent on context is the major (or basic) meaning of the word and the meanings which are dependent on the context[2] are minor meanings. By context we mean the minimal stretch of speech determining each individual meaning of the word. For example, " *to make*" means "*to produce smth*" This is its basic meaning but other meanings are minor meanings because they can be found only in a context.

The meaning of a word may be determined either by its lexical or by its grammatical context. For example, the verb "*to take*" in such lexical distributions as: take + tea (coffee, medicine), its meaning is пить (ичмоқ); take+ care -заботиться (ғамхурлик қилмоқ); take + off - раздеваться (ечмоқ); take + tram, the metro, a bus - сесть на (трамвай, метро, автобус), (трамвайга, автобусга тушмоқ). The meaning больной of the adjective "*ill*" is brought out only by a syntactical pattern in which "*ill*" is used as a predicative (*the man is ill*) while the syntactical pattern in which the word "*ill*" is used as an attribute, brings out the meaning -   плохой (ёмон) , вредный   , *an ill man* - плохой человек (ёмон одам).

5.3. Polysemy and frequency of the word. The comparative study of the frequency value of different meanings of polysemantic words shows that the frequency value of individual meanings is different. Ex. The meaning of the word "*table*" стол (a piece of furniture) possesses the highest frequency value and comprises 52 % of all uses of this word.

The meanings of polysemantic words have different stylistic references. Ex. "*jerk*" in the meaning of "sudden movement" belongs to a neutral style but in the meaning of "*an odd person*" it is a slang.

Stylistically neutral meanings are very frequent. In any historical period as a result of semantic development the secondary meaning of the word may become the central.

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

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

The Russian word "*красивый*" may have ironical meaning whereas the English word is never used in this meaning. The Russian language has more morphological means than the English one. In English we have *girl – girlie*, but in Russian – *девушка, девчушка, девчонка, девка, девенка*. Polysemantic words are in most cases frequent, etymologically- native or morphologically simple (which has simple stem). From the phonetical point of view they have mostly one syllable, stylistically they are neutral words. There is another aspect of polysemy, its relation to word-frequency[4].

By systematically comparing the relative frequency of various words with the number of senses in which they are used, the late Q.K.Zipf arrived at an interesting conclusion which he termed "the principle of diversity of meanings". According to Zipf there is a direct relationship between the number of different meanings of a word and its relative frequency of occurrences. He even tried to find a mathematical formula for this relationship: his calculations suggested that "different meanings of a word will tend to be equal to the square root of its relative frequency (with the possible exception of the few dozen most frequent words) (S.Ulman).

Answer the questions

1. What is the semantic structure of the word?
2. What is understood by the term "polysemy"?
3. What words are called polysemantic words?
4. What is the difference between polysemantic and monosemantic words?
5. How do we classify the meanings of polysemantic words diachronically?
6. How do we classify the meanings of polysemantic words synchronically?
7. What is a context? What types of the context do you know?
8. What is the frequency value of meanings of polysemantic words?
9. What are the stylistic references of different meanings of words?

Recommended literature

1. Arnold I.V. The English Word Moscow, 1986.
2. Ginzburg R.S. et.al. A course in Modern English Lexicology. Moscow, 1979.
3. Irteneyeva N.F. and others. A Theoretical English Grammar (Syntax) Moscow, 1969
4. Mednikova E.M. Seminars in English Lexicology. Moscow, 1978.
5. Sheard J.A. The words we use. Andre Deautsh. L, 1962.
6. Kennedy A. Current English. Boston, USA, 1935.
7. Ярцева В.И. Развитие национального литературного английского языка. Москва, 1968.

-

LECTURE 6
Theme: HOMONYMS. THE SOURCES OF HOMONYMS. THE CLASSIFICATION OF HOMONYMS.
The plan

1. Homonyms.The definition of homonyms.
2. Classification of homonyms.
3. The sources of homonyms. The difference between homonymy and polysemy.

Problems: to define the homonyms, the sources of homonyms; to characterize the classification of homonyms; to sho the differences between polysemy and homonymy;; to explain the wordformational activity of homonymic pairs.

Glossary: homonyms, origin of words, the native words, the borrowed words, word-stock, high frequency, foreign words, homophones, homonyms proper, polysemantic words, homographs, identical, spelling, pronunciation, different in meaning, lexico-grammatyical principle, loan words, the absence of equivalent words, to penetrate, immediate contact, oral speech, synchronically, diachronically, translation loans.

6.1.Homonyms. The definition of homonyms. Two or more words identical in sound and spelling but different in meaning are called homonyms. Homonyms are words which are different in meaning but identical in sound or spelling, or both in sound and spelling. For example: ball-балл, ball-мяч; toast-поджаривать хлеб, toast – тост; Rose- *Роза* имя, *роза* цветок; sound- пролив, sound-звук.

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

Homonyms can also appear in the language accidentally, when two words coincide in their development. For example, two native words can coincide in their outer aspects: *to bear* from *beran/ to*

carry / and *bear* from *bera / an animal*. A native word and a borrowing can coincide in their outer aspects. For example, *fair* from Latin *feria* and *fair* from native *fager /blond*. Two borrowings can coincide: *base* from the French *base*/ Latin basis/ and base / low/ from the Latin bas/ Italian basso.

Homonyms can develop through shortening of different words. For example *cab* from *cabriolet, cabbage, cabin*. In modern English homonyms are widely spread. Homonymic relation can be found not only in words but also: 1) between morphemes. For example: It's rain*ing*. Flatter*ing* won't help. Fill your glasses. All is *well* that ends *well*; 2) between words and morphemes: He couldn't get over the *shock*. The watch is *shock*proof; 3) between words and word combinations: Don't run away. The runaway was caught.; 4) between words and sentences. For example: I don't care. He took and I don't care attitude.

Homonyms differ in their wordformational activity. For example: *affect₁* has 8 derivatives (affective, affected, affectedly, affectation, affection, affectional, affectionally) whereas *affect₂* has 3 derivatives (affectation, affecting, affected). The interdependence and interrelations of different peculiarities of homonymic pairs demand further investigation.

6.2. Classification of homonyms. Walter Skeat classified homonyms according to their spelling and sound forms and he pointed out three groups: perfect homonyms that is words identical in sound and spelling such as: school – косяк рыбы (балиқ суяги) and школа (мактаб); homographs, that is words with the same spelling but pronounced differently. For example: bow / bau/- поклон, bow -/ bou/ - луг ; homophones that is words pronounced identically but spelled differently: night - ночь, knight – рыцарь.

Another classification was suggested by A.I.Smirnitsky[5]. (А.И.Смирницкий. Лексикология английского языка. Москва, 1956). He added to Skeat's classification one more criterion: grammatical meaning. He subdivided the group of perfect homonyms in Skeat's classification into two types of homonyms: perfect which are identical in their spelling, pronunciation and their grammar form, such as *spring* in the meaning " the season of the year, a leap, a source" and homoforms which coincide in their spelling and pronunciation but have different grammatical meaning. For example: reading – Present Participle, Gerund, verbal noun, to lobby – lobby.

A more detailed classification was given by I.V.Arnold. (Arnold I.V. The English word. Moscow, 1986). She classified only perfect homonyms and suggested four criteria of their classification: lexical meaning< grammatical meaning, basic forms and paradigms. According to these criteria I.V.Arnold pointed out the following groups: a) homonyms identical in their grammatical meaning, basic forms and paradigms and different in their lexical meanings. F.e: *board* in the meanings " a council" and " a piece of wood sawn thin"; b) homonyms identical in their grammatical meanings and basic forms, different in their lexical meanings and paradigms. F.e: *to lie- lied-lied* and *to lie- lay-lain*; c) homonyms different in their lexical meanings, grammatical meanings, paradigms, but coinciding in their basic forms. F.e: *light /lights, light/ lighter / lightest*; d) homonyms different in their lexical meanings, grammatical meanings, in their basic forms and paradigms, but coinciding in one of the forms of their paradigms. F.e: *a bit* and *bit (from to bite)*. In I.V.Arnold's classification there are also patterned homonyms, which differing from other homonyms, have a common component in their lexical meanings. These are homonyms formed either by means of conversion, or by levelling of grammar inflexions. These homonyms are different in their grammatical meanings, in their paradigms, identical in their basic forms. For example: *warm –to warm*. Here we can also have unchangeable patterned homonyms which have identical basic forms, different grammatical meanings, a common component in their lexical meanings. For example: *before –* an adverb, a conjunction, a preposition. There are also homonyms among unchangeable words which are different in their lexical and grammatical meanings, identical in their basic forms. For example: *for –* «для» and *for –* «ибо».

Homonyms must be studied diachronically and synchronically. Diachronically we study the origin of homonyms, the sources of homonyms, the time of their appearance in the language. Synchronically we analyse the present pecularities of homonyms, their classification etc.
Homonyms are classified into: 1) homonyms proper: 2) homophones: 3) homographs.

Homonyms proper are words identical in pronunciation and spelling and different in meaning: For example: fast₁- quickly, fast₂- to do smth. quickly; back₁ – назад, back₂ - спина , spring₁ – весна, spring₂ - пружина , spring₃ - родник.

Homophones are words of the same sound form but of different spelling and meaning. For example: air- воздух, heir-наследник, pail- ведро-pale-бледный, knight- night, piece- peace, son- sun, see –sea, read - reed, pray – prey.

Homographes are words which are different in sound and in meaning but identical in spelling. For example: lead [li:d], lead [led], tear [teə] – tear [tiə], wind [wind] – wind [waind], bow [bau] – bow [bou].

"We can approach homonyms from a different point of view and classify them into lexical and grammatical homonyms. Lexical homonyms are words of the same part of speech but of quite a different meaning, so that there is no semantic relation between them. F.e: piece (кусочек) – peace (мир). Grammatical homonyms are words of different parts of speech: work- работа, to work – работать, light – свет, light – легко. Wide-spread grammatical homonymy constitutes one of the specific features of English words. Grammatical homonyms are extremely numerous in the English language." (*V.A.Kashcheyeva and others*)[7]. M.A.Kashcheyeva writes , "The trouble of today is that lexical homonyms often enough come together with polysemy. There is no hard and fast line of demarcation between the meanings of a polysemantic word and lexical homonymy".

Prof. A.I.Smirnitsky has suggested his classification of homonyms based on the lexico-grammatical principle. He distinguished the following types of homonyms:

1) lexical homonyms are those words which belong to one parts of speech but they differ only in their lexical meaning. For example: seal (n)-a sea animal, seal (n) – a design printed on paper, stamp, hair (n) – hare (n), ball (n) – ball (n).

2) lexico - grammatical homonyms are those words which differ in their lexical and grammatical meanings. For example: sea- to sea, seal (n)- a sea animal, to seal (v)- to close tightly, work (n)- to work (v), well (adv) – well (n) –колодец. There may be cases when lexico-grmmatical homonyms are observed within the same part of speech. For example: the words "found" (past tense of "to find") and "found" (present tense of "to found") differ both grammatically and lexically.

3) grammatical homonymy is the homonymy of the different wordforms of one and the same word (part speech). For example: boys (plural) -boy"s (possessive case), asked- past tense, asked – Participle II.

6.3. The sources of homonyms. There are some sources of homonyms. They are: 1) divergent meaning development of polysemantic word. Different meanings of the same word move so far away from each other and they become two different words. For example: spring$_1$ – прыгать (сакрамок) , spring$_2$ – родник (булок) , spring$_3$ – весна (бахор) can be etymologically traced back to the same source, *flower* and *flour* which originally were one word (M.E. flour). The meaning was " the flower" and " the finest part of wheat", now they are different words.

2) Many homonyms came as a result of converging sound development. For example: OE ic and OE aze have become identical in pronunciation, I *pron*. and eye (n), love (v)- love (n) (OE lufu –lufian).

3) Many homonyms arose from conversion, they have related meanings. For example: paper- to paper, support- to support. Some linguists think that converted pairs must not be included in homonyms. This questions demands further investigation.

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

5) Borrowed words may become homonyms as a result of phonetic convergence. For example: Scandinavian "*ras*" and French *race* are homonymous in English: race$_1$- состязание (пойга),   race$_2$ – рейс, case$_1$ – падеж (келишик), case$_2$ –чемодан, case$_3$ – случай (вазият).

The difference between homonymy and polysemy. Homonomy and polysemy are different categories. In polysemy we deal with the different meanings of the same word. In homonymy we have different words which have their own meanings. The problem of difference between polysemy and homonymy is a subject of discussion among the linguists. In most cases the semantic definition of words may be the criteria for the difference of polysemy and homonymy. For example:

1)   table – piece of furniture consisting of a flat top with (usually four) supports (called legs)
2)   table-(sing. only) people seated at a table
3)   table –(sing. only) food provided at a table
4)   table-list of orderly arrangement of facts, information, etc.

We'll explain the second and the third meanings by substituting them with the help of the definition of the first meaning: 1) table – people seated at a piece of furniture; 2) table – food served at a piece of furniture. So these two meanings of the word "table" are the meanings of one word "table" because they can be substituted by the first meaning. The fourth meaning «таблица» can't be substituted by the first meaning (list –number of names (persons, items) written or printed). This gives us the right that the fourth meaning of the word "table" is the homonym to the previous three meanings. Some scientists say that the substitution of different meanings of words by the synonyms may help to differ homonyms from polysemantic words. For example: voice$_1$- sound uttered in speaking (sound), voice$_2$ -mode of uttering sound in speaking (sound), voice$_3$- the vibration of the vocal cords in sound uttered (sound),voice$_4$ - the form of the verb that express the relation of the subject to the action. voice$_1$, voice$_2$, voice$_3$ are not homonyms although they have different meanings because they can be substituted by the synonym

"sound" as far as voice$_4$ is concerned. It is a homonym because it can't be substituted by the word "sound".

V.Abayev gave etymological criterion. He says homonyms are words which have different sources and only coincides phonetically. For example: race$_1$ (O.N. ras), race$_2$ (F.race); I (O.E. ic) – eye (O.E. eaze). In Modern English homonyms are widely spread. Homonymic relation can be found not only in words but also: 1) between morphemes, ex. It's raining. Flattering won't help. Fill your glasses. All is well that ends well: 2) between words and morphemes. For example: He couldn't get over the shock. The watch is shockproof: 3) between words and word-combinations. For example: Don't run away. The runway was caught; 4) between words and sentences. Ex. I don't care. He took and I don't care attitude. Homonyms differ in their wordformational activity. The interdependence and interrelation of different peculiarities of homonymic pairs demand further investigation.

Answer the questions

1. What is a homonym?
2. How do we analyse homonyms?
3. What is the classification of homonyms?
4. What is a homonym proper?
5. What is a homophone?
6. What is a homograph?
7. What principle of classification of homonyms was given by A.I. Smirnitsky?
8. What are the main sources of homonyms?
9. What is the difference between homonymy and polysemy?
10. What is the interrelation of homonymic pairs?

Recommended Literature

1. Arnold I.V. The English Word Moscow, 1986.
2. Antrushina G.B., Afanasyeva O.V., Morozova N.N. English Lexicology. Moscow,1985.
3. Buranov J., Muminov O. A practical course in English Lexicology. Tashkent,1990.
4. Ginzburg R.S. et.al. A course in Modern English Lexicology. Moscow, 1979.
5. Muminov O.Lexicology of the English language. Tashkent, 2006.
6. Sheard J.A. The words we use. Andre Deautsh. L, 1962.

LECTURE 7
Theme: THE VOCABULARY OF A LANGUAGE AS A SYSTEM. SYNONYMS. ANTONYMS.
The plan

1. Synonyms and their classification.
2. The dominant synonym. The source of synonyms.
3. Collocation of words.

Problems: to describe synonyms and their classification; to define the dominant synonym and explain its meaning; to study and discuss the criterion of interchangeability of synonyms; to study the source of synonyms and collocation of words.

Glossary: classification of words, synonyms, identical, similar, synonymic group, additional connotation, ideographic, collocability, the dominant synonym, semantic fields, root words, derived words, semantic extention, obsolete words, etymology, emotionally coloured words, evaluative information, word-stock, the native words, frequency value, borrowings, etymological doublets.

7.1. Synonyms and their classification. 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. For example: jump, hop, leap, spring; defend, protect, guard, shield; absence, privation, lack, want; error, mistake. Complete synonyms do not exist. Synonymy is one of modern linguistic controversial problems. The very existence of words traditionally called *synonyms* is disputed by some linguists; the nature and essence of the relationships of these words is hotly debated and treated in quite different ways by the representatives of different linguistic schools. J.Lyons writes, "The results of investigations obtained have demonstrated the value of the structural approach to semantics and have confirmed the pronouncements of such earlier scholars as Von Humboldt, F.de Saussure and Sapir to the effect that the vocabularies of different languages are nonsomorphic, that there are semantic distinctions made in one language which are not made in another… each language imposes a specific form on the priori undifferentiated substance of the content plane".

Bloomfield says each linguistic form has a constant and specific meaning. Polysemantic words can not be synonymous in all their meanings. For example: the verb *look* is a synonym of *see, watch, observe,* in the meaning of "смотреть" but in another of its meaning it is synonymous with the verbs *seem, appear*. There are words in any vocabulary which clearly develop regular and distinct relationships when used in speech. In the following extract, in which a young woman rejects a proposal of marriage, the verbs *like, admire* and *love* all describe feelings of attraction, approbation, fondness: I have always liked you very much. I admire your talent, but, forgive me, - I could never love you as a wife should love her husband. (*The Shivering Sands* by V.Holt).

Each of the three verbs, though they all describe more or less the same feeling of liking, describes it in its own way: "I like you, i.e. I have certain warm feelings towards you, but they are not strong enough for me to describe them as "love", - so that *like* and *love* are in a way opposed to each other. The duality of synonyms is, probably, their most confusing feature: they are somewhat the same, and yet they are most obviously different. Both as of their dual characteristics are essential for them to perform their function in speech: revealing different aspects, shades and variations of the same phenomenon.

"- Was she a pretty girl?"

"- I would certainly have called her attractive".

The second speaker in this short dialogue does his best to choose the word which would describe the girl most precisely: she was good-looking, but *pretty* is probably too good a word for her, so that *attractive* is again in a way opposed to *pretty* (not pretty, only attractive), but this opposition is, at the same time, firmly fixed on the sameness of *pretty* and *attractive*: essentially they both describe a pleasant appearance.

Here are some more extracts which confirm that synonyms add precision to each detail of description and show how the correct choice of a word from a group of synonyms may colour the whole text. The first extract depicts a domestic quarrel. The infuriated husband shouts and glares at his wife, but "his glare suddenly softened into a gaze as he turned his eyes on the little girl" (i.e. he had been looking furiously at his wife, but when he turned his eyes on the child, he looked at her with tenderness).

The second extract depicts a young father taking his child for a Sunday walk: Neighbours were apt to smile at the long-legged bare-headed young man leisurely *strolling* along the street and his small companion demurely *trotting* by his side. (*Some Men and Women* by B.Lowndes).

The synonyms *stroll* and *trot* vividly describe two different styles of walking, the long slow paces of the young man and the gait between a walk and a run of the short-legged child.

In the following extract an irritated producer is talking to an ambitious young actor: Think you can play Romeo? Romeo should *smile*, not *grin*, *walk*, not *swagger*, *speak* his lines, not *mumble* them.

Here the second synonym in each pair is quite obviously and intentionally contrasted and opposed to the first: 1) *to grin* means more or less the same as *to smile*, only perhaps, denoting a broader and a rather foolish smile; 2) *to swagger* means *to walk*, but *to walk* in a defiant or insolent manner; 3) *mumbling* is also a way of speaking, but of speaking indistinctly or unintelligibly.

Synonyms are one of the language's most important expressive means. The principal function of synonyms is to represent the same phenomenon in different aspects, shades and variations. In modern research on synonyms the criterion of interchangeability is sometimes applied. According to this synonyms are defined as words which are interchangeable at least in some contexts without any considerable alteration in denotational meaning. Synonyms are frequently said to be the vocabulary's colours. Attempts at ascribing to synonyms the quality of interchangeability are equal to stating that subtle tints in a painting can be exchanged without destroying the picture's effect. All this doesn't mean that no synonyms are interchangeable. One can find the whole groups of words with half-erased connotations which can readily be substituted one for another. The same girl can be described as *pretty, good-looking, handsome or beautiful*.Yet even these words are far from being totally interchangeable. Each of them creates its own picture of human beauty. Here is an extract in which a young girl addresses an old woman: "I wouldn't say you'd been exactly pretty as a girl – handsome is what I'd say. You've got such strong features". (*The Stone Angel* by M.Lawrence). So *handsome* is not *pretty* and *pretty* is not necessarily *handsome*. But they are synonyms. Both the criterion of common denotation (good-looking, of pleasing appearance) and even the dubious criterion of interchaneability seem to indicate that. It is difficult to accept interchangeability as a criterion of synonymy because the specific characteristic of synonyms, and the one justifying their very existence, is that they are not, cannot and shouldn't be interchangeable.

Synonyms are two or more words having the same essential meaning but different shades of meanings. They are words coinciding in their notional just but different in their emotional or stylistic

shades of meaning. Synonyms usually fall into several groups: 1) absolute synonyms; 2) phraseologic synonyms; 3) ideographic synonyms; 2) stylistic synonyms. The only existing classification system of synonyms was established by academician V.V. Vinogradov, the famous Russian scholar. In his classification system there are three types of synonyms: ideographic which he defined as words conveying the same concept but differing in shades of meaning), stylistic (differing in stylistic characteristics). However, the following aspects of his classification system are open to question. Firstly, absolute synonyms are rare in the vocabulary and on the diachronic level, the phenomenon of absolute synonymy is anomalous and consequently temporary. There are numerous synonyms which are distinguished by both shades of meaning and stylistic colouring. A more modern and a more effective approach to the classification or synonyms may be based on the definition describing synonyms as words differing in connotations. Synonyms are words different in their outer aspects, but identical or similar in their inner aspects. In English there are a lot of synonyms, because there are many borrowings. For example: hearty / native/ - cordial /borrowing/. After a word is borrowed it undergoes desynonymization, because absolute synonyms are unnecessary for a language. However, there are some absolute synonyms in the language, which have exactly the same meaning and belong to the same style. For example: to moan, to groan; homeland, motherland. In cases of desynonymization one of the absolute synonyms can specialize in its meaning and we get semantic synonyms. For example: city / borrowed/ - town / native. The French borrowing *city* is specialized.

Sometimes one of the absolute synonyms is specialized in its usage and we get stylistic synonyms. For example, to begin /native/, to commence /borrowing/. Here the French word is specialized. 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*. For example: *beautiful* and *handsome*. These are ideographic synonyms, but "to die"- to pass away", " to begin"-to commence", " to see-to behold", "to end—to complete" are stylistic synonyms.

neutral words	stylistically coloured words
To see	to behold (bookish)
A girl	a maiden (poetic)
Money	dough (colloquial)
Food	grub (colloquial)

Stylistic synonyms can also appear by means of abbreviation, for example: examination – exam. Among stylistic synonyms we can point out a special group of words which are called euphemisms: *the late* instead of *dead*, *to perspire* instead of *to sweat*.

Among stylistic synonyms we can point out a special group of words which are called euphemisms[3]. Euphemisms are words used to substitute some unpleasant or offensive words, for example *the late* instead of *dead*, *to perspire* instead of *to sweat*. Complete synonyms don't exist. Bloomfield says each linguistic form has a constant and specific meaning. S.Ullman says that "if the forms are phonemically different, we suppose that their meanings are also different. We suppose in short, that there are no actual synonyms".

Prof. Aznaurova E.S. points out that stylistic synonyms carry emotional evaluative information[4]. Э.С.Азнаурова. Очерки по стилистике слова. Ташкент, 1973.

Synonyms are distributionally different words. For example: "too" also "as well" are synonyms. They always occur in different surroundings. The synonyms differ in their collocability[5]. Here is the explanation of the term collocation. R.H.Robins states that collocation is meant the habitual association of a word in a language with other particular words in sentences. One of the meanings of the word night is its collocability with the word dark and on the contrary. (R.H.Robins. General Linguistics. London, 1966).

We compare the collocability of synonyms "to book" and " to buy"

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

7.2. The dominant synonym. 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. The dominant synonym expresses the notion common to all synonyms of the group in the most

general way, without contributing any additional information as to the manner, intensity, duration or any attending feature of the referent. So, any dominant synonym is a typical basic-vocabulary word, it has high frequency of usage, broad combinability, i.e. ability to be used in combinations with various classes of words, broad general meaning, lack of connotations. In each group of synonyms there is a word with the most general meaning, which can substitute any word in the group. For example, the word *piece* is the synonymic dominant in the group *slice, lump, morseb*. The verb *to look at* is the synonymic dominant in the group: *to stare, to glance, to peep,* the adjective *red* is the synonymic dominant in the group *purple, scarlet, crimsom.* Here are examples of other dominant synonyms with their groups:

to surprise – *to astonish – to amaze – to astound*; to shout – *to yell – to bellow – to roar*;
to shine – *to flash – to blaze – to gleam – to glisten – to sparkle – to glitter – to shimmer – to glimmer*;
to tremble – *to shiver – to shudder – to shake*; to make – *to produce – to create – to fabricate – to manufacture*; angry – *furious – enraged*; fear – *terror – horror;* change - *alter, very, modify*.

The source of synonyms. Collocation of words. When speaking about the sources of synonyms, besides desynonymization and abbreviation, we can also mention the formation of phrasal verbs. For example: to give up- to abandon; to cut down- to diminish.

The main sources of synonyms are:
1) borrowings: to ask- to question –to interrogate (F); to begin (A,S) – to commence (F); to initiate (L)- to rise (F) – ascend (L);
2) the formation of *verb+ adverb* 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 word with a postpositive element form synonyms: to choose – to pick out, to continue – to go on; to return – to bring back;
6) euphemisms, words which are used instead of unpleasant words: drunk – merry, lodger – paying guest, to die – to go away, commandment – command;
7) slang, emotionally coloured words which are the secondary names of objects. For example:
сокрушитель – crusher (полицейский) , тюрьма can (дословно консервная банка), убить - to bump off (пристукнуть), казнить -to fry (зажарить) , голова – bean (боб) или mug (кружка).

R.H.Robins states that "collocation" is meant the habitual association of a word in a language with other particular words in sentences. One of the meanings of *night* is its collocability with *dark* and *of dark*. Word groups like *bright night, dark days, white coffee, black coffee, white race* all have a range of situation of reference. Collocation is distinct from syntax in that one is concerned in collocation with each word as an individual lexical item in the company of other words as individual lexical items, and not, as in syntax, part of the grammatical level of analysis, with words as memebers of classes in relation to other words also as memebers of classes. Speakers become accustomed to the collocations of words and the mutual expectancies that hold between them in utterances irrespective of their grammatical relations as memebers of word classes or as "parts of speech".(R.H.Robins. general Linguistics. London, 1966).

A rather obvious example is given by Firth, who made use of the term as part of the technical terminology of linguistics: dark collocates with night, and vice versa. One of the meanings of *night* is its collocability with *dark* and *of dark*, of course ,collocation with *night*.(J.R.Firth. Papers in Linguistics 1934-1951. London, 1964).

Collocations such as these are manifestly related to the referential and situational meaning of the words concerned, but collocation and situational meaning are different parts of the total statement of the use of words. In some other cases collocations are habitual but less closely connected with extralinguistic situational reference, but apart from the collocation of the particular second words to the colours of the referents. Similar collocations in English involving colour words, but further removed from reference to actual colour surfaces, are *green with jealousy, red revolution, purple passage*. Some words in language have, at least in certain styles, very limited uses, almost wholly circum-scribable in their collocations. The word *maiden*, for example, in modern spoken English, is scarcely ever used as a synonym for *girl*, but principally occurs in collocation with a limited set of other words such as *voyage, speech, over* (in cricket), *aunt, lady* (English speakers can readily supply the others).

Conversely, words like *the, a,if, when* and so on, are hardly subject to any collocational restrictions, and are found in almost any lexical company in the language that the grammar permits. For such words collocation is not a relevant part of the statement of their use; but with others it is possible to set up collocational ranges of words with which given words will be found associated in their various grammatical constructions. Collocational ranges are unlike grammatical classes in that they are peculiar

to each word, and almost certainly no two words in a language share exactly the same range and frequency of occurrence within a range, whereas grammatical classes may each contain many different words as members. Moreover collocations are far more personally variable among spekers of a single dialect within a language than are grammatical classes.

Sometimes different styles, types of utterance appropriate to specific types of situation are characterized by different collocations: 1.He's *a proper rascal*. That is a *very proper observation*; 2. We've had *a nice time* today. We have here *a nice point* to decide.

Special cases of collocations are what are called idioms and cliches. *Idiom* is used to refer to habitual collocations of more that one word, that tend to be used together, with a semantic function not readily deducible from the other uses of its component words apart from each other. For example: *She went for him hammer and tongs. They ran off hell for leather*. Knowledge of such individual features of a language, acquired by long experience, but unnecessary for ordinary intercourse, usually comes at the end of one's learning of a fopreign language; hence a complete and near-complete mastery of one is often said to be idiomatic. Some idioms preserve in use words that have otherwise become obsolete (*to and fro, waifs and strays, kith and kin*).

R.N.Robins thinks when a collocation has become almost universal in a particular style, the contribution of some of its words comes to be nugatory, and often appears irritating and inelegant to listeners or readers who don't relish that mode of discourse. For example: the house agent's *desirable residence* (residence), the politician's *this modern age in which we are living* (this age), the journalist's *inside information* (information). Cliches of this sort form a notable part of the public speaking style of many politicians all over the world, presumably because of intellectual laziness or in the hope of appealing to the emotions of people in political meetings, broadcasts, and the like, by the repeated use of words, such as *freedom, peace* to which favourable responses are normally accorded; cliché-ridden talk is a good deal easier to produce than a serious examination of current political problems. (R.H.Robins).

LECTURE 8
Theme: THE VOCABULARY OF A LANGUAGE AS A SYSTEM. ANTONYMS.
The plan

1. Definition of antonyms.
2. Classification of antonyms.
3. Some debatable points of antonyms.
4.Semantic fields. Neologisms, archaisms and obsolete words.
Emotionally coloured words, evaluatory words. Stylistic differences of words.

Problems: to describe antonyms and their classification; to define and explain their meaning; to study and discuss some debatable points of antonyms; to study the source of antonyms.

Glossary: classification of words, synonyms, identical, similar, synonymic group, additional connotation, ideographic, collocability, the dominant synonym, semantic fields, root words, derived words, semantic extention, obsolete words, etymology, emotionally coloured words, evaluative information, word-stock, the native words, frequency value, borrowings, etymological doublets.

8.1. Definition of antonyms. Antonyms are words which belong to the same part of speech and have contrary meanings. For example: kind-cruel, good-bad, big-small, little-much.

We use the term *antonym* to indicate words of the same category of parts of speech which have contrasting meanings, such as *hot-cold, light-dark, happiness-sorrow, to accept-to reject, up-down*. If synonyms form whole, often numerous groups, antonyms are usually believed to appear in pairs. Yet, this is not quite true in reality. For instance, the adjective *cold* may be said to have *warm* for its second antonym, and *sorrow* may be very well contrasted with *gaiety*. On the other hand, a polysemantic word may have an antonym (or several antonyms) for each of its meanings. So the adjective *dull* has the antonyms *interesting, amusing, entertaining* for its meaning of "deficient in interest", *clever, bright, capable* for its meaning of "deficient in intellect", and *active* for the meaning of "deficient in activity", etc. Antonymy is not evenly distributed among the categories of parts of speech. Most antonyms are adjectives which is only natural because qualitative characteristics are easily compared and contrasted: *high-low, wide- narrow, strong- weak, old – young, friendly –hostile*. Verbs take second place, so far as antonymy is concerned. Yet, verbal pairs of antonyms are fewer in number. Here are some of them: *to lose-to find, to live- to die, to open- to close, to weep –to laugh*. Nouns are not rich in antonyms, but even so some examples can be given: *friend- enemy, joy- grief, good- evil, heaven –earth, love –hatred*. Antonymic adverbs can be subdivided into two groups: a) adverbs derived from adjectives: *warmly-*

coldly, merrily – sadly, loudly-softly; b) adverbs proper: *now- then, here –there, ever –never, up-down, in –out*. (G.B.Antrushina, O.V.Afanasyeva,N.N.Morozova. English Lexicology. Москва, 1985, с. 167).

8.2. Classification of antonyms. V.N.Comissarov in his dictionary of antonyms classified them into two groups: absolute or root antonyms, f.e. *late –early* and derivational antonyms : *to please – to displease*. Absolute antonyms have different roots and derivational antonyms have the same roots but different affixes. In most cases negative prefixes form antonyms: un-, dis-, non-. Sometimes they are formed by means of suffixes –ful and –less. The difference between derivational and root antonyms is not only in their structure, but in semantics as well. Derivational antonyms express contradictory notions, one of them excludes the other. For example – active – inactive. Absolute antonyms express contrary notions. For example: ugly, plain, good-looking, pretty, beautiful, the absolute antonyms are: *ugly* and *beautiful*. Examples of root antonyms: good-bad, beautiful-ugly, kind, kind-cruel, old -young.

Derivational antonyms are formed by affixes: kind-unkind, to like-dislike, possible –impossible, understand – misunderstand, regular- irregular. Antonyms may be found among qualitative adjectives as: good-bad, deep-shallow, nouns as: light-darkness.

Converseness is mirror-image relations of functions. For example: husband/ wife, pupil/teacher, proceed/ follow, above/below, before/after. John bought the car from Bill implies that Bill sold the car to John. Mirror-image sentences are in many ways similar to the relations between active and passive sentences. Not every word in a language can have antonyms. This type of opposition can be met in qualitative adjectives and their derivatives. For example: *beautiful-ugly, to beautify –to uglify, beauty-ugliness*. It can be also met in words denoting feelings and states. For example: *respect-scorn, to respect-to scorn, respectful-scornful, to live-to die, alive –dead, life- death.*It can be also met among words denoting direction in space and time. For example: *here – there, up- down, now –never, before –after, day – night, early –late.*

Antonyms are not always interchangeable in certain contexts. For example, *rich voices* 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*.

Many antonyms are explained by means of the negative particle "not". For example: clean-not dirty, shallow-not deep. Polysemantic words may have antonyms in some of their meanings and none in the others. For example, when the word *criticism* means *blame* its antonym is *praise*, when it means *рецензия* it has no antonym.

Antonyms indicate words of the same category of parts of speech which have contrasting meanings, such as: *hot- cold, light- dark, happiness –sorrow, to accept- to reject, up –down*. Most antonyms are adjectives which is only natural because qualitative characteristics are easily compared and contrasted. Verbs take second place, so far as antonymy is concerned. Nouns are not rich in antonyms: *friend –enemy, joy- grief, good- evil, heaven – earth*. Antonymic adverbs can be subdivided into two groups: a) adverbs derived from adjectives*: warmly- coldly, merrily- sadly, loudly-softly*; b) adverbs proper: *now –then, here – there, ever – never, up- down, in – out*. Not so many years ago antonymy was not universally accepted as a linguistic problem, and the opposition within antonymic pairs was regarded as purely logical and finding no reflection in the semantic structures of these words. The contrast between *heat* and *cold* or *big* and *small* , said most scholars, is the contrast of things opposed by their very nature.

8.3. Some debatable points of antonyms.

There are some debatable points of antonyms. Leonard Lipka in the book "Outline of English Lexicology" describes different types of oppositeness and subdivides them into three types:

a) complementary: *male-female, married –single*;

b) antonyms: *good-bad*;

c) converseness: *to buy – to sell.*

In his classification he describes complimentarity in the following way: the denial of the one implies the assertion of the other, and vice versa. "John is not married" implies that "John is single". The type of oppositeness is based on yes/no decision. Incompatibility only concerns pairs of lexical units.

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

L.Lipka also points out non-binary contrast or many-member lexical sets. Here he points out serially ordered sets, such as scales (hot,warm,tepid, cool, cold); colour words (black, grey,white); ranks (marshal, general, colonel, major, captain). There are gradable examionation marks (excellent, good, average, fair, poor). In such sets of words we can have outer and inner pairs of antonyms. He also points

out cycles, such as units of time (spring, summer, autumn, winter). In this case there are no "outermost" members.

In synonymy we saw that both the identity and differentiations in words called synonyms can be said to be encoded within their semantic structures. Modern research in the field of antonymy gives a positive answer to this question. Nowadays most scientists agree that in the semantic structures of all words, which regularly occur in antonymic pairs, a special antonymic connotation can be singled out. We are also used to coming across *hot* and *cold* together, in the same contexts, that even when we find *hot* alone, we cannot help subconsciously registering it as *not cold*, that is, contrast it to its missing antonym. The word possesses its full meaning for us not only due to its direct associations but also because we subconsciously oppose it to its antonym, with which it is regularly used, in this case *hot*. Therefore, it is reasonable to suggest that the semantic structure of *hot* can be said to include the antonymic connotation of "not cold", and the semantic structure of *enemy* the connotation of "not friend". When two words frequently occur side by side in numerous contexts, subtle and complex associations between them are not at all unusual. These associations are naturally reflected in the words' semantic structures. Antonymic connotations are a special case of such "reflected associations".

LECTURE 9
Theme: SEMANTIC SYSTEMS IN ENGLISH
The plan
1. **Semantic fields.**
2. **Neologisms, archaisms and obsolete words. Emotionally coloured words.**
3. **Evaluatory words. Stylistic differences of words. The correlation of different aspects of words.**

Problems: to describe antonyms and their classification; to define and explain their meaning; to study and discuss some debatable points of antonyms; to study the source of antonyms.

Glossary: classification of words, synonyms, identical, similar, synonymic group, additional connotation, ideographic, collocability, the dominant synonym, semantic fields, root words, derived words, semantic extention, obsolete words, etymology, emotionally coloured words, evaluative information, word-stock, the native words, frequency value, borrowings, etymological doublets.

9.1. Semantic fields. 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 of grouping of words may be effective. Words joined together by one common semantic component form semantic fields. For example, the semantic field of time: a quarter, o'clock, past,it's 10 min. to 5, half of an hour, a two-month course. One of the most fruitful concepts evolved so far in structural semantics is that of the "lexical field", closely associated with Jost Trier and his school. Lexical fields are highly organized and integrated conceptual spheres whose elements mutually delimit each other and derive their siginificance from the system as a whole.

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. For example, *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. Examples of lexical fields are: the system of colours, the network of family relations, or among abstract experiences, the terms for intellectual qualities, ethical and aesthetic values, religious and mystical experiences.

The numerous articles and monographs which have recently been published on these problems have all tended to emphasize the differences between these fields in various languages. Thus "we are told of striking differences between the number and nature of colour distinctions: there was no single term for *brown* and *grey* in Latin; Russian has two words for *blue*-синий *dark blue* and голубой *sky-blue*. These differences are highly significant, but it would be equally interesting to know whether there are any elements common to all classifications of colours, any distinctions which have to be expressed everywhere and which could therefore rank as lexical constants" (Stephen Ullmann).

The same point is even more closely noticeable in another field which has been studied in various languages: the nomenclature of *kinship* terms. Take, for instance, the words for *brother* and *sister*. There was no single term either for younger brother or for younger sister and for elder brother and elder sister in the English language; instead two pairs of separate words for elder and younger brother and elder and younger sister are used in the Uzbek language (ака-ука, опа - сингил).

A comparison of the same field in a number of languages would reveal whether this relationship is a semantic universal. It would also show how many ways there are of "structuring" this part of the field and how frequent these various solutions actually are. Even languages belonging to the same family and culture will sometimes show remarkable discrepancies. Thus, there is no single term for *father-in-law* and *mother-in-law* in Russian : a distinction is made between *тесс- свёкор, тёща – свекровь*.

It may be noted in passing that the theory of lexical fields has certain affinities with the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis. Trier and his followers would readily agree with Whorf that each language contains a "hidden metaphysics" and that "we dissect nature along lines laid down by our native languages". There are however, two important differences between the two schools:
 a. lexical fields have so far been explored mainly in the best-known European languages, whereas Wholf deliberately turned away from "Standard Average European" and concentrated on totally different linguistic systems, notably the American Indian ones;
 b. the theory of lexical fields is focused on vocabulary, while Whorf's most impressive successes were obtaine in the grammatical sphere. It would seem, then, that the two approaches, which have developed independently of each other, could usefully supplement one another, and the time may come when they can be combined into a unified theory.

9.2. Neologisms. Obsolete and archaic words. Language is always a motion. New words constantly appear in the language. Neologisms are new words (borrowed words) which appeared in the long as a result of development of culture, state system, society*: war, revolution, radio, automobile, bus, spaceship, place, congress, NATO, black out, tank*.

At the beginning of the 17th century in 1620 first English appeared in America, , the 1st group consisted of those who came to America with their hope for better life. The 2^d group consists of religious figures. When English came to America the new problems appear: linguistic and political. 1. They took well-known English words and filled them with new meanings. *Blackbird* was taken as a name to a new kind of name. 2. English combined two morphemes to make up a new word : rattle-snake, ground cock; 3. Some words were taken directly from Indian language. There are the names of American animals, institutions and others. 4. English borrowed Indian words not directly but in their Spanish, French, Denmark forms: chocolate, potato, tomato, canoe.

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 word borrowed from another language. As a result of the development of science and industry many new words appeared in the language. For example: *isotope, tape-recorder, supermarket, V-day (Victory Day)*. The research of cosmic space gave birth to new words: *sputnik, lunik, space-rocket, spaceship*. Neologisms may be divided into:
1) root words: for example, *jeep*- a small light motor vehicle, *zebra*-street crossing place.
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.

Neologisms are mainly formed by: 1) wordformation (mainly productive type); 2) semantic extention: heel-a tractor (old meaning: heel- the back part of foot) to screen- to separate coal into different sizes); 3) borrowing: telecast, telestar (Greek) sputnik, lunnik, udarnik (Russian)

Obsolete and archaic words. 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, for example: the Scandinavian take and die ousted O.E. niman 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. For example: *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, for example: cannon-ball, chain mail, lance, archer, baldric (belt for a sword).

9.3. Emotionally coloured words, evaluatory words. Stylistic differences of words.

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

blackie. In Uzbek: дада**жон**, сингил**гинам**, қиза**лоқ**, бута**лоқ**. Interjections also express emotion without naming them: Ah! Hush! Hell! Nonsense! Pooh! In Uzbek: вой, айланай, эҳ.

The derogatory suffixes may form emotionally coloured words: bastard-внебрачный ребёнок (хароми), weakling – слабое существо (нозик), drunkard – пьяница (маст), hibster– хиппи, dullard- тупица (тентак). In Uzbek: ойимча, ойимтилла, ургилибгина кетай. It is very interesting that many personal nouns formed by the composition from complete sentences or phrases in most cases are derogatory. For example: also-run- ну и скакун, непосредственность (чщпқир), never-say-die- несдающиеся, неприклонный (енгилмас) , stick-in-the mud – отсталый человек, растяпа (қолоқ), die-hard- крайний консерватор, живучий (жони қаттиқ).

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

A bare- скучный человек (зерикарли одам), a washout - пропавший человек (тамом булган одам). There are some words which indicate the special importance of the thing expressed. They are called intensifiers. For example: even, ever, all, so, awfully,tremendously, wonderfully, terribly, awfully glad, terribly important. In Uzbek: оҳ, фиғон, афғон, фарёд are used as intensifiers.

Evaluatory words. It should be pointed out that among the emotionally coloured words we can find words which express evaluation, judgment. They are called evaluatory words. Mostly names of animals have a strong evaluatory force. For example: "Silly ass", said Dick. "He's jealous because he didn't win a prize". Cattwitted -мелочный , dirty dog - грязный подлец (исқирт) , colt – a young male horse used for a young unexperienced person, pup – щенок (лайча) . They have negative evaluation. But in English we have words which have positive evaluation. For example: bunny – кролик (қуёнча) , bunting – птичка (қушча). In the English language we can find a lot of vulgar words which are used in emotional speech: 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 positive evaluation). She is a bull (it has a negative evaluation). In Uzbek: *чехра* has positive evaluation but *башара* has negative.

Stylistic differences of words. 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. For example: *evening, man, girl, table, read, write, speak*. But we have a lot of words which cannot be used in any situations or we speak to any person. They are called stylistically marked words. For example: 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: steed-horse, ire-anger, sustain- suffer. 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. For example the word "money" has the following slang words as: beans, brass, dibs,dough,chink,oof, wads. The slang synonyms for word "head" are: attic, brain, pan, hat, pe, nut,upper storey. The slang synonyms for the adjective "drunk" are : boozy, cock-eyed, high, soaked, tight.

Answer the questions

1. What is understood by the term "synonym"? Are there complete synonyms in English?
2. Can polysemantic words have the same synonyms in all their meanings?
3. What is the dominant of a synonymic group?
4. What groups do synonyms fall into?
5. What are absolute and phraseological synonyms?
6. What is the difference between ideographic and stylistic synonyms?
7. Do the synonyms occur in the same surroundings?
8. What is the collocability of synonyms?
9.What are the main sources of synonyms?
10. What is understood by the term "antonym"? What is the classification of antonyms?
11. What is the interchangeability of antonyms in contexts?
12. How does Leonard Lipka in the book "Outline of English Lexicology" describe different types of oppositeness?
13.What are the semantic fields?
14.Explain the meaning of the concept "the lexical field".

15. What are neologisms? What is the difference between neologisms and obsolete words?
16. What words are called archaisms?
17. What words are called emotionally coloured (evaluatory) words?
18. What is the difference between stylistically marked words and stylistically neutral words?

Recommended Literature
1. Arnold I.V. The English Word Moscow, 1986.
2. Antrushina G.B., Afanasyeva O.V., Morozova N.N. English Lexicology. Moscow, 1985.
3. Ginzburg R.S. et.al. A course in Modern English Lexicology. Moscow, 1979.
4. Muminov O.Lexicology of the English language. Tashkent, 2006.
5. Sheard J.A. The words we use. Andre Deautsh. L, 1962.
6. Ullmann S. Semantics. An Introduction to the science of meaning. Oxford, 1962.
7. Ullmann S. Language ans Style. Oxford, 1964.

LECTURE 10
Theme: THE MORPHEMIC STRUCTURE OF THE ENGLISH WORD.
The plan

1. The morphemic structure of the word. Morphemes. Types of morphemes. The difference between the morpheme, the phoneme and the word.
2. Principles of morphemic analysis. The morphemic analysis of the word with the help of IC method.
3. Principles of derivational analysis. The stem and its types.

Problems: to study the morphological structure of the word, the difference between the morpheme, the phoneme and the word; to analyze suffixes and prefixes forming different parts of speech: noun, verb, adjective and adverb with the help of I.C. method; to study the principles of derivational analysis, the stem and its types.

- **Glossary:** basic linguistic unit, lexical unit, motivation, structural pattern, the morphemic analysis, stem, monomorphemic words, immediate constituents, derived morpheme, compound morpheme, polymorphemic, a root morpheme, free and bound morpheme, identical, word-structure, word-form, semantic relations, correspond, derivational morphemes, parts of speech, prefix, suffix, semantic value.

- **10.1. The morphemic structure of the word. The difference between the morpheme, the phoneme and the word.** 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-faced language units.

- The term " morpheme" is derived from Greek morpheme " form". The Greek suffix – *eme* has been adopted by linguistics to denote the smallest unit or the minimum distinctive feature. Morphemes occur in speech only as constituent parts of words, not independently, although a word may consist of single morpheme. English words are composed of morphemes of different types: root-morphemes and affixational morphemes[1]. 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.

- 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. For example: teach, teacher, teaching.

- 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. Root and derivational affixes are generally easily distinguished and the difference between them is clearly felt as, 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.

• Morphemes are divided into two: free and bound. *Free morpheme* is a morpheme which is identical with the word-form. 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-*.

• *Bound morphemes* are those that do not coincide with separate word-forms, 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 be noted that morphemes may have different phonemic shapes. All the representations of the same morpheme that manifest alternation are called allomorphs or morphemic variants of that morpheme. For example, -ion, -tion, -sion, -ation are the positional variants of the same suffix, they don't 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 distribution.

• 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. According to the number of morphemes words can be classified into monomorphemic and polymorphemic. Monomorphemic or root-words consist of only one root morpheme. For example, small, dog, make, give. All polymorphemic words 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. For example, 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. 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 word-stock, and 2) their frequency value in actual speech. Frequency is by far the most important factor. 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, a trifle more than the number of compound words; adjective root words come to approximately 12%. 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.

• 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.

• So, if we divide morphemes into phonemes, phonemes unlike morphemes have no meaning. Phonemes are used to make up morphemes. So the difference between morphemes and phonemes is that morphemes have meanings but phonemes have not. A morpheme differs from a word too. Unlike a word a morpheme does not occur separately in speech. It occurs in speech as a constituent part of a word.

• The comparative study of the structure of words in English, Uzbek and Karakalpak shows that the number of simple, derived and compound words almost coincide. But when we translate the English words into Uzbek or Karakalpak we see some differences. In English the simple words are used more frequently than the derived and compound words. The Uzbek and Karakalpak languages are rich in derived and compound words and they are more often used in speech than in English. Let's illustrate some correspondents in English and in Uzbek (Karakalpak)[4]:

- 1.English: simple word –Uzbek: derived word
  - caprice- инжиклик (инжик), инжиклик
  - control- текшириш (текшир), тексериу
  - estimate-баҳолаш (баҳо), баҳалау
- 2.English: simple word – Uzbek: word group.
  - every-ҳар бир, ҳар қайси
  - essay-катта булмаган адабий асар
  - envy- рашқ қилмоқ

- 3. English: derived word- Uzbek : word group
  - compensation- компенсация (товон) тулаш
  - comparable- таққослаб (қиёслаб) буладиган
  - compel- мажбур қилмоқ
4. English: compound word- Uzbek: simple word
  - cross-country- кросс
  - dressing-gown- халат
  - downpour- сел, жала
5. English: derived word- Uzbek: simple word.
  - courageous- жасур, тетик
  - grievous- оғир мусибат
  - hosiery- трикотаж
6. English: compound word- Uzbek: derived word/
  - cow-boy- подачи (пода)
  - hugger-mugger- яширинча (яширин)
  - open-minded- зеҳнли (зеҳн)

- In Uzbek the root morphemes coincide with the stem and a wordform. They take affixal morphemes and the sound form of the root morpheme is not changed. For example: *бош* - a root-morpheme and the stem of the word- *бошланмоқ (бош+ла+н+моқ), темир* - a root morpheme and the stem is *темир, темирчилик (темир+чи+лик)*. In English the root morpheme also coincides with the stem in its sound form. For example: *friend* – the root morpheme is identical with the stem. The suffix *ship* is added to the stem *friend + ship = friendship*. In English there are some morphemes the isolation of which from other morphemes makes it meaningless. For example, pocket (pock), hamlet (ham). The morphemes *pock* and *ham* are unique morphemes, because they have no meaning.

- **10.2. The morphemic analysis of the word with the help of IC method.** The segmentation of words is generally carried out according to the method of Immediate and Ultimate Constituents[5]. This method is based on the binary principle, 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 (IC). 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. Let's analyze the word *ungentlemanly* . Breaking a word into its Immediate Constituents we observe in each cut the structural order of the constituent:
  1. *un-/ gentlemanly*
  2. *un-/ gentleman/-ly*
  3. *un-/ gentle/-man/-ly*

- The analysis of word-structure at the morphemic level must proceed to the stage of Ultimate Constituents (UC). 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*. The IC 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 IC *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. For example, the identification of the suffix –er leads to the segmentation of words *singer, teacher, swimmer, driver* into the derivational morpheme *–er* and the roots *sing, teach, swim, 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*.

- 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 out quite easily, on the other hand, they undoubted have nothing in common with the phonetically identical prefixes *re-, de-* as found in words *re-write, reorganize, de-organize, decode*. Moreover, the [-tein] or [si: v] do not 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 [-tein] 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[6]. 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.

- Thus, the comparison of the word with other words which have the same morphemes is very important for morphemic analysis. 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). *National* - into *nation and al*, because *al* occurs in a number of words such as: *occupational, musical, conditional*. At each stage of the process we receive two constituents. The parts of the word *denationalize, -de, - nation, -al, -ize* are ultimate constituents because they can not be divided further. They are morphemes. In this example, only *nation* can be said 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.

10.3. Principles of derivational analysis. The stem and its types.

- 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 derivational or word-formation relations. The analysis of derivative or derivational 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[7].

- 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.

- 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 modelled. *Simple stems* are generally monomorphemic 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 morpheme 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 derivational interrelations. So the stem of such words as retain, receive, horrible, pocket, motion 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.

- Bound lexical morphemes are affixes: prefixes (dis-), suffixes (-ish) and also blocked (unique) root morphemes (for example Friday, cranberry). Bound grammatical morphemes are inflexions (endings), for example: -s for the plural of nouns, -ed for the Past Indefinite of regular verbs, -ing for the Present Participle, -er for the comparative degree of adjectives. In the word forms *talk, talks, talked,*

talking we can receive the stem *talk*. The stem which comes in the paradigm *boy, boys, boy's, boys'* is *boy*. In *teacher , teacher's, teachers, teachers'* the stem is *teacher*.

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

- The stem *hop* can be found in the words: *hop, hops, hopped, hopping*. The stem *hippie* can be found in the words: *hippie, hippies, hippie's, hippies'* . Stems have not only the lexical meaning but also grammatical (part-of-speech) meaning, they can be noun stems (girl), adjective stems (girlish),verb stems (expel). They differ from words by the absence of inflexions in their structure, they can be used only in the structure of words.

- Sometimes it's difficult to distinguish between simple and derived words, especially in the cases of phonetic borrowings from other languages and of native words with blocked root morphemes. As far as words with splinters are concerned it's difficult to distinguish between derived words and compound-shortened words. If a splinter is treated as an affix (or a semi-affix), the word can be called derived. For example: *telescreen, maxi-taxi, shuttlegate, cheeseburger*. But if the splinter is treated as a lexical shortening of one of the stems, the word can be called compound-shortened word formed from a word combination where one of the components was shortened. For example *busnapper* was formed from *bus kidnapper*, *minijet* from *miniaturejet*.

- In the English language of the second half of the XX-th century there developed so called block compounds[8] That is compound words which have a uniting stress but a split spelling, such as *chat show, penguin suit*. Such compound words can be easily mixed up with word-groups of the type *stone wall*, so called nominative binomials. Such linguistic units serve to denote a notion which is more specific than the notion expressed by the second component and consists of two nouns, the first of which is an attribute to the second one. If we compare a nominative binomial with a compound noun with the structure N+N we shall see that a nominative binomial has no unity of stress. The change of the order of its components will change its lexical meaning. For example, *vid kid* is *a kid who is a video fan*, while *kid vid* means *a video-film for kids*, or *lamp oil* means *oil for lamps* and *oil lamp* means *a lamp which uses oil for burning*.

- **Answer the questions**

1. What is a morpheme? What is the word made up?
2. What is the difference between a morpheme and a phoneme?
3. What is the difference between a morpheme and a word?
4. What types of morphemes do you know?
5. What are free and bound morphemes?
6. What is the morphemic analysis?
7. How can we analyse the morphemic structure of words with the help of IC method?
8. What is the stem? What types of stems do you know?
9. What are the synchronic and diachronic approaches to the analysis of the stem?
10. What is the unit of the derivational level?

-

- **Recommended literature.**

1. Arnold I.V. The English word. Moscow, 1986.
2. Buranov J.B., Muminov O.M. A practical course in English lexicology. Tashkent, 1990.
3. Ginzburg R. S., Khidekel S.S.,Sankin A.A. A Course in Modern English Lexicology. Moscow, 1979.
4. Muminov O. M. Lexicology of the English language. Tashkent, 2006.
5. Mednikova E.M. Seminars in English Lexicology. Moscow, 1978.
6. Sheard J.A. The Words we use. Andre Deutsh. London, 1962.
7. Хидекель С.С., Гинзбург Р.З., Князева Г.Ю. и др. Английская лексикология в выдержках и извлечениях. Москва, 1969.

LECTURE 11

Theme: WORDFORMATION AND WAYS OF WORDFORMATION. AFFIXATION AND ITS SUBDIVITION

The plan

1. Wordformation and its basic peculiarities. Diachronic and synchronic study of wordformation.

2. Types and ways of wordformation.

3. Affixation and its subdivision. Semantics of affixes. Classification of affixes according to their structure and meaning. Homonymic and synonymic affixes. Polysemy of affixes.

Problems: to give the definition to the notion "wordformation"; to study the types and ways of wordformation, diachronic and synchronic approaches to the study of wordformation; productive and non-productive ways of wordformation, affixation and its subdivision.

Glossary: wordformation, structural formula, derivation, principal approaches, coining, basic linguistic unit, lexical unit, motivation, structural pattern, the morphemic analysis, stem, types of wordformation, ways of wordformation, affixation, conversion, word-composition, word-derivation, derivational compounds, soundinterchange, common, combination of morphemes, morphological basis, affix, prefix, suffix, stem.

11.1. Wordformation and its basic peculiarities.

- Wordformation is the creation of new words from the elements existing in the language. The famous scholars give the following definitions to the wordformation.

- " Wordformation is the process of creating new words from the material available in the language after certain structural and semantic formulas and patterns" (*Ginzburg*).

- " Wordformation is that branch of the science of anguage which the patterns on which a language forms new lexical units, i.e. words" (*H. Marchand*).

- " The term wordformation is applied to the process by which new words are formed by adding prefixes and suffixes or both to a root-form already in existence" (*J.A.Sheard*).

- Every language has its own structural patterns of wordformation. Words like *writer, worker, teacher, manager* and many others follow the structural pattern of wordformation **V** + **er** . Wordformation may be studied synchronically and diachronically. With regard to compounding, prefixing and suffixing wordformation proceeds either on a native or on a foreign basis of coining. The term native basis of coining means that a derivative must be analysable as consisting of two independent morphemes (in the event of a compound as *rainbow*) or of a combination of independent and dependent morpheme (in the case of prefixal and suffixal derivatives as *un-just, boy-hood*).

- By wordformation on a foreign basis of coining we understand derivation on the morphologic basis of another language. In English most learned, scientific or technical words are formed on the morphologic basis of Latin or Greek. (*Marchand*).

Diachronic and synchronic study of wordformation.

- Two principal approaches are applied in the science of language: the synchronic and the diachronic one. With regard to wordformation the synchronic linguist would study the present day system of formatting words types while the scholar of the diachronic school would write the history of wordformation. Marchand points out that mere semantic correlation is not enough to establish a phonological (phonemic) < morpho-phonemic opposition. For the speaker *dine* and *dinner, maintain* and *maintenance* and many others are semantically connected but a derivative connection has not developed out of such pairs, so their opposition is not relevant to wordformation.

- Thus, synchronically we study those of wordformation which characterize the present-day English linguistic system, while diachronically we investigate the history of wordformation. The synchronic type of wordformation does not always coincide with the historical system of wordformation. For example, the words *childhood, kingdom* were compound words: *hood* OE had (state, rank), *dom* OE dom- condemn. But synchronically they are considered as derived words because *–dom, -hood* became affixes. The words *return* and *turn* historically had semantic relations and *return* was considered as a word derived from *turn.* But synchronically these words have no semantic relations and we can't say that *return* is derived from *turn.*

- Synchronically the most important and the most productive ways of wordformation are: *affixation, conversion and word-composition.* Besides them there are other types of wordformation such as: shortening, soundinterchange, blending, back-formation, etc. In the course of the historical development of a language the productivity of this or that way of wordformation changes.

- For example, soundinterchange (blood-bleed, strike-stroke) was a productive way of wordformation in old English and it is an important subject-matter fro a diachronic study of the English

language. Soundinterchange has lost its productivity in Modern English and no new words can be formed by means of soundinterchange. Affixation on the contrary was productive in Old English and is still one of the most productive ways of wordformation in modern English.

- **11.2. Types and ways of wordformation.**
- Two types of wordformation may be distinguished: *word-derivation* and *word-composition*. Words formed by word-derivation have only one stem and one or more derivational affixes. (For example, *kindness* from *kind*). Some derived words have no affixes because derivation is achieved through conversion (For example, *to paper* from *paper*). Words formed by wordcomposition have two or more stems (For example, *bookcase, notebook*). Besides there are words created by derivation and composition. Such words are called derivational compounds (For example, *long-legged*).
- So the subject of study of wordformation is to study the patterns on which the English language builds words.
- The English, Uzbek and Karakalpak languages differ in the types of wordformation. Their ways of wordformationa are also different. Affixation, composition, shortening are very productive ways of wordformation in English, Uzbek and Karakalpak languages. In Uzbek and Karakalpak conversion, blending, soundinterchange (stressinterchange), backformation are less common type of wordformation. In English these types of wordformation are very common.

11.3. Affixation and its subdivision. Affixation is the formation of words with the help of derivational affixes. All morphemes are subdivided into two large classes: roots (or radicals) and affixes. Affixes fall into prefixes and suffixes. Derivational morphemes added before the stem of a word are called *prefixes* (as in *re-read, mis-pronounce, unwell, dislike*). Derivational morphemes added after the stem of a word are called *suffixes* (as in *teach-er, beauti-ful,, cur-able,diet-ate*).

- Words which consist of a root and an affix (or several affixes) are called *derived words or derivatives* and are produced by the process of word-building known as *affixation (or derivation)*. Derived words are extremely numerous in the English vocabulary. Successfully competing with this structural type is the so-called root word which has only a root morpheme in its structure.

- **The difference between suffixes and prefixes.** Affixation is subdivided into prefixation and suffixation. For example if a prefix *dis* is added to the stem *like (dislike)* or suffix *ful* to *law (lawful)* we say a word is built by an affixation. Prefixes modify the lexical meaning of the stem meaning, the prefixed derivative mostly belongs to the same part of speech. For example: like (v)- dislike (v), kind (adj.) - unkind., but suffixes transfer words to a different part of speech. For example: teach (v) – teacher (n).

- " We call prefixes such particles as can be prefixed to full words but are themselves not words with independent existence. Native prefixes have developed out of independent words. Their number is small: *a-, be-,un-* (negative and reversative) , *fore-, mid- and partly mis-*. Prefixes of foreign origin came into the language ready made, so to speak. They are due to syntagmatic loans from other languages: when a number of analyzable foreign words of the same structure had been introduced into the language, the pattern could be extended to new formations, i. e. the prefix then became a derivative morpheme. Some prefixes have secondarily developed uses as independent words as counter sub-arch which does not invalidate the principle that primarily they were particles with no independent existence. The same phenomenon occurs with suffixes also." (*H. Marchand*).

- But new investigations into the problem of prefixation in English showed interesting results. In English there are about 25 prefixes which can transfer words to a different part of speech. For example: head (n) – behead (v), bus (n) – debus (v), brown (adj.) –embrown (v), war (n) –prewar (adj.). If it is so we say that there is no functional difference between suffixes and prefixes. Besides there are linguists who treat prefixes as a part of word-composition (H. Marchand). They think that a prefix has the same function as the first component of a compound word. Other linguists consider prefixes as derivational affixes which differ essentially from root morphemes and stems (E. Kruizsinga).

- From the point of view of their origin affixes may be native and borrowed. The suffixes *–ness, -ish,-dom, -ful,-less,-ship* and prefixes *be-, mis-, un-, fore-*, etc. are of native origin. But the affixes *–able,-ment,-ation,-ism,-ist, re-, anti-, dis-* , etc. are of borrowed origin. They came form the Greek, Latin and French languages. Many if the suffixes and prefixes of native origin were independent words. In the course of time they have lost their independence and turned into derivational affixes (*-hood* OE had-state, rank, *-dom* from condemn, *ship* has developed from the noun *scipe* meaning state; the adjective-forming suffix *ly* has developed from the noun *dic* (body, shape). The prefixes out-, under-, over also have developed out of independent words. There are two ways in which a suffix may come into existence: 1) the suffix was once an independent word but is no longer one; 2) the suffix has originated as such

usually as a result of secretion. The first applies to a few native suffixes only. The suffixes –*dom, -hood* are independent words still in OE, so the process whereby a second word becomes a suffix can be observed historically. The second in the suffix –*ling* which is simply the extended form of the suffix –*ing* in words whose stem ended in –*l*.

- The contact of English with various foreign languages has led to the adoption of countless foreign words. In the process many derivative morphemes have also been introduced suffixes as well as prefixes as a consequence, we have many hybrid types of composites. Some foreign affixes as – ance, -al, -ity have never become productive with native words. (H. Marchand).

- **Semantics of affixes. Homonymic and synonymic affixes.** The morpheme, and therefore affix, which is a type of morpheme, is generally defined as the smallest indivisible component of the word possessing a meaning of its own. Meanings of affixes are specific and considerably differ from those of root morphemes. Affixes have widely generalized meanings and refer the concept conveyed by the whole word to a certain category, which is vast and all-embracing. So, the noun-forming suffix –*er* could be roughly defined as designating persons from the object of their occupation of labour (*painter*- the one who paints) or from their place of origin or abode (*southerner* – the one living in the South). The adjective-forming suffix – *ful* has the meaning of " full of, characterized by" (*careful*) whereas –*ish* may often imply insufficiency of quality (*greenish* – green but not quite; *youngish* – not quite young but looking it). These examples show that meaning of a derived word is a sum of the meanings of its morphemes: *un/eat/able*= "not fit to eat" where *not* stands for *un-* and *fit* for –*able*.

- There are numerous derived words whose meanings can really be easily deduced from the meanings of their constituent parts. The constituent morphemes within derivatives don't always preserve their current meanings and are open to subtle and complicated semantic shifts.

- Let us take some of the adjectives formed within the same productive suffix –*y* and try to deduce the meaning of the suffix from their dictionary definitions:
  - *brainy* (inform.)- intelligent, intellectual,i.e. characterized by brains
  - *catty* – quietly or styly malicious, spiteful, i.e. characterized by features ascribed to a cat
  - *chatty* – given to chat, inclined to chat
  - *dressy* (inform.)- showy in dress, inclined to dress well or to be overdressed
  - *fishy* (e.g. in *a fishy story* ,inform.) – improbable, hard to believe (like stories told by fishermen)
  - *foxy*- foxlike, cunning or crafty, characterized by features ascribed to a fox
  - *stagy* – theatrical, unnatural, inclined to affectation, to unnatural theatrical manners
  - *touchy*- apt to take offence on slight provocation, i.e. resenting a touch or contact (not at all inclined to be touched).

- The Random-House Dictionary defines the meaning of the –*y* suffix as characterized by or inclined to the substance or action of the root. The given examples show that it is not only the suffix that adds its own meaning to the meaning of the root, but the suffix is, in its turn, affected by the root and undergoes certain semantic changes, so that the mutual influence of root and affix creates a wide range of subtle nuances.

- Let's see some examples of adjective-forming suffixes:
  1. *eatable* (fit or good to eat), *lovable* (worthy of loving), *questionable* (open to doubt, to question), *imaginable* (capable of being imagined)
  2. *lovely* (charming, beautiful, i.e. *inspiring* love), *lonely* (solitary, without company; lone; the meaning of the suffix does not seem to add anything to that of the root), *friendly* (characteristic of or befitting a friend), *heavenly* (resembling or befitting heaven; beautiful, splendid)
  3. *childish* (*resembling* or *befitting a child*), *tallish* (rather tall, but not quite, *approaching the quality* of big size)

- Another problem of the study of affixes is homonymic affixes. **Homonymic affixes** are those which have the same sound form, spelling but different meaning and they are added to different parts of speech. For example, - ful :1) forms adjectives from a noun: beauty (n) –beautiful (adj.), man (n) – manful (adj.); 2) forms adjective from a verb: forget (v) –forgetful (adj.), thank –thankful; ly added to an adjective stem is homonymous to the adjective-forming suffix – ly (2) which is added to a noun stem: *quickly, slowly, lovely, friendly*. The verb suffix – *en* (1) added to a noun and adjective stem is homonymous to the adjective –forming suffix –*en* (2) which is added to a noun stem. For example: *to strengthen, to soften, wooden, golden*. The prefix *un-* (1) added to a noun and verb stem is homonymous to the prefix *un-* (2) which is added to an adjective stem. For example: *unbind, unfair, untrue*.

• In the course of the history of English as a result of borrowings there appeared many **synonymous affixes** in the language. For example, the suffixes *–er, -or, -ist, -ent, -ant, -eer, -ian, man, -ee,-ess* form synonymous affixes denoting the meaning " agent". Having the meaning of negation the prefixes *–un, -in,-non, -dis, -mis,* form synonymic group of prefixes. It is interesting to point out that the synonymous affixes help us to reveal different lexico-semantic groupings of words. For example, the words formed by the suffixes : -man, -er, -or,-ian, -ee, -eer, -ent, -ant, etc. belong to the lexico-semantic groupings of words denoting " doer of the action". **Polysemy of affixes.** The affixes may also undergo semantic changes, they may be polysemantic. For example, the noun-forming suffix *–er* has the following meanings: 1) persons following some special trade and profession (driver, teacher, hunter); 2) persons doing a certain action at the moment in question (packer, chooser, giver); 3) tools (blotter, atomizer, boiler, transmitter);

• The adjective-forming suffix "y" also has several meanings: 1) composed of, full of (bony, stony); 2) characterized by (rainy, cloudy) ; 3) having the character of resembling what the stem denoted (inky, bushy, etc.) . Thus, affixes have different characteristic features. There are nominal and verbal suffixes. The suffixes –fold, -most and –ward form words which are used both as adjectives and adverbs.

• The comparative analysis of the English language with other languages showed that English is not so rich in suffixes as, for example Uzbek or Karakalpak. The total number of suffixes 67 in English but the Uzbek suffixes are 171 and vice versa, prefixation is more typical to the English language than Uzbek and Karakalpak. In Karakalpak there are many affixes forming different parts of speech: the noun-forming suffixes:-*шы/ши* (суушы, падашы, теримши, балықшы); *дас /дес* (жолдас, қарындас, күндес, курдас), *шылық / шилик* (жуүершилик, дийханшылық, егиншилик, саудашшылық), -*лық / лик* (темиршилик, балықшылық, фермершилик, тууысқанлық, балалық), -*хана* (жатақхана, шайхана, асхана); the adjective-forming suffixes: *лы- ли* (тәртипли, сауатлы, атақлы, керекли), -*сыз-сиз* (мазасыз, хәлсиз, менсиз); -*дай –дей*; -*тай –тей* (айнадай,жақсыдай, оиымдағыдай); -*ғы-ги, қы-ки* (жазғы, қысқы, бәхәрги, түски); the verb-forming affixes: -*ла-ле* (дауыслы, гүрриңле, дузла, емле, тәрбияла); *лас-лес* (техникаласыу, активлесиу); -*ар-ер-р, ық-ик, ғар-гер, қар-кер, сы-син- , сын- син, шы-ши, қы-ки, ай- ей*. In Uzbek there are following prefixes: *бе-, но-,ба-, бо-, ним-*. By their origin the Uzbek affixes like English ones are divided into native and borrowed. The suffixes: -*чи,-гар,-зор,-лик, -ли, -оқ*   are native suffixes, but -*изм, -ация, -бо, -но, намо, -ки* are of borrowed origin. The affixes may be divided into different semantic groups, which may be different in different languages. For example, diminutive affixes in Uzbek are more than in English .

• **Diminutive**		• **Suffixes**
• In English		• In Uzbek
• - ie (birdie), -let (cloudlet, booklet),	•	-акай (иул-иулакай), -алак (дунгалак),
• -ling (wolfling), -ette (mountainette),	•	-гина (қизгина), -жон (дадажон),
• -ock (hillock), -y (Jony), -et (whippet),	•	-ка (иулка),-кач (тахтакач), -кина (гудаккина), -лоқ
• -kin (tigerkin)	•	(кизалоқ), -ой (Салимой),
	•	-он (уғлон), -оқ (бошоқ), - ча (аравача),
	•	-чак (тугунчак), -чиқ (қопчиқ), - чоқ (кузичоқ)

•

• As compared with the Uzbek language the negative affixes are more widely used in English. In Uzbek : -*сиз (кулсиз), бе- (бераҳм), -но (нохуш)* , in English: *-less (handless), a-, an- (anomalous), -un (unkind), dis (dislike), anti (antibiotic), de- (decode), in- (innocent), ir (irregular), im- (impossible), non (nondeductive)*. Though the number of Uzbek prefixes is very few (they are 8), they are capable of changing words from one part of speech into another. For example: адаб. (n)- боадаб (adj.), ҳосил (n) - серҳосил(adj.), илож (n)- ноилож (adj.), бахт (n) - бебахт (adj.), ранг (n) - нимранг (adj.)

Classification of affixes. Dead and living, productive and non-productive affixes. Classification of affixes according to their structure and meaning.

• **Dead and living, productive and non-productive affixes.** There are different classifications of affixes in linguistic literature. Affixes may be divided into dead and living. *Dead affixes* are those which are no longer felt in modern English as component parts of words. They can be singled out only by an etymological analysis. For example, admit (from L ad (mit- tere); deed, seed (-d), flight, bright (-t).

• *Living affixes* are easily singled out from a word. For example, freedom, childhood, marriage. Living affixes are traditionally in their turn divided into productive and non-productive. The term " productivity" is a subject of discussion among the linguists.

• K.E. Zimmer argues that , " the term *productive* is often used rather indiscriminately to refer both to certain aspects of the behaviour of the speakers of a language and to certain diachronic trends while there is presumably in many cases a connection between these two aspects of productivity. It is necessary to keep the distinction in mind. Moreover, and more importantly the concept of what we might term synchronic productivity is itself often used in a rather ill-defined way in the area of wordformation, and it is in many cases difficult to decide just what is being implied when a morphological process is said to be synchronically productive. (*K.E. Zimmer*).

• However, " it follows that productivity of word-building ways, individual derivational patterns and derivational affixes is understood as their ability of making new words which all, we speak English, find no difficulty in understanding, in particular their ability to create what are called occasional words" (*R.S. Ginzburg and others*). " A derivational pattern or a derivational affix are qualified as productive provided there are in word-stock dozens and hundreds of derived words built on the pattern or with the help of the suffix in questions. Derivational productivity is distinguished from wordformation activity by which is meant the ability of an affix to produce new words" (*E.S.Kubryakova*).

• " We call productive those affixes and types of wordformation which are used to form new words in the period in question. The proof of productivity is the existence of new words coined by these means. Therefore when we see that a notion that could not possibly have existed at some previous stage has a name formed with the help of some affix , the affix is considered productive" (*I.V.Arnold*).

• Another point of view is given by Ch. Hockett, " The productivity of any pattern-derivational, inflexctional or syntactical- is the relative freedom with which speakers coin new grammatical

• Froms by it. Thus, the formation of English noun-plurals with z, s, iz is highly productive. The addition of –ly to produce an adverbial is fairly productive. (*Ch. Hockett*).

• *Productive affixes* are those which are characterized by their ability to make new words. For example: *-er (baker, lander), -ist (leflist), -ism, -ish (baldish), -ing,-ness, -ation, -ee,-ry,-or,-ance,-ic* are productive suffixes, *re-,un-,non-, anti-*, etc are productive prefixes.

• *Non-productive affixes* are those which are not used to form new words in modern English. For example, *-ard,-cy,-ive,-en,-dom,-ship,-en,ify,* etc. are not productive suffixes; *in-,il-, ir im-* are not productive prefixes. These affixes may occur in a great number of words but if they are not used to form new words in modern English they are not productive.

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

• The native noun-forming suffixes –dom and –ship ceased to be productive centuries ago. Prof. I.V.Arnold in *The English word* gives some examples of comparatively new formations with the suffix *–dom: boredom,serfdom, slavedom*. The same is true about *–ship* (*salesmanship*). The adjective-forming –ish, which leaves no doubt as to its productivity nowadays, has comparatively recently regained it, after having been non-productive for many centuries. Some linguists distinguish between two types of prefixes (Е.С.Кубрякова. Что такое словообразование? Москва, 1965.): 1) those which are like functional words (such as prepositions or adverbs). For example *–out, -over, up;* 2) those which are not correlated with any independent words. For example, *-un,-dis,-re, mis*. Prefixes *out-,over-,up-, under*, etc. are considered as semibound morphemes. However, this view is doubtful because these prefixes are quite frequent in speech and have a generalized meaning. They have no grammatical meaning like the independent words. We think they are bound morphemes and should be regarded as homonyms of the corresponding independent words. For example, the prefix *out* in : *outdoor, outcome, outbreak* is homonymous to the preposition *out* in *out of door* and the adverb *out* in *He went out*.

Classification of affixes according to their structure and meaning.
Prefixes and suffixes may be classified according to their meaning: 1) prefixes of negative meaning such as: de-,non-, un-, in-,ir-,il-,im-, dis- (For example, defeat, decentralize, disappear, impossible, discomfort, etc.); 2) prefixes, denoting space and time relations: after, under-, for-, pre-, post-,over-,super- (For

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

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

The division of affixes according to what part of speech they form.

- Suffixes may be divided into different groups according to what part of speech they form:
- 1) noun-forming, those which form nouns: *-er, -dom,- ness,-ation, -ity,- age, -ance / ence, - ist, -hood, -ship,-ment*,etc; 2) adjective-forming: *-able,-ible,-uble, -al, -ian,-ese, -ate, -ed, -ful, -ive, -ous,-y,* etc. 3) numeral-forming: *teen, th, ty, etc*. 4) verb-forming: *-ate, -en, ify,-ize*; 5) adverb-forming: *ly,- ward,-wise.*

- Suffixes may be added to the stem of different parts of speech. According to this point of view they may be: 1) those added to verbs *:-er,-ing,-ment,-able*; 2) those added to nouns: *-less, ish, ful, ist, some*, etc.; 3) those added to adjectives: *-en, -ly,-ish,-ness*. Suffixes are also classified according to their stylistic reference: 1) suffixes which characterize neutral stylistic reference: *-able,-er,-ing* (For example, dancer, understandable, helping); 2) suffixes which characterize a certain stylistic reference: *-oid,-form,-tron,* etc. (asteroid, rhomboid, cruciform, cyclotron).

Answer the questions

1. What is the subject-matter of wordformation?
2. What ways of wordformation do you know?
3. What are the productive and non-productive ways of wordformation?
4. What are the basic ways of wordformation in modern English?
5. What do you understand by affixation? What is affixation subdivided into?
6. What is a prefix? What is a suffix?
7. What is the origin of affixes?What affixes do we call homonymic affixes?
8. What affixes do we call synonymous (polysemantic) affixes?
9. What noun-forming suffixes do you know?
10. What adjective-forming suffixes do you know?
11. What do you understand by dead and living affixes?
12. What is understood by the frequency of affixes?
13. Why can't we say the prefixes *out-, up-, under-* etc. to be semibound morphemes?
14. How do we classify the prefixes according to their meaning?
15. How can we divide the suffixes according to their meaning?

• Recommended literature.

1. Buranov J.B., Muminov O.M. A practical course in English lexicology. Tashkent, 1990.
2. Ginzburg R. S., Khidekel S.S.,Sankin A.A. A Course in Modern English Lexicology. Moscow, 1979.
3. Muminov O. M. Lexicology of the English language. Tashkent, 2006.
4. Marchand H. The categories and types of present day English wordformation. Wiesbaden, 1960.
5. Mednikova E.M. Seminars in English Lexicology. Moscow, 1978.
6. Каращук П.М. Словообразование английского языка. Москва, Высшая школа, 1977.

• LECTURE 12
Theme: WORD CLUSTER. WORD CLUSTER AND WORD FAMILY.
The plan

1. **The structure of a word-cluster.**
2. **Derivational and semantic relations of words in a word cluster.**
3. **Word cluster and word family. The development of the word cluster.**

- **Problems:** to study the word-cluster and its structure, derivational and semantic relations of words in a word cluster; to show the difference between the word cluster and word family and also to study the development of the word cluster.

Glossary: word cluster, derivatives, parts of speech, derivational affix, conversion, compounding, the members of the word cluster, origin, properties, set phrases, the study of conversion, synchronic, diachronic, means of paradigms, the result of an action, word family.

12.1. The structure of a word-cluster. Language is a system. The elements of the language are interrelated and interdependent. Word cluster is a group of words, which have semantically and

phonetically correlated with identical root morphemes. For example: *to lead, leader, leadership, leading, city, citify,cityism,cityful,cityish,citywards, cityite, citiness, ctied, citiward, cityless; family,familial, subfamily, superfamily, non-family, familist, familism, non-familial; finger,fingerlet,fingerling, refinger, forefinger, fingerable, fingerative.* etc.

The members o a word cluster belong as a rule to different parts of speech and are joined together only by the identity of the root morpheme.

Now most of the linguists are that in the vocabulary system there are different micro systems or subsystems (For example: synonyms, antonyms or homonyms), different lexico-semantic groupings and etc. And word cluster is one of the subsystems of the vocabulary of such kind. The terms can give a large word cluster. For example, the word cluster of polymer (хим. полимер) include the following words: *polymerize, polymerization, copolymer, copolymerize, copolymerization,* etc.

The stems of words making up a word cluster enter into derivational relations of different degrees. The zero degree of derivation is a simple word or a word, which its stem is homonymous with a word from and often with a root morpheme. Ex. *boy, atom, devote, girl.*

12.2. Derivational and semantic relations of words in a word cluster.

Derived words which are formed from the simple stems and which are formed by the application of one derivational affix are described as words having the first degree of derivation. For example, *boyish, atomic, girlish, devotion* etc.

Derived words, which are formed by two stages of coining, are the second degree of derivation. For example: *boyishness, atomic, girlishness, devotional*. The members of the word cluster may be derivatives formed by affixation, conversion, compounding. For example: *heart, to disheart, to dishearten, disheartenment, to heart, hearted, heartedness, to hearten, heartening, hearteningly, heartful, heartfully, heartfulness, heartily, heartiness, heartless, heartlessly, heartlessness, heartlet, heartlike, heartling, heartsome, heartsomely, hearty*. A word cluster includes the derivatives, which are structurally and semantically related. For example:

1) possess – эгалламоқ (владеть), possession- эгаллаш (владение) , possessioner – хужайн (владелец), possessor- хужайин (владелец), possessory – эга булиш (относящийся к владению) , possessive- мулкка эга булган (относящийся к собственности).

2) read – уқимоқ (читать) , read *adj*.- уқимишли (начитанный) , read n – уқиш (чтение), readable- уқиб буладиган (удобочитаемый) , readability – уқиб булишлик (удобочитаемость) , reader – уқувчи (читатель), readership – уқувчилар доираси (круг читателей, reading n. - , reading adj. – уқиётган (читающий) , reread – қайта уқимоқ (перечитать).

If we can't see these connections we can't include the derivative into a word cluster. For example: hand - handsome. These words are structurally related, i.e. they have structural relations but we can't say that the word *handsome* is formed from *hand* because in Modern English there is no semantic relation between *hand* and *handsome* (hand – рука (қул),   handsome- симпатичный (чиройли). On the contrary in words *knee* (колено) and *kneel* (становиться на коленях) we see that there is a semantic relation between these words but we can't include the word *kneel* into the word cluster of *knee* because there is no structural relation between them. The same is true with *dark- to darkle* (to grow dark) There is no structural relation between them too.

On the first step of the word cluster the derivatives of the first degree of derivation are in most cases nouns, verbs and adjectives. From the stem of the verb we can form only 3 parts of speech –verbs, nouns and adjectives. But from the stem of the noun are formed 4 parts of speech. For example: the noun *bed, breast, earth, foot, god, head, home, land* etc. may give 4 parts of speech on the first step of the word cluster. The length (the final step of a word cluster) includes 4 steps. Thus, the word clusters of different parts of speech may have different peculiarities.

12.3. Word cluster and word family. The development of the word cluster.

We must distinguish between the word cluster and the word family. The word family includes not only words making up a word cluster but also the words, which have a common meaning and semantic structure. Ex. *die-death, feed-food, think-thought, brother, brotherly, fraternal, mother, motherly, maternal*. The words *fraternal and maternal* are not the members of a word cluster. They are the members of a word family because there is no derivational relation between *mother and maternal, brother and fraternal, think-thought, feed-food, die-death, high-height, strong-strength*, etc. The members of a word cluster have derivational and semantic relations and if they have no such relations they can't be members of a word cluster[3].

The members of the word cluster are increased and enlarged or decreased as a result of the development of the English language. For example, the verbs *to unite , to combine, to prevent* up to the

XYI-th century did not give any derivatives but after 1500 (16 the century) they gave more than 20 derivatives, (united 1552, uniter 1587, unitive 1526, disunite 1560) (combiner 1610, combinable 1749, combination 1532, combinative 1855 etc), preventive 1639, preventer 1587, prevention 1528, preventingly 1731).

Different borrowed words may develop their word cluster differently. As a result of the development of the language in different historical periods of the English language a number of derivatives of words of different origin may be different. For example, in the XY-th century the Latin words in English such as *to suspect, to fix, to interrupt* each of them had only one derivative but the words of Scandinavian origin *to trust, to remark, to guess* gave 5 derivatives at that period of time.

The Scandinavian verbs *to dirty, to near, to skin* gave 1 or 2 derivatives after the XY-th century. But the Latin borrowings *to describe, to guess* gave 20 derivatives and each of them forms a large word cluster. This shows that the Latin borrowings are more active in wordformation than the Scandinavian borrowings.

Properties of a word cluster in English and in Uzbek may be different. The totally of the notion may be given by the related words bad in other language they may correspond to different words, or free and set phrases . For example: heart -юрак, hearten – руҳлантирмоқ, heartless-бераҳм, hearty - самимий ; hook – илгак, hooked –эгик, бугик, hooker –балик овлайдиган кема; hope –умидб ишонч, hopeful –умид қилувчи hopefulness –келажакка ишонч , hopelessness –иложсизлик.

Answer the questions

- 1. What is understood by a word cluster?
- 2. What is the degree of derivation in a word cluster?
- 3. What are the derivational relations in a word cluster?
- 4. How are the derivational relations within a word cluster represented graphically?
- 5. What is a word family?
- 6.What is the difference between a word cluster and a word family?

Recommended Literature

1. Arnold I.V. The English word. Moscow, 1986.
2. Buranov J.B., Muminov A.A. Practical course in English Lexicology. Tashkent, 1990.
3. Арбекова Т.И. Лексикология английского языка. Москва, 1977
4. Ginzburg R.S. Khidekel S.S. Knyazova G.Y. Sankin A.A. A course in Modern English Lexicology Moscow,1979.
5. Muminov O. M. Lexicology of the English language. Tashkent, 2006.

• LECTURE 13
Theme: CONVERSION.
The plan

1. The study of conversion on the diachronic and synchronic levels.
2. Conversion. The most common types of conversion.
3. Criteria of semantic derivation. Substantivization of adjectives.

- **Problems:** to give the definition to conversion; to study conversion on the diachronic and synchronic levels; to characterize the most common types of conversion; to describe the criteria of semantic derivation, substantivization of adjectives.

- **Glossary:** conversion, compounding, the members of the word cluster, origin, properties, set phrases, the study of conversion, synchronic, diachronic, means of paradigms, common types of conversion, the result of an action, word family.

- **13.1. Definition of conversion. The study of conversion on the diachronic and synchronic levels.** Conversion is a very productive way of forming new words in modern English (ex. *work- to work, pen – to pen, to wall- to walk*). The term "conversion" was first used by Sweet in his book "New English Grammar " 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. (Marchand H. The categories and types of present day English wordformation.Wiesbaden, 1960).Conversion is also defined as a shift from one part of speech to another. (A.G.Kennedy. Current English. USA. 1935). 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 sound interchange. Ex. Sing- song and paper n- paper 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. (А.И.Смирницкий. Лексикология английского языка. Москва, 1956). 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 Participle II) – *s,-ing*, are the paradigms of the verbs *to book*. In Uzbek: *китоблар, китобнинг, китобни,китобга, китобдан, китобда, китоби, китобинг, -лар, -нинг, -ни, -га, -да,-дан,-и, -им, -инг* are the paradigms of the noun «китоб». In Karakalpak: *китаплар, китаптын, китапты, китапга, китаптан, китапта, китабы, китабын, -лар, -тын, -ты, -га, -тан, -та, -ы, -ын* are the paradigms of the noun «китап». 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 norn in the XIII-th century as a result of the disappearance of inflexions in the course of the historical development of the English language in Middle English. For example, *lufu- luf- love* n.; *lufian- luf- love* v. *andswaru- andswarian-answer* n.; *andswarian- andswar- answer* v.

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.

- **13.2. Conversion. The most common types of conversion.**

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, 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.)- down. Nouns may be also formed from verb + postpositive phrases. For example: *to make up –a make-up, to call up- a call up, to take off-a take off*

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. For example:

a) verbs have instrumental meaning if they are formed from nouns denoting parts of human body: to eye, to finger, to elbow, to shoulder, etc. They have instrumental meaning if they are formed from nouns denoting tools, machines, instruments, weapons: 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: to crowd, to wolf, to ape;

c) verbs can denote acquisition, addition or deprivation if they are formed from nouns denoting an object: 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: 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: to winter, to week-end.

Nouns formed by means of conversion from verbs can denote: a) instant of an action: a jump, a move; b) process or state: sleep, walk; c) agent of the action expressed by the verb from which the noun has been converted: a help, a flirt, a scold; d) object or result of the action expressed by the verb from which the noun has been converted: a burn, a find, a purchase;

e) place of the action expressed by the verb from which the noun has been converted: 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. For example: to have a try, to give a push, to take a swim.

Derivations from the stems of other parts of speech are less common. For example: wrong (adj) – to wrong, up (adj) – to up, down (adv)- to down. Nouns may be also formed from verb + postpositive phrases. For example: to make up – a make+ up, to call up- a call+ up, to take off – a take +off.

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.

13.3. Criteria of semantic derivation. In conversion 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. For example: "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 bus" means, " to go by bus", " to week –end" means to "spend the week –end". Verbs can also be formed from adjectives, in such cases they denote the change of the state, for example: to tame (to become or make tame), to clean, to slim, etc. Derived nouns denote the act or the result of an action .Ex. *a knock* means *the result of*

knocking, *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. The problem of the criterion of semantic derivation was raised in linguistic literature not so long ago[6]. Prof. A.I. Smirnitsky was the first to put forward the theory of semantic derivation in his book on English Lexicology. Later on P.A. Soboleva developed A. Smirnitsky's ideas and worked out three more criterias:

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)-farther (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(v)-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. For example: *hand (n)-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.

Substantivization of adjectives. Some scientists (O.Jesperson and E. Kruisinga) refer substantivization of adjectives to conversion. (O.Jesperson. Growth and structure of the English language. Leipzig.1938. E. Kruisinga. A Handbook of present-day English. Part II, 1932.) But most scientists disagree with them because in cases of substantivization of adjectives we have quite different changes in the language.

Substantivization is the result of ellipsis (syntactical shortening) when a word combination with a semantically strong attribute loses its semantically weak noun (man, person). For example, *a grown-up person* is shortened to *a grown-up*. In cases of perfect substantivization the attribute takes the paradigm of a countable noun. For example: a criminal, criminals, a criminal's (mistake), criminals' (mistakes). Such words are used in a sentence in the same function as nouns. For example: I am fond of musicals (musical comedies). There are also two types of partly substantivized adjectives: those which have only the plural form and have the meaning of collective nouns, such as: sweets, news, empties, finals, greens, those which have only the singular form and are used with the definite article. They also have the meaning of collective nouns and denote a class, a nationality, a group of people. For example: the rich, the English, the dead.

A.O.Kennedy argues that it is necessary to recognize various stages of conversion: in "The poor are with us always " the adjective is not completely converted into a noun, but in "He sold his goods" has disappeared so completely that the word can take the plural ending – s like any other noun. When a word has changed its function to such an extent that it is capable of taking on new inflectional endings then the process of conversion may be considered complete.

Moreover, conversion may be regarded as complete when a word has been substantivized to the point where it can be modified by adjectives, as in "the others, a lunatic, goodreading"; or verbalized to the point where it can be modified by adverbs as *in telephone soon*, *motor often*. The substantivization of adjectives has always been an important process in English and is active today. In modern English there are a lot of word combinations of the type: *price rise, wage freeze, steel helmet, sand castle*, etc. In the first component of such units is an adjective converted from a noun, combinations of this type are free word-groups typical of English (adjective + noun). This point of view is proved by O.Jesperson by the following facts:

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

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

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

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

Answer the questions

- 1. What is understood by a word cluster? What is the degree of derivation in a word cluster?
- 2. What are the derivational relations in a word cluster?
- 3. How are the derivational relations within a word cluster represented graphically?
  16. What is the difference between a word cluster and a word family?
  17. When was the term "conversion" first used?
  18. What approaches to the study of conversion do you know?
  19. What is A.I.Smirnitsky's point of view to conversion?
  20. What problems of conversion do you study on the diachronic level?
  21. What is the origin of conversion? How is conversion treated on synchronic level?
  22. What are the most common types of conversion?
  23. What is the substantivization of adjectives?
  24. What semantic relations are there between the components of word combinations?

Recommended Literature

6. Arnold I.V. The English word. Moscow, 1986.
7. Buranov J.B., Muminov A.A. Practical course in English Lexicology. Tashkent, 1990.
8. Арбекова Т.И. Лексикология английского языка. Москва, 1977
9. Ginzburg R.S. Khidekel S.S. Knyazova G.Y. Sankin A.A. A course in Modern English Lexicology Moscow,1979.
10. Muminov O. M. Lexicology of the English language. Tashkent, 2006.
11. П.А.Соболева. Словообразовательные отношения по конверсии между глаголом и отглагольным существительным в современном английском языке. Дисс. На соис. уч.степ. канд.фил. наук. Москва, 1959.

- **LECTURE 14.**
- **Theme: WORD COMPOSITION. COMPOUND WORDS.**
- **The plan**

1. **Definition of compound words.**
2. **The motivation of compounds.**
3. **Classification of compound words.**

Problems : to give the definition to compound words; to describe the compound words and their meanings, the motivation of compounds; to give the classification of compound words, to characterize the types of the relations of components in compound words.

Glossary : compound words, component, combined lexical meaning, motivated, non- motivated, a linking element, coordination, subordination, semantic pattern, word- groups, compounds, free word groups, syntactic rules, separable, inseparable, change of meaning, criteria, to distinguish.

- **14.1. Definition of compound words.** Modern English is very rich in compound words. Compound words are made up by joining two or more stems. For example: *taxi- driver, paint – box, bookcase.* Many scholars have claimed that a compound is determined by the underlying concept, others have advocated stress some even seek the solution of the problem in spelling, Jesperson also introduced the criterion of concept and rejected Bloomfield's criterion of stress.

For a combination to be a compound there is one condition to be fulfilled; the compound must be morphologically isolated from a parallel syntactic group. " Blackbird" has the morpho-phonetic stress pattern of a compound " black markets", has not, despite its phrasal meaning; the latter therefore is a syntactic group, morphologically speaking stress is a criterion here. (*H. Marchand*).

Another scholars give the following definitions of compound words[1]:

" Word-compounding is a process similar to but not the same as telescoping or blends; two words are joined, but compounding differs in that no part of either word is lost. For example: blackbird, bookcase. In the examples the elements have been fused, making one word". (*Sheard*).

" Compound words are words consisting of at least two stems which occur in the language as free forms. In a compound word the immediate constituents obtain integrity and structural cohesion that make them function in a sentence as a separate lexical unit". (*I.V. Arnold*).

"Word-composition or compounding is a distinct type of words made up by joining together two stems (mostly stems of notional parts of speech)" (R.S.*Ginzburg and others*).

" Among the word-like features of the forms which we class as compound words, indivisibility is fairly frequent; we can say " black- I should say" bluish black-birds, but we do not use the compound word *blackbird* with a similar interruption. Generally, a compound-member cannot, like a word in a phrase, serve as a constituent in a syntactic construction. The word " *black*" in the phrase " *black birds*" can be modified by " *very black birds*", but not so the compound- member " *black*" in *blackbirds*". (*Bloomfield*).

- **14.2. The motivation of compounds.**

A compound word has a single semantic structure. We distinguish the meaning of the compound words from the combined lexical meanings of its components. For example:

pencil- case is *a case for pencils*. The meaning of the compound words is derived not only from the combined lexical meanings of its components but also from the order and arrangement of the stems. A change in the order of components of compound words brings a change in their lexical meaning. For example, *life-boat-* a boat of special construction for saving lives; *boat-life*-life on board of a ship; *a fruit-market*-market where fruit is sold, *market-fruit* - fruit for selling.

14.3. Classification of compound words. Compound words are classified into completely motivated[2], partially motivated and non-motivated compound words. In completely motivated compound words the lexical meaning of compounds is easily deduced from the lexical meanings of the stems. For example: *book-case, foot-step, door-handle, bottle-opener*. The compound words *a flower-bed, walk-up* are partially motivated compounds because we can guess their meaning partially. The compounds in which the connection between the meaning and structure and the meanings of components of compounds can not be seen from the meaning of its components are called non-motivated compound words. For example: *wall-flower*-a woman who remains at wall and is not invited to a dance; *night-cap*-drink taken before going to bed at night. Some linguists advocate the semantic criterion. They define a compound word as a combination of words expressing a single idea[3] (Jesperson O. A Modern English Grammar on Historical Principles. London, 1946. Kruisinga E. A handbook of Present-day English. 1932).

Compound words may be classified from the functional points of view or according to their belonging to different parts of speech. Many of English compounds belong to nouns and adjectives: *armchair, sitting room, looking- glass, blackboard, homework, grammar school*.

From the point of view how the components are joined together the compound words may be classified into: compounds whose components are joined with a linking elements.(*Afro-Asion, Anglo-Saxon, sportsman, handicraft, statesman*) and without a linking element (*snowball, rain coat, door-handle, door-step*). Compound words are also classified according to different ways of compounding. In this case we divide them into two groups:

1) compound words proper. Such kind of compounds are formed by joining together stems of words and these compounds have no derivational affix. The components of such compounds are simple stems. For example: *door-step, looking-glass, table-cloth, whitewash, bookcase*.

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

Answer the questions

1. What is understood by the compound words?
2. What is the motivation of the compound words?
3. How do we classify compound words from the functional point of view?
4. How do we classify compound words from the point of view how the components are joined together?

5. What is the classification of compound words according to different ways of compounding?
6. What are the coordinative and subordinative relations in compound words?
7. What is the difference between compound words and word groups?
8. What is the inseparability of compound words?
9. What are the synchronic and diachronic approaches to the study of compound words?

Recommended Literature
1. Arnold I.V. The English word. Moscow, 1986.
2. Buranov J.B., Muminov A.A. Practical course in English Lexicology. Tashkent, 1990.
3. Арбекова Т.И. Лексикология английского языка. Москва, 1977
4. Ginzburg R.S. Khidekel S.S. Knyazova G.Y. Sankin A.A. A course in Modern English Lexicology Moscow,1979.
5. Muminov O. M. Lexicology of the English language. Tashkent, 2006.

- ### LECTURE 15.
- ### Theme: CLASSIFICATION OF COMPOUND WORDS. COMPOUND WORDS AND WORD GROUPS
- #### The plan
1. **Structural types of compound words. Compound nouns.**
2. **Compound adjectives.**
3. **The difference between the compound words and word groups. The types of relations of components in compound words.**

Problems : to give the definition to compound words; to describe the compound words and their meanings, the motivation of compounds; to give the classification of compound words, to characterize the types of the relations of components in compound words; to show the difference between the compound words and word groups.

Glossary : compound words, component, combined lexical meaning, motivated, non- motivated, a linking element, coordination, subordination, semantic pattern, word- groups, compounds, free word groups, syntactic rules, separable, inseparable, change of meaning, criteria, to distinguish.

-
- **15.1. Structural types of compound words. Compound nouns.**
- **15.2. Compound adjectives.**
- **15.3. The difference between the compound words and word groups. The types of relations of components in compound words.** Compound words differ from free word-groups, they are inseparable vocabulary units. Compound words structurally, phonetically and graphically are inseparable. Structurally compounds are inseparable because if we change the places of components of compounds we see the change of meaning in compounds or they will not be compounds. For example: *boat-life –life on ship*, *life-boat – a boat which is used for saving*. If we change the places of components of compound word *long-legged* in this way *legged long* it will not be a compound word. So the inseparability in structure of compounds can be seen in their specific order and arrangement of stems.

The compounds are phonetically inseparable as the components of them have only one stress. Mostly the first component is stressed. For example, *pen-knife, book-case, doorway, bookshelf*. There are some compounds which have a double stress. In this case we have the primary stress on the first component and a weaker secondary stress on the second component. For example, mad-doctor, washing-machine, money-order, etc. These stress patterns in many cases may be used as a criteria of distinguishing compound words from free word groups. As we know both components of free word groups are always stressed. For example: *a 'green –house* (compound) – *a 'glass-house, a 'green 'house* (word group) – a house that is painted green, *dancing-girl* (compound) – a dancer, *dancing girl* – (word group) a girl who is dancing.

Graphically compounds have two types of spelling they are written either together or with a hyphen. This is also one of the criteria of distinguishing of compounds from word groups. Some linguists advocate the semantic criterion. They define a compound word as a combination of words expressing a single idea. This point of view causes some doubt. Because it does not give us sufficient ground to distinguish between the cases of compound words and idiomatic set phrases.

Like other linguistic phenomena we approach to the study of compounds synchronically and diachronically. Synchronically we study the structural and semantic patterns of compound words, while

diachronically we study the various changes compound words undergone in the course of time and the way compound words appear in the language.

Some compounds, which were formed in old English, can't be considered compound words. The morphological structure of a word loses the meaning and undergoes phonetic changes. This case is called implication. For example: woman (OE)- wifmasn (woman-person), daisy (OE)- dass ease (day's eye).

There are two types of relationship in linguistic literature: that of *coordination* and *subordination* and accordingly compound words may be classified into coordinate[4] and subordinate[5]. In coordinative compounds the components are structurally and semantically independent. In subordinate compounds the components are based on the domination of one component over the other. For example: *road-building, baby-sitter, woman-doctor.*

Subordinative compounds may be syntactic which depends on syntactic rules. For example: *mad-doctor, blue bell, a slow-coach* (ad j+ n) and a syntactic, for example: *red-hot, oil-rich, long-legged,* (adj. + adj.) there is no syntactic rule and it does not depend on the syntactic rules. Many compounds are polysemantic. For example the verb *to whitewash* has the following meanings: 1. make white with whitewash; 2. to glass or cover up vices, crimes,etc. But their polysemy is not based on the polysemy of their constituents. They develop a polysemy of their own.

Answer the questions

1. What structural types of compound words can be distinguished?
2. What are compound nouns?
3. What are compound adjectives?
4. How do we classify compound words from the functional point of view?
5. How do we classify compound words from the point of view how the components are joined together?
6. What is the classification of compound words according to different ways of compounding?
7. What are the coordinative and subordinative relations in compound words?
8. What is the difference between compound words and word groups?

Recommended Literature

1. Arnold I.V. The English word. Moscow, 1986.
2. Buranov J.B., Muminov A.A. Practical course in English Lexicology. Tashkent, 1990.
3. Арбекова Т.И. Лексикология английского языка. Москва, 1977
4. Ginzburg R.S. Khidekel S.S. Knyazova G.Y. Sankin A.A. A course in Modern English Lexicology Moscow,1979.
5. Muminov O. M. Lexicology of the English language. Tashkent, 2006.

- **LECTURE 16**
- **Theme: SECONDARY WAYS OF WORDFORMATION.**
- **The plan**

1. **Shortening, clippings and abbreviations. Classification of abbreviations.**
2. **Other secondary ways of wordformation (soundinterchange, backformation, blending, etc.)**
3. **Splinters and their properties.**

Problems : to characterize the secondary ways of wordformation –shortening, clipping, abbreviation, soundinterchange, stress interchange, sound imitation, backformation, blending; to give and describe the classification of abbreviations and their meanings; to characterize splinters and their properties.

Glossary : secondary ways of wordformation, shortening, clipping, abbreviation, soundinterchange, stress interchange, sound imitation, backformation, blending, graphical complex, shortened words, derivational process, cutting off, syllables, peculiarities, extra-linguistic, word groups, monosyllabic words, graphical abbreviations, initialisms, the part-of-speech meaning, splinters, properties.

- **16.1. Shortening, clippings and abbreviations. Classification of abbreviations.**

The shortening of words means substituting a part for a whole, part of the word is taken away and used for the whole. For example: *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. For example: exam (colloq) examination (neutral), chap (colloq), chapman (neutral).

Shortened words are structurally simple words and in most cases have the same lexical meaning as the longer words from which they are derived[6]. 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.

Abbreviation consists of the first letters of a word group or a compound word (U.K.CHH,USA, BBC, NATO, MP) 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. For example: *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: for example: *ad* (advertisement), *lab* (laboratory), *Jap* (Japanese), *doc* (doctor), *sis* (sister), *hols* (holidays), *props* (properties), *circs* (circumstances);

2) words that have been shortened at the beginning : for example: *car* (motor car), *phone* (telephone), *van* (caravan), *cast* (broadcast), *fence* (defence);

3) words in which syllables have been omitted from the middle the so called syncope. For example: *Maths* (mathematics), *specs* (spectacles), *mart* (market), *fanzine* (fan magazine);

4) words that have been shortened at the beginning and at the end: for example: *flu* (influenza), *tec* (detective), *frig* (refrigerator), *tec* (detective), *van* (vanguard).

Clippings and abbreviations have some peculiarities as simple words. They take the plural endings and that of the possessive case. They take grammatical inflexions. For example: *exams, docs, cars, 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. For example, *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. For example: vac- vacation; vac – vacuum-cleaner; prep – preparation; prep – preparatory school. So *g.f.* is a shortened word made from the compound *girl-friend*. In the following conversation it has another meaning:

-Who's the letter from?

- My g.f.

- Didn't know you had girl-friends. A nice girl?

- Idiot! It's from my grandfather!

In abbreviations we stress each letter. For example: TUC – Trade Union Congress. If they are pronounced in accordance with the rules of phonetics we stress the first syllable. For example: NATO [neitou], UNO [ju:nou], BBC – British Broadcasting Corporation, Cent- Centrigate, AP –Associated Press, GPO – General Post Office, USA – United States of America, UNESCO – United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization, USAF – United States Air Force, WFDY- World Federation of Democratic Youth, WFTU – World Federation of Trade Unions, SEATO – South-East Asia Treaty Organization, UK – United Kingdom, NAS – National Academy of Sciences, NY – New-York, NZ – New Zealand, MD – Doctor of Medicine, FAP – First Aid Post.

sub (submarine), surg (surgeon), Sept (September), Serg (sergeant), esp. (especially), capt (captain), lat (latitude), Wash (Washington), Wed (Wednesday), usu (usually), pref (preface), prof (professor), prox (proximo), mos (months), quot (quotation), Russ (Russian), Sat (Saturday), vol. (volume), rep (representative), suppl (supplement).

There are two main types of shortenings: graphical and lexical. Graphical abbreviations are the result of shortening of words and word-groups only in written speech while orally the corresponding full forms are used. They are used for the economy of space and effort in writing. The oldest group of graphical abbreviations in English is of Latin origin. In Russian and Uzbek this type of abbreviation is not typical. In these abbreviations in the spelling Latin words are shortened, while orally the corresponding English equivalents are pronounced in the full form. For example: a.m. – in the morning (ante meridiem), p.m.- in the afternoon (post meridiem), No – number (numero), p.a.- a year (per annum, d – penny (dinarius, pound (libra), i.e.- that is (id est). Some graphical abbreviations of Latin origin have different English equivalents in different contexts. For example: p.m. can be pronounced "in the afternoon" (post meridiem) and "after death" (post mortem). There are also graphical abbreviations of native origin, where in the spelling we have abbreviations of words and word-groups of the corresponding English equivalents in the full form. We have several semantic groups of them:

1.Days of the week: Mon-Monday, Tue- Tuesday.

2. names of months:Apr.-April, Aug-August

3. names of countries in UK: Yorks-Yorkshire,Berks-Berkshire

4. names of states in the USA: Ala-Alabama, Alas- Alaska

5. names of address: Mr., Mrs., Ms., Dr.

6. military ranks: capt.-Captain, col. –colonel,sgt.- sergeant

7. scientific degrees: B.A.-Bachelor of Arts, D.M.-Doctor of Medicine. Sometimes in scientific degrees we have abbreviations of Latin origin: M.B.- Medicine Baccalaurus

8. units of time, length, weight: f./ ft- foot/ feet, sec. – second, in. – inch, mg.- milligram. The reading of some graphical abbreviations depends on the context. For example: "m" can be read as : male, married, masculine, metre, mile, million, minute, "l.p." can be read as long-playing, low pressure

Initialisms are the bordering case between graphical and lexical abbreviations. When they appear in the language as a rule, to denote some new offices they are closer to graphical abbreviations because orally full forms are used. For example: j.v. – joint venture. When they are used for some duration or time they acquire the shortened form of pronouncing and become closer to lexical abbreviations. For example: BBC is as a rule pronounced in the shortened form.

In some cases the translation of initialisms is next to impossible without using special dictionaries. Initialisms are denoted in different ways. Very often they are expressed in the way they are pronounced in the language of their origin. For example: ANZUS (Australia, New Zealand, United States), SALT (Strategic Arms Limitation Talks). In Russian as (договор об ограничении стратегических вооружений). There are three types of initialisms in English:

a) initialisms with alphabetical reading, such as UK,BUP,CND,etc.

b) initialisms which are read as if they are words: UNESCO,UNO

c) initialisms which coincide with English words in their sound form, such initialisms are called acronyms: CLASS (Computor-based Laboratory for Automated School System)

Some scientists unite groups b) and c) into one group which they call acronyms. Some initialisms can form new words in which they act as root morphemes by different ways of word-building:

a) affixation: AWALism, ex-rafer, ex-POW, to waafize, AIDSophobia;

b) conversion: to raff, to fly IFR (Instrument Flight Rules);

c) composition: STOLport, USAFman;

d) there are also compound-shortened words where the first component is an initial abbreviation with the alphabetical reading and the second one is a complete word: A-bomb, U-pronunciation, V-day. In some cases the first component is a complete word and the second component is an initial abbreviation with the alphabetical pronunciation: Three-Ds (Three dimensions)

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

Abbreviation does not change the part-of-speech meaning, as we have it in the case of conversion or affixation, it produces words belonging to the same part of speech as the primary word. For example: *prof.* is a noun and *professor* is also a noun. Mostly nouns undergo abbreviation, but we can also meet abbreviation of verbs, such as *to rev.* from *to revolve*, *to tab* from *to tabulate*. But mostly abbreviated forms of verbs are formed by means of conversion from abbreviated nouns: to taxi, to vac. Adjectives can be abbreviated but they are mostly used in school slang and are combined with suffixation. For example: comfy, dilly, mizzy. As a rule pronouns, numerals, interjections, conjunctions are not abbreviated. The exceptions are: fif (fifteen), teen-ager, in one's teens.

Lexical abbreviations are classified according to the part of the word which is clipped. Mostly the end of the word is clipped, because the beginning of the word in most cases is the root and expresses the lexical meaning of the word. This type of abbreviation is called apocope. Here we can mention a group of words ending in "o", such as disco (discotheque), expo (exposition), intro (introduction) and many others. On the analogy with these words there developed in modern English a number of words where "o" is added as a kind of a suffix to the shortened form of the word. For example: combo (combination) to, Afro (African). In other cases the beginning of the word is clipped. In such cases we have apheresis: chute (parachute), varsity (university), copter (helicopter), thuse (enthuse). Sometimes shortening influences the spelling of the word. For example "c" can be substituted by "k" before "e" to preserve pronunciation: mike (microphone), Coke (coca-cola). The same rule is observed in the following cases: fax (facsimile), teck (technical college), trank (tranquilizer). The final conson1

16.3. Other secondary ways of wordformation. Soundinterchange is an alternation in the phonetic composition of the root. Soundinterchange 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 by shifting the place of the stress[8].

Soundinterchange may be divided into vowel interchange and consonant interchange. For example: full – to fill, food-to feed, blood-to bleed, strong-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 advise, use- to use, speak-speech, break-breach, defence –defend, offence -offend. The scientists argue that sound interchange is the way of word-building when some sounds are changed to from a new word. It is non-productive in modern English. It was productive in Old English and can be met in other Indo-European languages.

Stress interchange. Stress interchange can be mostly met in verbs and nouns of Romantic origin: nouns have the stress on the first syllable and verbs on the last syllable. For example: accent – to accent. This phenomenon is explained in the following way: French verbs and nouns had different structure when they were borrowed into English, verbs had one syllable more than the corresponding nouns. When these borrowings were assimilated in English the stress in them was shifted to the previous syllable (the second from the end). As a result of it we have such pairs in English as: to con'flict – 'conflict; to ex'port – 'export, to ex'tract – 'extract, etc. As a result of stress interchange we have also vowel interchange in such words because vowels are pronounced differently in stressed and unstressed positions.

Answer the questions

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? What is the peculiarity of shortened words?
5. What is the difference between the clipping and the original word?
6. What is the homonymy of abbreviations?What is the classification of abbreviations?
7. What do you understand by the term "soundinterchange"?

Recommended Literature

1. Arnold I.V. The English Word Moscow, 1986.
2. Ginzburg R.S. et.al. A course in Modern English Lexicology. Moscow, 1979.
3. Karl E. Zimmer. Affixal negation in English and other languages: An investigation of restricted productivity, supplement to word. Vol. 20, № 2, August, 1964, monograph № 5.
4. Mednikova E.M. Seminars in English Lexicology. Moscow, 1978.
5. Sheard J.A. The words we use. Andre Deautsh. L, 1962.
6. Дмитриева А.Г. Структура словообразовательных гнёзд общегерманских существительных в современном английском языке. Москва, 1971.

- **LECTURE 17**
- **Theme: SECONDARY WAYS OF WORDFORMATION.**
- **The plan**

4. **Secondary ways of wordformation.Sound imitation.**
5. **Backformation and blending.**
6. **Splinters and their properties.**

Problems : to characterize the secondary ways of wordformation –sound imitation, backformation, blending; to give and describe the classification of abbreviations and their meanings; to characterize splinters and their properties.

Glossary : secondary ways of wordformation, shortening, clipping, abbreviation, soundinterchange, stress interchange, sound imitation, backformation, blending, graphical complex, shortened words, derivational process, cutting off, syllables, peculiarities, extra-linguistic, word groups, monosyllabic words, graphical abbreviations, initialisms, the part-of-speech meaning, splinters, properties.

17.1. Sound imitation (Onomatopoeia). It is the way of word-building when a word is formed by imitating different sounds. This type of wordformation is now also called *echoism* (the term was introduced by O.Jespersen). There are some semantic groups of words formed by means of sound imitation: a) sounds produced by human beings, such as : to whisper, to giggle, to mumble, to sneeze, to whistle,etc; b) sounds produced by animals, birds, insects, such as: to hiss, to buzz, to bark, to moo, to

twitter, etc; c) sounds produced by nature and objects, such as: to splash, to rustle, to clatter, to bubble, to ding-dong, to tinkle, etc.

17.2. Backformation. The term *back-formation* has a diachronic relevance (historical meaning). It is the way of word-building when a word is formed by dropping the final morpheme to form a new word. It is opposite to suffixation, that is why it is called backformation. At first it appeared in the language as a result of misunderstanding the structure of a borrowed word. Prof. V.I. Yartseva explains this mistake by the influence of the whole system of the language on separate words[9]. (В.И.Ярцева. Развитие национального литературного английского языка. Москва, 1968). For example, it is typical of English to form nouns denoting the agent of the action by adding the suffix – er to a verb stem (speak-speaker). So when the French word beggar was borrowed into English the final syllable –ar was pronounces in the same way as the English –er and Englishmen formed the verb " to beg" by dropping the end of the noun. Other examples of backformation are: to accreditate (from accreditation), to bach (from to bachelor), to collocate (from collocation), to enthuse (from enthusiasm), to compute (from computer), to emote (from emotion), to televise (from television). 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 typewriter, because we do not feel any difference between the relationship "speak-speaker" and "beg-beggar". But if we study their origin we see butle was derived from "butler", "to beg" was derived from" beggar". So backformation " denotes the derivation of new words by subtracting a real or supposed affix from existing words through misinterpretation of their structure" (I.V.Arnold. The English word. Moscow, 1986, p.150).

Blending. Blending is the formation of a new word by a connection of parts of two words to form one word. For example , one of the first blends in English the noun " smog" is composed of the parts of nouns "smoke" and "fog". The result of blending is an unanalysable simple word. We do not analyse the blended words, because their parts can't be called morphemes. For example: clash – clapcrash; flush – flash H-blush; slanguage = slang + language, brunch= breakfast+ lunch, smare= smoke+ haze, seadrome= sea+ airdrome.   There are many blends in the terminological vocabulary: racon= radar+ beacon, transceiver= transmitter+ receiver. Thus, blending is compounding by means of curtailed (shortened) words. Blends formed from two synonyms are : slanguage, to hustle, gasohol. Mostly blends are formed from a word-group, such as: acromania (acronym mania), cinemadict (cinema addict), chunnel (channel, canal), dramedy (drama comedy), detectifiction (detective fiction), faction (fact fiction), informecial (information commercial), medicare (medical care), magalog (magazine catalogue), slimnastics (slimming gymnastics), socialite (social elite), slanguist (slang linguist).

17.3. Splinters and their properties.
In the second half of the XX-th century the English wordbuilding system was enriched by creating so called splinters[7] which scientists include in the affixation stock of the modern English wordbuilding system. Splinters are the result of clipping, the end or the beginning of a word and producing a number of new words on the analogy with the primary word-group. For example, there are many words formed with the help of the splinter *mini* (apocopy produced by clipping the word *miniature*) such as *miniplane, minijet, minicycle,minicar, miniradio* and many others. All of these words denote objects of smaller than normal dimensions.

On the analogy with mini there appeared the splinter *maxi* (apocopy produced by clipping the word maximum), such words as *maxi-series, maxi-sculpture, maxi-taxi* and many others appeared in the language. When European economic community was organized quite a number of neologisms with the splinter Euro- were coined, such as : *Euroatom, Eurocard, Euromarket, Europlug, Eurotunnel* and many others. These splinters are treated sometimes as prefixes in Modern English.

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

The splinter *cade* developed by clipping the beginning of the word *cavalcade* which is of Latin origin. In Latin the verb with the meaning *to ride a horse* is *cabalicare* and by means of the inflexion –ata the corresponding Participle is formed. So the element *cade* is a combination of the final letter of the stem and the inflexion. The splinter *cade* serves to form nouns with the meaning " connected with the

procession of vehicles denoted by the first component). For example: *aircade* – a group of airplanes accompanying the plane of a VIP, *autocade* – a group of automobiles escorting the automobile of a VIP, *musicade* – an orchestra participating in a procession.

The splinter *napper* was formed by clipping the beginning of the word kidnapper and is used to denote different types of crimesters, such as: *busnapper, babynapper, dognapper*. From such nouns the corresponding verbs are formed by means of backformation : *to busnap, to babynap, to dognap*. The splinter *omat* was formed by clipping the beginning of the word *automat* (a café in which meals are provided in slot-machines). The meaning " self-service" is used in such words as *laundromat, cashomat*. Another splinter eteria with the meaning " self-service" was formed by clipping the beginning of the word cafeteria. By means of the splinter *eteria* the following words were formed: *groceteria, booketeria, booteteria* and many others.

Splinters can be called pseudomorphemes because they are neither roots nor affixes, they are more or less artificial. Splinters have only one function in English: they serve to change the lexical meaning of the same part of speech, whereas prefixes and suffixes can also change the part-of-speech meaning.

Answer the questions

1. What do you understand by the term "soundinterchange"?
2. What is the distinction between vowel-interchange and consonant-interchange?
3. What can you tell about stress interchange and sound imitation?
4. What is understood by the term "backformation"?
5. What is the peculiarity of blending as a means of wordformation?
6. What is a splinter? Give examples on splinters.

Recommended Literature

1. Arnold I.V. The English Word Moscow, 1986.
2. Ginzburg R.S. et.al. A course in Modern English Lexicology. Moscow, 1979.
3. Karl E. Zimmer. Affixal negation in English and other languages: An investigation of restricted productivity, supplement to word. Vol. 20, № 2, August, 1964, monograph № 5.
4. Mednikova E.M. Seminars in English Lexicology. Moscow, 1978.
5. Sheard J.A. The words we use. Andre Deautsh. L, 1962.
6. Дмитриева А.Г. Структура словообразовательных гнёзд общегерманских существительных в современном английском языке. Москва, 1971.

• LECTURE 18.
• PHRASEOLOGY IN MODERN ENGLISH.
• The plan

1.Definition of phraseological units, their stability and idiomaticity. Ways of forming phraseological units.

2. Classification of phraseological units.

• **3. The synonymy and polysemy of phraseological units.**

Problems: to give the definition of phraseological units, their stability and idiomaticity, to give the classification of phraseological units, the points of view about stability, idiomaticity and equivalency of phraseological units to words; to define and study the synonymy and polysemy of phraseological units; to describe the English idioms and explain their role in enriching the vocabulary.

Glossary: stability, idiomaticity, phraseological units, motivated, non-motivated, fusions, phraseological collocations, idiomatic meaning, equivalents, word combinations, collocation, colligation, separable, inseparable, equivalency, semantic properties, phrasal verbs, a free word group, idioms, phraseme, phraseologism, classification, proverbs and sayings.

18.1 Definition of phraseological units, their stability and idiomaticity. Ways of forming phraseological units.

•The term "phraseology" comes from Greek *phrasis* (фраза) and *logos* (знание, наука). Phraseology is a branch of Linguistics. 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 substituded. In phraseological units the individual components do

not seem to possess any lexical meaning outside the word group. For example: red tape (bureaucratic methods), to get rid of ; to take place; to lead the dance, to take care of.

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[1]. (А.И.Смирницкий. Лексикология английского языка. Москва, 1956.)

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*).

"Being word-equivalents phraseological units may be more or less complex. For example: there are phraseological units with one semantic centre, with the domination of component over another. This semantically dominating element also determines the equivalence of the phraseological unit to a certain class of words. This type of phraseological units is termed " collocation" (For example: verb-adverb collocation: to look after; attributive collocation, prepositional noun collocation: out of the way, in accordance with)[2]. Special cases of collocations are what are called idioms and clichés. Idiom is used to refer to habitual collocations of more than one word, that tend to be used together, with a semantic function not readily deducible from the other uses of its component words apart from each other. For example: She went for him hammer and tongues; They ran off hell for leather.There are phraseological units with two centres. They differ from collocations by the absence of one central word which focuses the main semantic and grammatical properties of the whole. They are termed "set expressions" (verb + noun set expressions) to fall in love; (adjective + noun set expressions): black ball; (phraseological repetitions): spick and span. (*A.I.Smirnitsky*).

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. A.V.Koonin thinks that phraseology must be an independent linguistic science and not a part of Lexicology[3]. Phraseological units are based on the functions in speech. (А.В.Кунин. Английская фразеология. Москва, 1970. Фразеология современного английского языка. Москва, 1973).

Stability of phraseological units is seen in its disallowance of the substitution of word groups. For example, *to shrug one's shoulders* does not allow to substitute either *shrug* or *shoulder*. Idiomaticity of phraseological units is lack of motivation of word groups. If a word group does not allow word by word translation it is called idiomatic word groups. For example: *to kick the bucket –умереть (улмоқ) , in the soup –в затруднительном положении(қийин аҳволда) , under a cloud* – в плохом настроении (кайфияти ёмон).

Among the phraseological units ther are the so-called imperative phraseological units[4]. (Т.Т. Икрамов. Фразеологические единицы с фиксированным глагольным компонентом в императиве в современном английском языке. Автореф. дисс. канд. филол. наук. Москва, 1978).
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: East or West home is best. A friend in need is a friend indeed. To be or not to be.

There are a number of idiomatic or colloquial phrases in the English language as : *end and aim, lord and masters, without let or hindrances, act and deeds, pure and simple, in deed and truths, really and trually, bright and shinings, honest and true, proud and haughty, weak and feebles, race and run, grunt and groans, clean and neat, toil and delves*. Such double phrases occur very frequently in the "Book of Common Prayer", where we find for instance: *sins and wickedness, dissemble nor cloak, assemble and meet together, requisits and necessaries, declare and pronounce, bless and sanctify, offer and present, rule and governs, knowledge and understanding,religiously and devoutly,, food and sustenances, search and examine your consciences, prayers and supplications, confirm and strengthen.*
(James B. Greenough).

Ways of forming phraseological units. A.V.Koonin classified phraseological units according to the way they are formed. He pointed out primary and secondary ways of forming phraseological units. Primary ways of forming are those when a unit is formed on the basis of a free word-group.
a) Most productive in modern English is the formation of phraseological units by means of transferring the meaning of terminological word-groups: in cosmic technique: *launching pad – стартовая площадка* in its transferred meaning – *отправной пункт*, *to link up – стыковать* in its transferred meaning it means *знакомиться*;

b) a large group of phraseological units was formed from free word groups by transforming their meaning: *granny farm –пансионат для престарелых , Troyan horse – компьютерная программа, преднамеренно составленная для повреждения компьютера.*

c) phraseological units can be formed by means of alliteration: a sad sack – счастливый случай, culture vulture – человек, интересующийся искусством;

d) they can be formed by means of expressiveness, especially it is characteristic for forming interjections: My aunt! Hear, hear!, etc.;

e) they can be formed by means of distorting a word group: *odds and ends* was formed from *odd ends;*

f) they can be formed by using archaisms: *in brown study* means *in gloomy meditation* where both components preserve their archaic meanings;

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

i) they can be formed by using expressions of writers or polititions in everyday life: *corridors of power* (Snow), *American dream* (Alby), *locust years* (Churchil), *the winds of change* (M.Millan).

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

a) conversion: *to vote with one's feet* was converted into *" vote with one's feet"*;

b) grammar form. For example: Make hay while the sun shines is transferred into a verbal phrase " to make hay while the sun shines";

c) analogy: Curiosity killed the cat was transferred into " Care killed the cat";

d) contrast: *cold surgery*- a planned before operation was formed by contrasting it with " *acute surgery*", *thin cat* – a poor person was formed by contrasting it with " *fat cat*";

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

f) borrowing phraseological units from other languages, either as translation loans or by means of phonetic borrowings : meche blanche (French), corpse delite (French), sotto voice (Italian).

18.2. Classification of phraseological units. 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. We cannot guess the meaning of the whole from the meanings of its components, they are highly idiomatic and cannot be translated word for word into other langugaes. For example: *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; In Karakalpak: *Фразеологиялық өтлесиўлер* – булар хеш қандай ажыратыўға болмайтуғын, составындағы компонентлери өзинин дәслепки лексикалық мәнилерин жойылтып жиберген турақлы сөз дизбеклери: *тил менен орақ орыў, мурнын балта шаппаў,көзге шөп салыў,аўзы менен қус салыў, түйе үстинен ийт қабыў, көз бенен қастын арасында, ийт өлген жер, ала жипти кесиў,аўзынан ақ ийт кирип, қарак ийт шығыў, еки көзи төрт болыў.* Бул группаға киретуғын турақлы сөз дизбеклеринин составындағы айырым компонентлеринин жеке мәниси улыўма мәниден анағурлым алыс сезиледи.

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. For example: *to show one's teeth, to know the way the wind blows, to stand one's guns, to take care of;* In Karakalpak: *Фразеологиялық бирликлер* –составындағы компонентлери еле өзинин туўра мәнилерин жойылтпаған аўысқан улыўма мәни олардын компонентлеринин мәнилеринин жыйынтығынан туратуғын турақлы сөз дизбеклери: *қулақ түриў,аяғы жерге тиймеў,пышақ арқасы (азырақ), жағынын етин жеў(азыў, арықлаў) ,жанын келиге қамаў,өкше көтериў,көзди ашып жумғанша, көз жумыў.*

3) phraseological collocations. They include motivated relatively stable word groups. They have a certain degree of stability, for example: *to take an interest, to fall in love, to look through one's fingers, meet the demand* etc. In Karakalpak: *Фразеологиялық дизбеклер*- улыўма мәни составындағы жеке компонентлердин мәнилерине тиккелей байланыслы, жеке компонентлери тек айырым сөзлер менен ғана дизбеклесетугын турақлы сөз дизбеклери: *қабақ үйиў, көзге түсиў, бас ийиў, бой*

жазыў, кеўил көтериў, шалқар тениз, айдын көл, телегей тениз, асқар таў,мийзан тақыр, көзге түсиў. Фразеололгиялық сөзлер – булар фразеологиялық сөз дизбеклеринин айрықша бир группасын қурайды. Олар турақлы лексикалық составына ийе гәп формасында ушырасатуғын турақлы сөзлер. Буған нақыл-мақаллар, афоризмлер, образлы сөз дизбеклери киреди: *жақсы иси менен жақсы, мийнет түби рәҳат, көз қорқақ, қол батыр;*

1. *Жақсы адам сөз мәнисин анлайды.*
2. **Бөри арығын ҳеш ўақыт билдирмес**
Жақсы адам душпанларын күлдирмес (Бердақ «Халық ушын»).

At present the term " phraseological unit" is usually used not to all set expressions but only to those which are completely or partially non-motivated[6].

Prof. N.Amosova gives two categories of phraseological units depending on whether just one component or both are used in phraseologically bound meaning. If all the components have idiomatic meaning such phraseological units are called "idioms", for example: 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". For example: *dutch courage* (courage given by drink), *to bring to book* (to bring to justice), *small years* (in the childhood), *small beer* (weak beer).

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

Among one-top units he points out three structural types:

a) units of the type: to give up,, to art up, to back up, to drop out, to nose out, to buy into, to sandwich in, etc.

b) units of the type " to be tired" . Some of these units remind the Passive Voice in their structure but they have different prepositions with them, while in the Passive Voice we can have only prepositions "by" or "with". For example: to be tired of, to be interested in, to be surprised at. There are also units in this type which remind free word-groups of the type " to be young": to be a kin to, to be aware of ,etc. The difference between them is that the adjective " young" can be used as an attribute and as a predicative in a sentence, while the nominal component in such units can act only as a predicative;

c) prepositional-nominal phraseological units. These units are equivalents of unchangeable words: prepositions, conjunctions, adverbs, that is why they have no grammar centre, their semantic centre is the nominal part. For example: *on the doorstep* (quite near), *on the nose* (exactly), *in the course of*, *on the stroke of*, *in time, on the point of*. In the course of time such units can become words (for example, *tomorrow, instead*).

Among two-top units A.I.Smirnitsky points out the following structural types:

a) attributive-nominal such as: a month of Sundays, grey matter, a millstone round one's neck and many others. Units of this type are noun equivalents and can be partly or perfectly idiomatic. For example: high road, first night, red tape, blind alley, bed of nail, shot in the arm and others;

b) verb-nominal phraseological units: to read between the lines, to speak BBC, to sweep under the carpet. The grammar centre of such units is the verb, the semantic centre in many cases is the nominal component. For example: to fall in love, not to know the ropes, to burn one's boats, to vote with one's feet, to take to the cleaners', etc. Very close to such units are word-groups of the type: to have a glance, to have a smoke, these units are not idiomatic and are treated in grammar as a special syntactical combination, a kind of aspect.

c) phraseological repetitions, such as: now or never, part and parcel, country and western. Such units can be built on antonyms: ups and downs, back and forth; often they are formed by means of alliteration: cakes and ale, as busy as a bee. Components in repetitions are joined by means of conjunctions. These units are equivalents of adverbs or adjectives and have no grammar centre. They can be partly or perfectly idiomatic. For example: cool as a cucumber (partly), bread and butter (perfectly).

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

will. Phraseological units can be classified as parts of speech. This classification was suggested by I.V.Arnold[7]. Here we have the following groups:

a) noun phraseologisms denoting an object, a person, a living being: bullet train, latchkey child, redbrick university, Green Berets;

b) verb phraseologisms denoting an action, a state, a feeling: to break the log jam, to get on smb's coattails, to be on the beam, to nose out, to make headlines;

c) adjective phraseologisms denoting a quality: loose as a goose, dull as lead;

d) adverb phraseological units, such as: with a bump, in the soup, like a dream, like a dog with two tails;

e) preposition phraseological units: in the course of, on the stroke of;

f) interjection phraseological units: Catch me! Well, I never!.

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

Thus, phraseological units are word-groups that cannot be made in the process of speech, they exist in the language as ready-made units. They are compiled in special dictionaries. The same as words phraseological units express a single notion and are used in a sentence as one part of it. American and British lexicographers call such units " idioms". We can mention such dictionaries as: L.Smith "Words and idioms", V.Collins " A Book of English idioms". In these dictionaries we can find words peculiar in their semantics, side by side with word groups and sentences.

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

18.3. The history of phraseological units. The synonymy and polysemy of phraseological units. 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). For example: all at sea, to nail one's colours to the mast, to sail under false colours. Many phraseological units were borrowed from the Bible, for example: the root of all evil- корень зла, любовь к деньгам, daily bread – хлеб насущный, средство к существованию .

There is a subject of discussion among the linguists about the state of such combinations like *to give in, to make up, to take off, to get up, to give up*. 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 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 have idiomatical meanings[5]. A.V.Koonin calls such units " set phrases" which have no phraseological character. There are synonyms among phraseological units. For example: through thick and thin, by hook or by crook, for love or money - во что бы не стало; pull one's leg, to make a fool of smb—дурачить Some of phraseological units are polysemantic as "at large" – 1) на свободе, 2) в открытом воздухе, 3) без определенной цели, 4) не попавший в цель, 5) свободный 6) в целом, 7) вообще, 8) подробно.

It is the context that realizes the meaning of a phraseological units in each case.

Answer the questions

1. What is a phraseological unit? What are the most peculiarities of phraseological units?
2. What is academician V.V.Vinogradov's classification of phraseological units based on?
3. How does prof. A.V.Koonin classify phraseological units?
4. How does prof. N.Amosova classify phraseological units?
5. What is the stability of phraseological units?
6. How does I.V.Arnold classify phraseological units?
7. What word combinations does A.V.Koonin call "set phrases"?

Recommended Literature

1. Antrushina G.B., Afanasyeva O.V., Morozova N.N. English Lexicology. Moscow,1985.
2. Buranov J., Muminov O. A practical course in English Lexicology. Tashkent,1990.
3. Ginzburg R.S. et.al. A course in Modern English Lexicology. Moscow, 1979.
4. Mednikova E.M. Seminars in English Lexicology. Moscow, 1978.
5. Muminov O.Lexicology of the English language. Tashkent, 2008.

6. Виноградов В.В. Лексикография и лексикология. Москва, 1984.
7. Кунин А.В. Фразеология современного английского языка. Москва, 1972.
8. Кунин А.В. Курс фразеологии современного английского языка. Москва, 1986.

• **LECTURE 19.**
• **PHRASEOLOGY. ENGLISH IDIOMS. PROVERBS AND SAYINGS.**
• **The plan**

1.English idioms aa a means enriching the vocabulary.
2. Proverbs and sayings.
3. Word combinations and their types. Phrasal verbs.

Problems: to give the definition of phraseological units, their stability and idiomaticity, to give the classification of phraseological units, the points of view about stability, idiomaticity and equivalency of phraseological units to words; to define and study the synonymy and polysemy of phraseological units; to describe the English idioms and explain their role in enriching the vocabulary.

Glossary: stability, idiomaticity, phraseological units, motivated, non-motivated, fusions, phraseological collocations, idiomatic meaning, equivalents, word combinations, collocation, colligation, separable, inseparable, equivalency, semantic properties, phrasal verbs, a free word group, idioms, phraseme, phraseologism, classification, proverbs and sayings.

19.1.English idioms as a means enriching the vocabulary.

In the works of the Russian, Uzbek and Karakalpak scholars the term "phraseological unit" is widely spread and such language units as stable word combinations, proverbs and sayings, set expressions belong to them. But in the works of the famous foreign linguists the term "idiom" is widely-spread.
We can give the following definition to the term "idiom".

An idiom is a phrase (or phraseological unit) which means something different from the meanings of the separate words that are a part of it. Usually it cannot be understood by the literal interpretation of the words that make up the expression. Used together, the words convey a meaning that is often unrelated to the individual words in the idiom some idioms have become so well worn that they are also clichés: over used or commonplace expressions.

An important fact which must be stressed is that idioms are not only colloquial expressions as many linguists and people believe. Idioms appear in formal style and in informal (slang). They can appear in poetry or in the language of Shakespeare and the Bible. Under an idiom we understand "a number of words which, taken together, mean something different from the individual words of the idiom when they stand alone" (20, p. 4). Modern English is very rich in idiomatic expressions. In fact, it is difficult to speak or write English without using idioms. An English native speaker is very often not aware that he is using an idiom; perhaps he does not even realize that an idiom which he uses is grammatically incorrect. A non-native learner makes the correct use of idiomatic English one of his main aims, and the fact that some idioms are illogical or grammatically incorrect causes him difficulty. Only careful study and exact learning will help him to use idioms correctly.

It is difficult to explain why a particular idiom has developed an unusual arrangement or choice of words. The idiom has been fixed by long usage-as is sometimes seen from the vocabulary. For example, the idiom "to buy a pig in a poke" means "to buy smth. which one has not inspected previously and which is worth less than one paid for it". The word "poke" is an old word meaning "sack". The word "poke" only appears in present-day English with this meaning in this idiom. Therefore, it is clear that the idiom has continued to be used long after the individual word.

There are many different sources of idioms. The most important thing about idioms is their meaning. If the source of an idiom is known, it is sometimes easier to imagine its meaning. Many idiomatic phrases come from the every-day life of the English people, from home life, for example: *to be born with a silver spoon in one's mouth; to make a clean sweep of smth; to hit the nail on the head. There are many idioms which have to do with food and cooking: to eat humble pie, out of the frying-pan into the fire, to be in the soup*. Agricultural life has given rise to: *to go to seed, to put one's hand to the plough, to lead someone up the garden path*. Nautical life and military life are the source of the following idioms: *when one's ship comes home, to be in deep waters, to sail under false colors, to crosswords with someone, to flight a pitched battle, to fight a losing/ winning battle*.

Many idioms include parts of the body, animals and colors. For example: *to keep someone at arm's length* (to avoid becoming too friendly with him); *to do smth behind someone's loach* (to do it without his knowledge); *to have a bee in one's bonnet* (to be continually occupied with or obsessed by one idea); *to kill two birds with one stone* (to achieve two aims with only one effort); *to be black in the face* (to be

angry); *in a blue mood* (to be sad or miserable), *a green room* (the room in a theatre where actors can spend time when they are not on stage).

Idioms take many different forms and structures. They can be very short or rather long. A large number of idioms consist of some combination of noun and adjective, for example: *cold war, a dark horse, French leave, a snake in the grass.* Some idioms are expressed in long extended sentences: *to fish in troubled waters, to take the bull by the horns, to cut one's coat according to one's cloth.*

An idiom can have a regular structure, an irregular or even a grammatically incorrect structure. The idiom "I am good friends with him" is irregular or illogical in its grammatical structure. The correct form is: I am a good friend of his. An native speaker is not consciously aware of this inconsistency. This is and example of idiom where the form is irregular but the meaning is clear. An idiom *"To have a bee in one's bonnet"* has a regular form, but it's meaning is not obvious. It means in fact, that one is obsessed by an idea, but how can we know this if we haven't learnt it as an idiom? There is a third group in which both form and meaning are irregular. For example, *"to be at large"* has the form: verb+preposition+adjective. This form without noun is strange. If we talk about a prisoner who is still at large, it means that he is still Most idioms belong to the second group, where the form is regular, but the meaning is unclear. For example, we can guess the meaning of the idiom *"to give someone the green light"* even though we may never have heard it before. If we associate "the green light" with traffic lights where green means "Go!" , we can imagine that the idiom means "to give someone permission to start something".

Other idioms can be guessed if we hear them in context, that is, when we knew how they are used in a particular situation. For example, let's take the idiom "to be at the top of the tree". If we hear the sentence: John is at the top of the tree now, we are not sure what this is saying about John. Perhaps it means that he is in a dangerous position or that he is hiding. But if we hear the phrase in context, the meaning becomes clear to us: Ten years ago John joined the company, and now he's the general manager! Yes, he's really *at the top of the tree!* The idiom means "to be at the top of one's profession, to be successful".

However, some idioms are too difficult to guess correctly because they have no association with the original meaning of the individual words. Here are some examples: *to tell someone where to get off, to bring the house down, to take it out on someone.* The learner will have great difficulty here unless he has heard the idioms before. Even when they are used in context, it is not easy to detect the meaning exactly. We shall take a closer look at the first of these examples. "To get off" usually appears together with "bus" or "bicycle", as in this sentence: Mary didn't know her way round town, so Jane took her to the bus stop and told her where *to get off.* But in it's idiomatic sense *"to tell someone where to get off"* means "to tell someone rudely and openly what you think of him" as in this context: Jane had enough of Mary's stupid and critical remarks, so she finally *told her where to get off.*

The idioms which cannot be changed at all are called *fixed idioms.* Some idioms are fixed in some of their parts but not in others. Some idioms allow only limited changes in the parts which are not fixed. Let's take the idiom *"to give someone the cold shoulder".* Which changes are possible? The idiom means "to treat someone in a cold or unfriendly way". It is not possible to say "to give someone the "cool" or "warm" shoulder or "to give someone a cold shoulder".

When and where to use idioms. We should know in which situations and when to use idioms. One of the main difficulties is that the learner does not know in which situations it is correct to use an idiom. It's necessary to know the level of style, whether an idiom can be used in a formal or in an informal situation. Choice of words depends on the person one is speaking to and on the situation or place at the time. If the person is a friend and the situation is private, we may use informal or even slang expressions. In a formal situation, when we don't know the person we are speaking to very well or the occasion is public, we choose words much more carefully.

It would be wrong to choose an informal expression in some rather formal situation and bad manners to choose a slang expression. This means that we can express the same information or idea in more than one way using a different level. Here is an example. If one arrives late when meeting a friend, a typical informal way of apologizing would be: "Sorry, I'm late! – but I got badly help up". However, if one came too late to a meeting with strangers or business meeting, another choice of expression for the being late: «I'm afraid my train was delayed».

Formal expressions-idioms are found in written more than in spoken English and are used to show a distant relationship between the speakers. Such expressions would be used for example: when making a formal speech to a large audience. Idioms used in formal speech are those idioms which are used in political speeches, in debates of the Parliament, at the meetings, in reports or scientific works. Informal

expressions-idioms are used in every-day spoken English and in personal letters. Slang expressions are used in very informal situations between good friends.

There are idioms which are neutral in style and can be used in any situation.
Another difficulty is that the learner does not know if an idiom is natural or appropriate in certain situation. This can only be learnt by careful listening to native speakers or careful reading of English texts which contain idioms. The learners should study the idioms in typical situations and many examples to use them correctly. It's extremely unwise to translate idioms into English from one's own native language. One may be lucky that the two languages have the same form and vocabulary, but in most cases, the result will be utterly bewildering to the native speaker and possibly highly answering.

The correct use of idiomatic English should be the aim of every learner. Mastery of idioms comes only slowly, through careful study and observation, through practice and experience. We should follow the proverbs: *1. Practice makes perfect. 2. All things are difficult before they are easy*.

Most English idioms are used in English speech just like any other phrase, clause or sentence, the word that is given the main stress (or accent) is the last noun, verb, adjective or adverb in the phrase, clause and sentence For example, in the idioms: on the face of it, to take the cake and neither here nor there, the words *face, cake and there* carry the strong stress.

However, in some idioms the word that carries the strong stress is not the last "main" word in that idiom. For example, in the idioms: *like a bull in a China shop, a wild goose chase, and a big shot,* the stressed words are not, as one might expect-*shop, chase and shot*, but "*China, goose and big*".

Idioms are a special layer of the English vocabulary, they enrich our speech, make it more expressive, emotional and persuading.Idioms express the culture, traditions and customs of the country. Learning English we enter the new world, the strange world of the people of foreign countries. That's why learning a foreign language we should take into account the extralinguistic factors: geography, social and political structure of the society. Another important question is the national realia. The content of some idioms requires the knowledge of the culture, traditions, customs and geography of English-speaking countries. According to the statement of E.M.Vereshagin and V.G.Kostomarov " Among the wide range of sociocultural realia, expressing the history and culture of the people, we can find the most socio-cultural value in the words and phraseological units. The study of the English phraseological units, especially proverbs, sayings and idioms with the Russian and Karakalpak languages show that they may be divided into three groups: 1) coinciding according to the content and image; 2) coinciding partially ; and 3) not coinciding, having different content and image.

Some idioms in English are difficult for understanding especially for those people who don't know well some national realia and peculiarities of the people, living in the English-speaking countries. Here are some idioms which we recommend to learn by heart and use in your speech.
1. **The apple of one's eye** – a person or thing that is precious or loved above all else.F.e: 1. Richard is so attached to his daughter. He would do anything for her. She is *the apple of his eye*. 2. The boy won't behave in school but you can't convince his parents. He's *the apple of their eye*. (CCAEI, p1-2).
2.**Achilles' heel** – a person's weakness or the vulnerable spot in his or her character. F.e: 1. We've got to find his *Achilles' heel* if we hope to defeat him. 2. John appears to be a highly respected cicitizen, but I'm sure he has his *Achilles' heel. Achilles* was a figure in Greek mythology who was invulnerable in battle except for his heel. It was the one weak spot on his body.(p.1)
3. **Big shot** – an important, powerful or influential person. F.e: 1. The company's *big shots* are getting free trips to Hawaii this year. 2. Now that you've been made a vice-president, you're really *a big shot*, aren't you? Synonyms: *big wheel; bigwig; big cheese; big boncho*. Similar to: *heavyweight*. The slang expression big shot is often used sarcastically or disparagingly.(p.5)
4.**Blue blood**- a person (or animal) that is an aristocrat or from a noble family. F.e: 1. The young man's parents didn't want him to marry the woman he had chosen because they considered themselves blue bloods and thought their son was too good for her. (p.7) 2. The race horses raised on my father's horse farm are *blue bloods*. They come from a long line of Kentucky Derby winners.
5.**Boiling point**- the point at which one loses one's temper. F.e: 1. You've just about pushed me to *the boiling point*. In a minute I'm going to lose my temper. (p.7)
6. **White lie**- a minor, polite or harmless lie; an innocent lie; a fib. F.e: Jenny's parents asked her where she had gone. She yold them she had been at the library, but she didn't tell them that she had also gone to the movies. She told her parents *a white lie*. (p. .91)

19.2. Proverbs and sayings. 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. Alongside with separate words speakers use

larger blocks consisting of more than one word – word combinations functioning as a whole. Word combinations similar to words are not created in speech but introduced into the act of communication ready-made. Such word combinations are called set expressions. Set expressions are contrasted to free phrases and semi-fixed combinations. A free phrase permits substitution of any of its elements without semantic change: *to cut bread, to cut cheese, to eat bread, to eat porridge.*

Proverbs are brief statements which show in a condensed form the accumulated life experience of the society. They are ususally short familiar epigrammatic sayings, expressive and have genelized meaning. They are also image bearing. They express the wisdom of the people and never lose their freshness and vigour. For example: *Better late than never. Out of sight, out of mind. He laughs best, who laughs last. A great ship asks deep waters.*

Proverbs have much in common with set expressions because their lexical components are also constant, their meaning is traditional and mostly figurative, and they are introduced into speech ready-made. Proverbs and sayings may be handled not in their fixed, traditional forms but with some midifications. For example: *Marriages are made in Heaven*. (a fixed traditional form). Divorces are made in Heaven. (a modified form). *If war breaks out* (a traditional form). If peace breaks out (a modified form).Here is a recast of a well-known proverb used by an advertizing agency:

Early to bed and early to rise
No use –unless you advertize.

A saying is a common phrase differing from proverb in that the thought is not so completely expressed here. For example: *To fish in troubled waters. To kill two birds with one stone. To teach old dogs new tricks*

Very often English proverbs and sayings are alliterated. Euphony and expressiveness are achieved by the repetition of the same sound in a number of words. For example: *Cool as a cucumber. Good as gold. Curiosity killed a cat.To cut one's coat according to one's cloth.*
Usually English proverbs and sayings are rhythmically arranged and rhymed:

Eat with pleasure, drink with measure. A friend in need is a friend indeed.
Early to bed and early to rise,
Makes a man healthy, wealthy and wise.

The study of the English proverbs and sayings and idioms with the Russian, Uzbek and Karakalpak languages show that they may be divided into three groups: 1) coinciding according to the content and image; 2) coinciding partially ; and 3) not coinciding, having different content and image. In the I-st group we see that proverbs and sayings in different languages coincide according to the content and image. For example:

1.Walls have ears.И стены имеют уши.Тамнын да кулағы бар.

2.Strike the iron while it is hot.Куй железо пока горячо.Темирди кызғанда соқ. Тандырды қызғанда жап

3.Love cannot be forced.Насильно мил не будешь.Сүймегенге сүйкенбе.

4.The coward often dies, the brave but once.У страха глаза велики. Корқақ мын өледи, батыр бир өледи.

5.Better late than never.Лучше поздно чем никогда.Хештен кеш жақсы.

6.A tree is known by its fruit. Дерево смотри в плодах,а человека в делах. Ағашты миўасынан таныйды. Адамды қылўасынан таныйды.

7.Fish begins to stink at the head.рыба гниёт с головы. Балық басынан ширийди.

8All is not gold that glitters.Не всё золото,что блестит. Жалтырағаннын бәри алтын емес.

9.Rome was not built in a day.Рим строился не один день. Рим бир күнде салынбаған.

10.No pains,no gains.Без труда не выйнешь и рыбки из пруда.Мийнетсиз рәҳәт жоқ.

11.He laughs best who laughs last.Хорошо смеётся тот,кто смеётся последним. Күлме маған, күлгим келер саған.

12.Never put off till tomorrow what you can do today. Никогда не откладывай на завтра то,что можно сделать сегодня.Бүгинги исти ертенге қалдырма.

13.Cut the coat according to the cloth.По одёжке протягивай ножки. Көрпеге қарап аяғынды соз.

14.A good name is better than riches.Доброе имя лучше богатства(лучше быть бедняком,чем разбогатеть с грехом). Байлы болғаннан абырайлы болған жақсы.

These proverbs and sayings are not difficult for those who study English, because they coincide according to the content and they show the fact, that there is something common in the culture of the people from different countries.

In the II-d group we see proverbs and sayings which coincide partially in the content but often differ in image. («инокультурность», «инобытие»,которые выявляют разные картины мира разных народов). For example: Don't bring coals to Newcastle. In Russian it has the equivalent: «В Тулу со своим самоваром не ездят». (Обе говорят о том,что не нужно брать с собой то чего много,в том месте,куда едут.В то же время эти пословицы фиксируют национальные особенности: в Ньюкасле много угля,а Тула славится своими самоварами). Let's see another examples of proverbs and sayings of this group:

1.As the old cock crows,so does the young.Яблоко от яблони недалеко падает.
Улкен арба қайдан жүрсе,киши арба да сол жерден жүреди.

2.Many a little makes a nickle. Копейка рубль бережет.
Көп тукирсе көл болар (Көп тамшыдан дәрья болар)
Тама-тама көл болар
Бир тамбаса шөл болар

3.A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush.Лучше синица в руках,чем журавль в небе. Алыстағы арбалыдан,жақындағы дорбалы жақсы.

4.One scabbed sheep will mar a whole flock.
(В русском эквиваленте эта пословица имеет полный эквивалент:Одна паршивая овца всё стадо портит.Но в каракалпакском языке она передаётся иначе:Бир кумалай бир карын майды ширитеди. Бир адамнын кесири жети журтка тийеди).

5.Enough to make a horse laugh.Курам на смех.Хәммеге күлки болыў.

6.Too many cooks spoil the broth.У семи нянек дитя без глазу.Койшы көп болса қой ҳарам өледи.

7.One man no man.Synonyms:One body is nobody,One man does not make a team.Один в поле не воин.Жалғыз ғарғанын үни шықпас (Жалғыз аттын шақы шықпас).

8.You cannot run with the hare and hunt with the hands.И волки сыты,и овцы целы. Куда да тыныш,кудағай да тыныш.

9.Once bitten, twice shy (The scalded dog fears cold water).Кого медведь драл,тот и пня боится.(Пуганая ворона куста боится).Кой уриккен жағына жайылады.

10.Don't trouble trouble until trouble troubles you.Не буди лиха,пока лихо спит.Жерде жатқан жыланға тийме.

11.Give him an inch and he'll take an ell. Дай ему вершок,он все три аршина отхватит. Дай ему палец, он и всю руку откусит.Посади свинью за стол она и ноги на стол (ДЕР,р=111).
Корқаққа берме қолынды, батыл етер жолынды (КФ,с210).

12.Little strolees fell great oaks.Терпение и труд всё перетрут. Капля по капле и камень долбит.Тамшы тамса көл болады,жаўын жаўса сел болады.

13.Dog doesn't eat dog.Волк волка не съест.Гарға ғарғанын көзин шоқымайды.Шошқа шошқаны жарған емес.

14.Don't set the fox to keep your guse.Не пускай козла в огород.Тонғанға отын жақтырма, қарны ашқа қазан астырма.

These examples of proverbs and sayings show, that people of different nationalities have different sources creating images. In English proverbs and sayings we often see the names of such animals as a dog, a cat, a sheep. For example::
1. Care killed a cat-Не работа старит,а забота.
2. A cat has nine lives.-У кошки девять жизней.
3. A cat may look at a king-Все равны под солнцем.
4.When the cat is away ,the mice will play. -Кот из дома-мыши в пляс.
5.Dog eats dog-Человек человеку волк.
6.Every dog has his day.-Будет и на нашей улице праздник.
7.The dog returns to his vomit.-Зарекался козёл в огород ходить.Повадился кувшин по воду ходить
8.A living dog is better than a dead lion.Живой пёс лучше мёртвого льва.
Лучше голубь в тарелке,чем глухарь на тону.
9.Love me, love my dog.Меня любишь,так и собаку мою не бей. Любишь кататься,люби и саночки возить.

In the Russian proverbs and sayings the sources creating image are a wolf, a bear, a hare, a fox, a swine, a horse. For example: 1.Волков боятся в лес не ходить.2.Посади свинью за стол ,она и ноги на стол.3.С медведем дружись ,а за топор держись.4.Резвого жеребца и волк не берет. 5.Не дели шкуру неубитого медведя. 6.Кто смел,тот на коня сел. 7.Конь узнается при горе,а друг при беде. 8.За двумя зайцами погонишься ни одного не поймаешь.

In the Karakalpak proverbs and sayings we see the use of different kinds of cattle-breeding, because from ancient times the Karakalpak people connected all their best hopes, dreams and wishes with the cattle-breeding. The name of a camel is often used in many proverbs and sayings:

1.Түйенин үлкени көпирде таяқ жейди.

2.Ақсақ түйенин аўзына жел айдаған қанбақ түсер.

3.Түйеге жантақ керек болса,мойнын созар.

4.Жаман адамды түйенин үстинде ийт қабады.

The names of other animals (a horse, a sheep, a cow, a fox)are also used in the Karakalpak proverbs and sayings. For example:

1.Ат услаған азабынан қутылар, ер услаған енбегинен қутылар.

2. Қырда қырқ қой суў ишсе,ойда отыз қой бәҳәр алады.

3.Уйирли қойдан қасқырда қорқады.

4.Басын екеў болмай,малын екеў болмас.

5.Ким сөйлемесе,баспақты сол суўғарады.

6.Жаман атка жал тийсе, жанына торсық байлатпас,

Жаман адамға мал питсе, жанына қонсы қондырмас,

Кондырса да тындырмас   (КФ,с50).

English proverbs and sayings of the III-d group are of a great importance for intercultural commucation. They don't have equivalents in our native language, because they express some national realia, some peculiarities typical only for the English people, they express their cyulture, traditions and customs. For example: My house is my castle.-Мой дом моя крепость.Оз үйим олен төсегим.

This proverb has word-for-word tranclation into Russian, because it's a purely English proverb. The source of idiomaticity and interpretation is in the history, traditions and culture of the British people. For them their hous, family is like a castle where the entrance is banned for other people. The proverbs: *Live not to eat,but eat to live.(Живи не для того ,чтобы есть,а ешь для того ,чтобы жить). Gluttony kills more than the sword.(От обжорства гибнет больше чем от меча)* don't have equivalents in Russian and Karakalpak. For their mentality essential meal, rich food is one the pleasures of life. For example: Всё,что есть в печи,на стол мечи. Быламықты май келтиреди.

Смысл пословицы: Nothing comes out of the sack but what was in it.-можно передать так: Больше того,что было в мешке из него не достанешь. Не требуй от человека (мастера,работника) больше,чем он может дать.Here are the examples of the Karakalpak proverbs and sayings, which don't have their equivalents in English:

1.Жантақлы жерде сона бар.

2. Кора көрки мал.

3. Сүнбиле туўса суў суыр.

4.Жаўдада бир үйин болсын.

5.Жаман жийен жаўдан жаман.

6.Келип едик дәўирлеп,бийик пенен хәўирлеп,

   Кудағайымыз курысын, қайтармады тәўирлеп.(КФ с.163).

Proverbs and sayings are mostly used by writers in the direct speech of characters to individualize their speech and also as laconic, expressive and emotional ready-made phrases. Th efficient use of proverbs and sayings will male both spoken and written language emotional, concrete, figurative and lively.

Answer the questions

1. What is the stability of phraseological units?
2. How does I.V.Arnold classify phraseological units?
3. What word combinations does A.V.Koonin call "set phrases"?
4. What is the synonymy (polysemy) of phraseological units?
5. What are idioms? What are the peculiarities of the English idioms?
6. What are the characteristic features of proverbs and sayings?

Recommended Literature

1. Antrushina G.B., Afanasyeva O.V., Morozova N.N. English Lexicology. Moscow,1985.
2. Buranov J., Muminov O. A practical course in English Lexicology. Tashkent,1990.
3. Ginzburg R.S. et.al. A course in Modern English Lexicology. Moscow, 1979.
4. Mednikova E.M. Seminars in English Lexicology. Moscow, 1978.
5. Muminov O.Lexicology of the English language. Tashkent, 2006.

6. Виноградов В.В. Лексикография и лексикология. Москва, 1984.
9. Кунин А.В. Фразеология современного английского языка. Москва, 1972.
10. Кунин А.В. Курс фразеологии современного английского языка. Москва, 1986.

• LECTURE 20.

• ETYMOLOGY OF THE ENGLISH WORD STOCK. BORROWED WORDS AND THEIR PROPERTIES.

• The plan

1. Origin of words in English. The native words and their properties.

2. Borrowed words and their properties.

3. Classification of borrowed words.

Problems: to define the native and borrowed words; to characterize the native words and borrowings and their properties; to give the classification of borrowed words in English; to discuss the causes and ways of borrowings, assimilation of borrowings in English.

Glossary: origin of words, the native words, the borrowed words, word-stock, high frequency, foreign words, loan words, the absence of equivalent words, to penetrate, immediate contact, oral speech, borrowings, phonetic borrowings, translation loans, semantic borrowings, morphemic borrowings, assimilation, loanblends, source of borrowing, origin of borrowing.

20.1. The English word stock. Origin of words in English. The native words and their properties. Etymologically the vocabulary of the English language consists of two groups- the native words and the borrowed words. The etymological linguistic analysis showed that the borrowed stock of words is larger than the native stock of words. In fact native words comprise only 30% of the total number of words in the English vocabulary. *A native word* is a word which belongs to the original English stock, which belongs to Anglo-Saxon origin. To the native words we include words from Common Germanic language and from Indo-European stock.

Borrowed words are words taken over from other languages. Many linguists consider foreign influence plays the most important role in the history of the English language. But the grammar and phonetic system are very stable (unchangeable) and are not often influenced by other languages. When we speak about the role of native and borrowed words in the English language we must not take into consideration only the number of them but their semantic, stylistic character, their word-building ability, frequency value, collocability (valency) and the productivity of their word-building patterns. Almost all words of native origin belong to very important semantic groups.

They include most of the auxiliary and model verbs: *shall, will, should, must , can, may;* pronouns: *I, he, my, your, his, who*, prepositions: *in out, on, under, for, of* ; numerals: *one, two, three, four,* etc. conjunctions: *and, but, as, till.* etc. words denoting parts of body: *head, hand, arm, back.* etc; members of a family: *father, mother, brother, son;* natural phenomena and planets: *snow, rain, wind, sun* ; animals: *horse, cow, sheep, cat*; common actions: *do, make, go, come, hear, see, eat, speak, talk,* etc. All these words are frequent words, we use them every day in our speech. Many words of native origin possess large clusters of derived and compound words in the present-day language. For example: help-helper, helpful, helpfully, helpfulness, helping, helpingly, helpable, helpably, helped, unhelpable,etc. Such affixes as : -er, -ness, -ish,- ed, -un, -mis, -dom, -hood, -ly, -over,-out, under are of native origin.

We see that the role of native words in the language is great. Many authors use native words more than foreign ones. Thus W. Shakespear used 90% native words and 10 % foreign words. J. Swift used 75 % native words. Borrowed words have been called " the milestones of philology"-said O. Jesperson – because they permit us to fix approximatively the dates of linguistic changes. They show us the course of civilization and give us information of the nation". More than two thirds of the English vocabulary are borrowings. Mostly they are words of Romantic origin (Latin, French, Italian, Spanish). Borrowed words are different from native ones by their

20.2. Borrowed words and their properties. Kinds of borrowed words.

English history is very rich in different types of contacts with other countries, that is why it is very rich in borrowings. The Roman invasion, the adoption of Christianity, Scandinavian and Norman conquests of the British Isles, the development of British colonialism and trade and cultural relations served to increase immensely the English vocabulary.

"…in 1066 came the Norman conquest, an event which had more influence on the English language than any other from outside. There is an important difference between the influence now to be examined and the earlier foreign influences. The native language was not completely driven out, leaving little impression on the language of the conquerors, as had happened when the Angles and Saxons

conquered the Britons, nor modified by a related language, as in the case of the Scandinavian invasion, but instead a second language was established in the country in use side by side with the native language.

..The influence which French exerted on the language is seen in all aspects of life, social, political, and religions, and hardly any walk of live was unaffected by it." (*J.A.Sheard*)

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

The absence of equivalent words in the language to express new subjects or a phenomena makes people to borrow words. Ex. The words football, volleyball, michman in Russian; to economize the linguistic means, i.e. to use a foreign word instead of a long native expressions and others are called *linguistic causes*. The closer the two interacting languages are in structure the easier it is for words of one language to penetrate into the other. The fact that Scandinavian borrowings have penetrate into such grammatical classes as prepositions and pronouns (they, them, their, both, same, till) can only be attributed to a similarity in the structure of two languages.

English continues to take in foreign words, but now the quantity of borrowings is not so abundant as it was before. English now has become a "giving" language, it has become Lingva franca of the twentieth century. Borrowings enter the language in two ways: through oral speech (by immediate contact between the people) and through written speech (by indirect contact through books). Words borrowed orally (inch, mill, street, map) are usually short and they undergo more changes in the act of adopter. Written borrowings (communique, belles-lettres, naivete, psychology, pagoda) are often rather long and they are unknown to many people speaking English.

There are different kinds of borrowed words. According to the nature of the borrowing borrowed words may be: 1) borrowings proper; 2) translation loans; 3) semantic loans.

Borrowings proper are words which are taken from another language with their sound , graphic forms and their meaning. For example: street, wine (from Latin), anger, scare (from Scandinavian), garage , café, commence, moustouch (from French).

Translation loans are words or expressions formed from the elements existing in the English language according to the patterns of the source language. For example: collective farm, five-year- plan, house-of rest, peaceful coexistence.

A semantic loan is the borrowing of meaning for a word already existing in the English language. For example, the compound word "shock brigade" which existed in the English language with the meaning "аварийная бригада" received a new meaning « ударная бригада» under the influence of the Russian word. The English word *pioneer* meant *explorer* and "one who is among the first in new field of activity" . A word borrowed from another language never brings into the adopting language the whole of its semantic structure (meaning). It is borrowed in one of its meanings. For example the Russian word sputnik was borrowed by the English language only in the meaning of artificial sattelite.

"Whenever the need filling motive plays a part, the borrower is being confronted with some new object or practice for which he needs words. Under these conditions… three rather distinct things may happen, giving rise respectively to "loanwords", "loanshifts" and "loanblends".

"Loanwords". The borrower may adopt the donor's word along with the object or practice; the new form in borrower's speech is then a loanword. When confronted with a new object or practice fro which words are needed, the borrower may somehow adapt material in his own language. A new idiom arises and since it arises under the impact of another linguistic system, it is *a loanshift*. …Loanshifts involve lexical and semantic change and in some cases may lead to minor grammatical change.

"Loanblends". A loanblend is a new idiom developed in the borrowing situation in which both the loanword and the loanshift mechanisms are involved: the borrower imports part of the model and replaces part of it by something already in his own language". (*Ch.F.Hockett*).

"The type of word borrowed by personal contact would undoubtedly at first be names of objects unfamiliar to the borrowers, or products and commodities exchanged by way of trade. If the contacts were maintained over a long period then ideas concerned with government, law, religion and customs lie might

be absorbed and perhaps the names of these would be adopted. Only in the case of nations in relatively advanced, stages of civilization would there be much influence exerted through the written word; concrete objects would come first, then abstract ideas learnt from what might actually be seen from their effects in everyday life and abstract ideas through the indirect contact achieved by books would come much later". (*J.A.Sheard*).

20.3. The classification of borrowed words. Some scientists classify borrowings into: 1) phonetic borrowings; 1) translation loans; 3) semantic loans; 4) morphemic borrowings. *Phonetic borrowings* are most characteristic in all languages, they are called loan words proper. Then they undergo assimilation, each sound in the borrowed word is substituted by the corresponding sound of the borrowing language. In some cases the spelling is changed, the structure of the word can also be changed. Such words as: *labour, travel, table, chair, people* are phonetic borrowings from French; *apparatchik, nomenklatura, sputnik* are phonetic borrowings from Russian; *bank, soprano, duet* are borrowings from Italian.

Translation loans are word-for-word (or morpheme-for-morpheme) translations of some foreign words or expressions. In such cases the notion is borrowed from a foreign language but it is expressed by native lexical units: *to take the bull by the horns* (Latin), *living space* (German), *Sunday (solis dies)* from Latin, *pipe of peace, pale-faced* from Indian, *masterpiece, homesickness, superman* from German.

Semantic borrowings are such units when a new meaning of the unit existing in the language is borrowed. It can happen when we have two relative languages which have common words with different meanings. For example, there are semantic borrowings between Scandinavian and English, such as the meaning *to live* for the word *to dwell* which in Old English had the meaning *to wander*.

Morphemic borrowings are borrowings of affixes which occur in the language when many words with identical affixes are borrowed from one language into another. For example we can find a lot of Romantic affixes in the English word-building system, that is why there are a lot of words- hybrids in English where different morphemes have different origin, f.e: *goddess, beautiful*.

Non-assimilated borrowings (barbarisms) are borrowings which are used by Englishmen rather seldom and are non-assimilated. For example: *addio* (Italian), *tete-a-tete* (French), *dolce vita* (Italian), *duende* (Spanish), *an homme a femme* (French), *gonzo* (Italian).

Answer the questions
8. What groups of words does the English vocabulary consist of?
9. What words are called borrowed words?
10. What are the extra-linguistic (linguistic) causes of borrowings?
11. What groups do we classify borrowings into?What are borrowings proper?
12. What are translation loans? What are the semantic loans?
13. What is the assimilation of a borrowed word?
14. What types of assimilation of borrowed words are distinguished?
15. What are etymological doublets?
16. What is the source (origin) of borrowings?
What is the influence of borrowings on the vocabulary of the English language?

Recommended Literature
1. Antrushina G.B., Afanasyeva O.V., Morozova N.N. English Lexicology. Moscow,1985.
2. Buranov J., Muminov O. A practical course in English Lexicology. Tashkent,1990.
3. Ginzburg R.S. et.al. A course in Modern English Lexicology. Moscow, 1979.
4. Mednikova E.M. Seminars in English Lexicology. Moscow, 1978.
5. Muminov O.Lexicology of the English language. Tashkent, 2006.

- **LECTURE 21.**
- **ASSIMILATION OF BORROWED WORDS IN ENGLISH. THE SOURCE AND THE RESULT OF BORROWINGS.**
- **The plan**

1. Assimilation of borrowed words in English.
2. Etymological doublets.
3. The source and the result of borrowings. The influence of borrowings on the morphological and phonetic structure and on the vocabulary of the English language.
Problems: to define the native and borrowed words; to characterize the native words and borrowings and their properties; to give the classification of borrowed words in English; to discuss the causes and ways of

borrowings, assimilation of borrowings in English; to speak about the source and the result of borrowings, the influence of borrowings on the morphological and phonetic structure and on the vocabulary of the English language.

Glossary: origin of words, the native words, the borrowed words, word-stock, high frequency, foreign words, loan words, the absence of equivalent words, to penetrate, immediate contact, oral speech, borrowings, phonetic borrowings, translation loans, semantic borrowings, morphemic borrowings, assimilation, loanblends, source of borrowing, origin of borrowing.

21.1. Assimilation of borrowed words in English. When a word comes into another language it adapts the phonetic, grammatical, lexical system of that language. This process is considered as the assimilation of a borrowed word. The assimilation of borrowed words may be: 1) grammatical; 2) phonetic:; 3) lexical. In phonetic assimilation we speak about the changes of a word in its sounds and stress. For example, modern English "change" came from French " changer" [jaunзar]. We can see the following changes of it in the English language: [j] is changed into [tj], [au] into [ei]. The stress in French words falls on the final syllable where as in English on the initial. For example: his'toir (F) – 'history (E).

If a borrowed word loses its former grammatical categories and inflextions and gets new grammatical categories and paradigms by analogy with other English words we say the word is undergone grammatical assimilation. Ex. sputnik, sputnik's, sputniks Sometimes the foreign inflexions are fallen off, f.e: Lat consultare (v) Eng. consult. The borrowed word very often undergoes simplification: salade (F)- salad (E). In French –ade was a suffix but in English –ad is not a suffix. A borrowed suffix is joined to a native word. This brings about the creation of hybrid words like *shortage,lovable, understandable.*When a word is taken over into another language its semantic structure as a rule undergoes great changes

Polysemantic words are usually adopted only in one or two meanings. Ex. Lat. "bilingual" had 4 meanings, but in English and in Russian it has many meanings. For example, *move* (F) has many meanings in English. Such meanings as «внести предложения», «вращаться в определённом кругу», «двигаться» are not found in French. According to the degree of assimilation the borrowings are divided into:

1.fully assimilated borrowings. They are such borrowings which are not different as borrowings. English people will surprise if they hear that the words table, chair, people take get are borrowed words.

12. partially assimilated borrowings: they have undergone very small changes, ex. garage, which, still has three pronunciations.

13. unassimilated borrowings or barbarisms. These words are used by the English people when they speak about the customs and the life of other nations: rickshaw (Chinese), sherbet (Arabian), caique (Turkish), khan (Arab), khakan (Turkish), etc..

The degree of assimilation of borrowings depends on the following factors: a) from what group of languages the word was borrowed, if the word belongs to the same group of languages to which the borrowing language belongs it is assimilated easier; b) in what way the word is borrowed: orally or in the written form, words borrowed orally are assimilated quicker; c) how often the borrowing is used in the language, the greater the frequency of its usage, the quicker it is assimilated; d) how long the word lives in the language, the longer it lives, the more assimilated it is.

Completely or fully assimilated borrowings are not felt as foreign words in the language. For example, the French word *sport* and the native word *start*. Completely assimilated verbs belong to regular verbs: correct –corrected. Completely assimilated nouns form their plural by means of s-inflexion. For example: gate-gates.

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

Partially assimilated borrowings are subdivided into the following groups: a) borrowings non-assimilated semantically, because they denote objects and notions peculiar to the country from the language of which they were borrowed: sari, sombrero, taiga, kvass,etc.; b) borrowings non-assimilated grammatically: nouns borrowed from Latin and Greek retain their plural forms (bacillus-bacilli, phenomenon- phenomena, datum-data, genius-genii,etc).; c) borrowings non-assimilated phonetically. Here belong words with the initial sounds /v/ and /z/. For example: voice, zero. In native words these voiced consonants are used only in the intervocal position as allophones of sounds /f/ and /s/ (loss-lose, life-live). Some Scadinavian borrowings have consonants and combinations of consonants which were not palatalized. For example: /sk/ in the words: sky, skate, ski. (in native words we have the palatalized

sounds denoted by the digraph *sh* : shirt); sounds /k/ and /g/ before front vowels are not palatalized: girl,get, give,kid,kill, kettle. In native words we have palatalization: German, child.

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

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

Latin	English from Latin	English from French
uncia	inch	ounce
moneta	mint	money
camera	camera	chamber

Scandinavian *skirt*, English *shirt*. There are also etymological doublets which were borrowed from the same language during different historical periods, such as French doublets: gentle- мягкий (юмшок), genteen –благородный (олийжаноб).

Sometimes etymological doublets are the result of borrowing different grammatical forms of the same word. For example, the comparative degree of Latin *super* was *superior* which was borrowed into English with the meaning "high in some quality or rank". The Superlative degree (Latin *supremus*) in English *supreme* are etymological doublets.

Classification of words according to the source of borrowing.

There is some difference between the term "source of borrowings" and "origin of borrowed words". The term " source of borrowing" should be used to the language from which this or that word was taken in English. The term "origin of the borrowed word" is used to the language the word may was born.

For example: the word "table" was borrowed from the French language. So the French language is the source of borrowing but its origin is Lati (L. *tabula*). The word "school" by origin is a Greek word (*schole*) but its source is Latin. The source of borrowing is of greater importance for us because it has the imprint of the sound and graphic form, the morphological and semantic characteristic of the language they were borrowed from.

Borrowings may be classified according to the source the language from which the words were borrowed:

1. Celtic borrowings: *bard, brat, slagan,whisky, machintosh*.
2. Latin borrowings: *street, wine, angel, monk, plant, execute, congratulate, chalk, produce,*.
3. Scandinavian borrowings: *anger, scare, take, get, skirt,skill, drop, true;* pronouns: *they, their, them.*
4. French borrowings: *judge,army, royal,machine,police,airt,place, brave,accept,,sport.*
5. Russian borrowings: *soviet, sputnik, kolkhos, cosmos, cosmonaut.*
6. Italian borrowings: *confetti, macaroni, opera, sonata, soprano.*
7. Spanish borrowings: *tomato,potato, tobacco.*

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

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

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

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

The largest group of borrowings are French borrowings. Most of them came into English during the Norman conquest. French influenced not only the vocabulary of English but also its spelling, because documents were written by French scribes as the local population was mainly illiterate, and the ruling class was French. Runic letters remaining in English after the Latin alphabet was borrowed were substituted by Latin letters and combinations of letters. For example, "v" was introduced for the voiced consonant /v/ instead of "f" in the intervocal position /lufian -love/, the digraph "ch" was introduced to denote the sound /tj/ instead of the letter "c" /chest/ before front vowels where it had been palatalized, the digraph "sh" was introduced instead of the combination "sc" to denote the sound [sh] /ship/, the digraph "th" was introduced instead of the Runic letters O and /this, thing/, the letter "y" was introduced instead of the Runic letter to denote the sound [j] /yet/, the digraph "qu" substituted the combination "cw" to denote the combination of sounds [kw] /queen/, the digraph "ou" was introduced to denote the sound [u:] /house/. The sound [u:] was later on diphthongized and is pronounced [au] in native words and fully assimilated borrowings. As it was difficult for French scribes to copy English texts they substituted the letter "u" before "v", "m","n" and the digraph "th" by the letter "o" to escape the combination of many vertical lines /sunu-son, luvu -love/.

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

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

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

Cultural and trade relations between Italy and England brought many Italian words into English. The earliest Italian borrowings came into English in the XIY-th century, it was the word *bank* from the Italian *banko- bench*. Italian money-lenders and money-changers sat in the streets on benches. When they suffered losses they turned over their benches, it was called "banko rotta" from which the English word *bankrupt* originated.In the XYII-th century some geological terms were borrowed: *volcano, granite, bronze, lava*. At the same time some political terms were borrowed: *manifesto, bulletin*. But mostly Italian is famous by its influence in music and in all Indo-European languages musical terms were borrowed from Italian: *alto, baritone, basso, tenor, falsetto, solo, duet, trio, quartet, quintet, opera, operette, libretto, piano, violin*.

Spanish borrowings came into English mainly through its American variant. There are the following semantic groups of them:
   a) trade terms : *cargo, embargo*;
   b) names of dances and musical instruments: *tango, rumba, habanera, guitar*;
   c) names of vegetables and fruit: *tomato, potato,tobacco, cocoa, banana, ananas, apricot*.

English belongs to the Germanic group of languages and there are borrowings from Scandinavian, German and Holland languages, though their number is much less than borrowings from Romanic languages. By the end of the Old English period English underwent a strong influence of Scandinavian due to the Scandinavian conquest of the British Isles. Scandinavians belonged to the same group of

peoples as Englishmen and their languages had much in common. As the result of this conquest there are about 700 borrowings from Scandinavian into English. Scandinavian and Englishmen had the same way of life, their cultural level was the same, they had much in common in their literature therefore there were many words in these languages which were almost identical. For example:

ON	OE	Modern E
syster	sweoster	sister
fiscr	fisc	fish
felagi	felawe	fellow

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

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

Scandinavian influenced the development of phrasal verbs which did not exist in Old English, at the same time some prefixed verbs came out of usage. For example: ofniman, beniman. Phrasal verbs are now highly productive in English: take off, give in, look up, give up, look into, put on, etc.

There are some 800 words borrowed from German into English. Some of them have classical roots. For example, in some geological terms, such as: *cobalt, bismuth, zink, quarts, gneiss, wolfram.* There were also words denoting objects used in everyday life which were borrowed from German: *iceberg, lobby, rucksack, kindergarten*, etc.

In the period of the Second World War the following words were borrowed: *Volkssturm, Luftwaffe, SS-man, Bundeswehr, gestapo, gas chamber* and many others. After the Second World war the following words were borrowed: *Berufsverbot, Volkswagen*, etc. Modern German borrowings also have some peculiarities in their spelling: common nouns are spelled with a capital letter: Autobahn, Lebensraum; some vowels and digraphs retain their German pronunciation. For example "a" is pronounced as [a:] – Dictat, "u" is pronounced as [u:] –Kuchen, "au" is pronounced as [au] – Hausfrau, "ei" is pronounced as [ai] – Reich; some consonants are also pronounced in the German way. For example: "s" before a vowel is pronounced as [z] – Sitskrieg, "v" is pronounced as [f] – Volkswagen, "w" is pronounced as [v] , "ch" is pronounced as [h] Kuchen.

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

Besides two main groups of borrowings (Romantic and Germanic) there are also borrowings from a lot of other languages, for example Russian borrowings, from the language which belongs to Slavonic languages. There were constant contacts between England and Russia and they borrowed words from one language into the other. Among early Russian borrowings there are mainly words connected with trade relations, such as: rouble, copeck, pood, sterlet, vodka, sable, and also words relating to nature, such:

The influence of borrowings on the vocabulary of the English language. A great number of borrowings left some imprint upon the language. We can find the influence of borrowings in the vocabulary of the English language. It changed its synonymic groups because as a result of borrowings there appeared a number of synonymic groups in English. For example: feed (native) –nourish (borrowed), meet (native) –encounter (borrowed). We can see the differentiation in meaning between native and borrowed synonymous words. For example the native word "stool" was used for all kinds of furniture where we can sit. But under the influence of the French word "chair" its meaning is narrowed now. It is used for only one kind of furniture (табуретка - stool). As a result of borrowing some words of native origin are not used in the literary national language they have become dialected.

The influence of borrowings on the morphological and phonetic structure of the English language. A great number of borrowings influenced on the morphological structure of English. We can find a number of new affixes in English: re-, inter-, able-, ee-, sm-, co-, de-, trans-, -al, -cy, -ic, -ical. Ne English suffix –nik came from Russian in the word *sputnik*, now it is very productive suffix in English. For example: beatnik – человек, отрицающий существующие социальные ценности, последователь, сторонник каких-либо идей, направлений, образа жизни, любитель чего-либо; folknik – пропагандист народных песен, filmnik – любитель кино, protestnik – протестующий против чего-либо, peacenik - борец за мир, citynik - городской житель.

The English language has adopted from other languages such pronouns as *them , their, she, such, same* and the numeral "second". The influence of borrowings can be seen on the phonetic structure of words in English too. There appeared a number of words of new phonetic structure. Ex. Words with the

initial **ps**ychology, **pn**eumatic. In middle English as a result of a number of French borrowings we can see the appearance of the new diphthongs in English: point, joint, poison. The initial [sk] also appeared as a result of the influence of Scandinavian borrowings: skin, skip, the sound [dz] began to be used at the beginning of the word, for example: jungle, journey. A high percentage of polysyllabic words can be found in English as a result of borrowings, for example: company, condition, government, important. There are many words, one a native word, the other a Romance loan, originally of either identical or similar meaning with some distinction made today, such as freedom and liberty, happiness and felicity, help and aid, hide and conceal, love and charity, meal and re-past, wedding and marriage, wish and desire and we should find that the native word has a more emotional sense, is homely and unassuming, whereas the loan word is colder, aloof, more dignified, more formal.

Answer the questions

17. What groups of words does the English vocabulary consist of?
18. What words are called borrowed words?
19. What are the extra-linguistic (linguistic) causes of borrowings?
20. What groups do we classify borrowings into?What are borrowings proper?
21. What are translation loans? What are the semantic loans?
22. What is the assimilation of a borrowed word?
23. What types of assimilation of borrowed words are distinguished?
24. What are etymological doublets?
25. What is the source (origin) of borrowings?
What is the influence of borrowings on the vocabulary of the English language?

Recommended Literature

1. Antrushina G.B., Afanasyeva O.V., Morozova N.N. English Lexicology. Moscow,1985.
2. Buranov J., Muminov O. A practical course in English Lexicology. Tashkent,1990.
3. Ginzburg R.S. et.al. A course in Modern English Lexicology. Moscow, 1979.
4. Mednikova E.M. Seminars in English Lexicology. Moscow, 1978.
5. Muminov O.Lexicology of the English language. Tashkent, 2006.

LECTURE 22.
ENGLISH LEXICOGRAPHY.
The plan

1. Dictionary compiling and its origin. English dictionaries and their development.
2. Types of dictionaries. The selection of lexical units in dictionaries.
3. Entry of a dictionary.

Problems: to study dictionary compiling and its origin; to describe English dictionaries and their development, types of dictionaries, the selection of lexical units in dictionaries; to describe the entry and structure of English dictionaries.
Glossary: lexicography, dictionary-compiling, encyclopedic general (special) dictionaries, the selection of words, arrangement of meanings, entry of a dictionary, frequency value, semantic activity, emotive charge, interrelation, spelling, lexicographer, reference book, translation dictionary.

22.1. Dictionary compiling and its origin. English dictionaries and their development.
Lexicography is a science of dictionary-compiling. The history of compiling dictionaries for English comes as far as the Old English period, where we can find glosses of religious books (interlinear translations from Latin into English). Regular bilingual dictionaries began to appear in the 15-th century (Anglo-Latin, Anglo-French, Anglo-German). Modern English lexicography appeared in the 15 th century. In this period English-Latin dictionaries were in existence. The first unilingual dictionary explaining difficult words appeared in 1604, the author was Robert Cawdry, a schoolmaster. He compiled his dictionary for school children. In 1721 an English scientist and writer Nathan Bailey published the first etymological dictionary which explained the origin of English words. It was the first scientific dictionary, it was compiled for philologists. The first explanatory dictionary of the English language was published in 1755 by the English scientist Samuel Johnson, in which he gave the origin of words and examples from the works of the best writers. Every word in his dictionary was illustrated by examples from English literature, the meanings of words were clear from the contexts in which they were used. The dictionary

was a great success and it influenced the development of lexicography in all countries. The dictionary influenced normalization of the English vocabulary. But at the same time it helped to preserve the English spelling in its conservative form.

In 1858 one of the members of the English philological society Dr.Trench raised the question of compiling a dictionary including all the words existing in the language. The philological society adopted the decision to compile the dictionary and the work started. More that a thousand people took part in collecting examples, and 26 years later in 1884 the first volume was published. It contained words beginning with "A" and " B". The last volume was published in 1928 that is 70 years after the decision to compile it was adopted. The dictionary was called NED and contained 12 volumes[1].

In 1933 the dictionary was republished under the title " The Oxford English Dictionary", because the work on the dictionary was conducted in Oxford. This dictionary contained 13 volumes. As the dictionary was very large and terribly expensive, scientists continued their work and compiled shorter editions of the dictionary: " A Shorter Oxford Dictionary" consisting of two volumes. They also compiled " A Concise Oxford Dictionary" consisting of one volume and including only modetn words and no examples from literature.

Another major milestone is the New 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 American lexicography began to develop much later, at the end of the 18-th century. The first important dictionary in American lexicography is Webster's American Dictionary of the English language. It was compiled by Noah Webster. He was an active statesman and public man and he published his first dictionary in 1806. He went on with his work on the dictionary and in 1828 he published a two-volume dictionary. He tried to simplify the English spelling and transcription. He introduced the alphabetical system of transcription where he used letters and combinations of letters instead of transcription signs. He denoted vowels in closed syllables by the corresponding vowels. He denoted vowels in the open syllable by the same letters, but with a dash above them[2]. For example, /a/, / e/, /i,/, /o/, /u/. He denoted vowels in the position before /r/ as the same letters with two dots above them.

Thus lexicography is a science of dictionary-compiling[3]. Modern English lexicography appeared in the 15-th century. In this period English-Latin dictionaries were in existence. New English dictionary or Oxford English Dictionary 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.

Types of dictionaries. There are encyclopaedic and linguistic dictionaries. An Encyclopaedic dictionary gives the information of extra linguistic word. 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. The best known explanatory dictionaries are: "The Shorter Oxford Dictionary" in two volumes, based on the NED, the COD (one volume), Chamber's 20-th century Dictionary (one volume), WNID, New Comprehensive Standard Dictionary, The New Random House Dictionary, Webster's Collegiate Dictionary.

Most of these dictionaries present the spelling, usage, pronunciation and meaning of words, grammatical information, origin of words, derivatives, phraseology, etymology, synonyms and antonyms.

Translation dictionaries or parallel are word-books containing vocabulary items in one language and their equivalents in another language. The translation dictionaries are based on the comparative study of the languages. For example: Russian-English Dictionary under the edition of prof. A.I.Smirnitsky, the English-Russian Dictionary by Muller, New English-Russian Dictionary by I.R.Galperin, the pocket English-Russian dictionary by Bernjuk, Chernjuk, English-Uzbek dictionary by J.Buranov and K.Rahmanberdiev. Among the general dictionaries we find Learner's Dictionary which is compiled for foreign language learners at different stages of advancement. 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 dictionaried 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. (For example, synonyms, collocability, frequency, etymology, pronunciation, phraseological units). The best known dictionary of synonyms   is Dictionary of English Synonyms Expressions by Soule and Webster's Dictionary of synonyms.

The best and most comprehensive collection of English phraseology is A.V.Koonin's English phraseological Dictionary[4]. There are the other dictionaries: The Oxford Dictionary of English Proverbs, Collin's Book of English Idioms.

There are other types of specialized dictionaries. Dictionaries of collocation A Reum's Dictionary of English Style, Dictionaries of word Frequency. The teacher's book of 30.000 words by E.S. Thorndike and Lorge, Michael West. A General Service List of English words. Etymological dictionaries: W.Skeat's Etymological Dictionary of the English language, pronouncing dictionaries: English Pronouncing Dictionary by D.Jones.

The most important problems the lexicography 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 occasional technical terms because they are too numerous (for example, 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.

22.2. The selection of lexical units in dictionaries. Entry of a dictionary. 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 present the meaning 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 meaning in present- day use but also those which have already become archaic or gone out of use[5]. For example, 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 Oxford English Dictionary (OED) is not a dictionary to which you turn to see whether ot not a certain word is a "good" word to use. It is a book which attempts scientifically to record the history and development of every printed word in the language from the time of King Alfred to the current date of publication. The OED does not try to set a standard for English, it tells you as completely as possible what the language is and where it has been. In all the OED contains 414.000 definitions, which are in turn illustrated by almost two million quotations. The total number of words in all the volumes is estimated at fifty million.

Thus, the OED records 414 825 words, of which 240.165 are main words, 67.105 subordinate words, 47.800 special combinations and 59.755 obvious combinations. There are about 500.000 definitions and more than 1.800.000 illustrative quotations, there are 16.570 pages in its 13 volumes. (L.I.Stupin)

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* – a two wingled insect and a fly - a flap of cloth covering buttons on the garment are treated as two different words and in others (in the Concise Oxford Dictionary and the Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English) – as different meanings of one and the same word.

Answer the questions

1. What does Lexicography study?
2. When was the first English dictionary published?
3. What types of dictionaries do you know?
4. What do the general (translation, explanatory) dictionaries contain?
5. What information do the specialized (encyclopoedic) dictionaries give us?
6. What is the selection of words in compiling dictionaries?

7. What does the entry of a word in the dictionary contain?
8. What is the structure of dictionaries?
9. What are the main problems in compiling dictionary?

Recommended Literature

1. Arnold I.V. The English Word Moscow, 1986.
2. Antrushina G.B., Afanasyeva O.V., Morozova N.N. English Lexicology. Moscow,1985.
3. Buranov J., Muminov O. A practical course in English Lexicology. Tashkent,1990.
4. Ginzburg R.S. et.al. A course in Modern English Lexicology. Moscow, 1979.
5. Mednikova E.M. Seminars in English Lexicology. Moscow, 1978.
6. Muminov O.Lexicology of the English language. Tashkent, 2006.
7. Sheard J.A. The words we use. Andre Deautsh. L, 1962.

LECTURE 23
THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE OF THE USA.
The plan

1. The expansion of the English language.
2. Opinions to the nature of the English language spoken in Great Britain and in the USA.
3. The difference between British and American English.

Problems: to characterize the English language spoken not only on the British Isles but in other countries as well; to get acquainted with the opinions of the famous linguists to the nature of the English language spoken in Great Britain and in the USA; to show the difference between two variants of the English language: British and American.

Glossary: expansion, national language, dialect, variant of the language, literary norm, difference, systematic, vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar, peculiarities, common features, borrowings, frequent.

23.1. The expansion of the English language.

The English language is spoken not only on the British isles but it is national language of the USA, Australia, New Zealand and some parts of Canada. As a result of the expansion of British colonialism the English language was also at different times a state language of English and American colonies in Asia and in Africa. Ex. In India, in Pakistan, in Burma etc. After World War II as a result of the national liberation movement throughout Asia and Africa many of these colonies have got their independence and English has been replaced by the national language as a state language, ex. In India Hindi, in Pakistan Urdu etc.

In this book we attempted to describe mainly the vocabulary of the American variant of the English language.

23.2. Opinions to the nature of the English language spoken in Great Britain and in the USA.
The difference between the English language in America and in England has been the subject of discussion of many linguists. Some linguists think that these two variants of English are different languages. For example, an American linguist H.S. Mencken[8] says that they are two different separate languages. (H.S.Mencken. The American language New- York, 1957). Other linguists consider the language of the USA as a dialect of English. A general description of the language in America is given in prof. A.D. Shweitzer's book « Литературный английский язык в США и Англии». He says that the difference between the American and British literary norms is not system, phonetic system and vocabulary. They can't be regarded as different languages. He says that the American language can't be considered as a dialect because the two differ far less than the local dialects of Dewsbury and Howden – two English towns in Yorkshire He thinks that the American language is the variant of the English national language spoken in the USA.

The American variant of the English language differs from British English in pronunciation, grammar and in vocabulary. In phonetics, for example: *class, ask, after, path, dance* etc. are pronounced not by [a:] but by [ae]. In spelling : cosy –cozy, colour –color, practice- practice, through – thru, offence- offense, traveling – traveling. In grammar, for example, *will* is used for all persons in forming Future Indefinite. In oral speech the auxiliary verb is omitted. For example, instead of *I have done* they say *I done*, *I have seen – I seen*, in usage of prepositions: I live *in* the street – I live *on* the streets. The letter "r" is pronounced at the end: *car* –[ca:r]. We shall not discuss the phonetic and grammatical peculiarities of the American variant of English thoroughly because they are the aim of other subjects – Grammar and Phonetics.

23.3. The difference between British and American English.

We shall discuss the lexical difference between the British and American variants of English. English words may be divided into three groups: 1) those which are both in England and in the USA or we call them " General English". For example: country , nation, language, person, give; 2) those which are used only in America, "Americanisms", for example: drugstore- аптека, mailbox- почта, subway-метро, sidewalk- тротуар, truck- грузовик, supermarket- большой магазин; 3) those which are used only in Britain: fortnight, flat, underground, lorry, pavement, government. In some cases two words can be used in both variants of English but one of them is more frequent in England, the other is in the USA. For example, autumn is more frequent in England but fall in the USA, time-table (British) –schedule (American), post (British) – mail (American, notice (British) – bulletin (American).

Here are examples of American and and British English:

British English	American English
autumn	fall
notice board	bulletin board
fish monger	fish dealer
grocer's shop	grocery
tin opener	can opener
government	administration
chemist's	drugstore
luggage	baggage
interval	intermission
newsboy	newsie
match	game
leader	editorial
bill	check
post	mail
time-table	schedule
flat	apartment
underground	subway

Many words have wider meaning in the USA. For example, the verb "to fix" is a slatternly verb of all words in American speech. It can mean " repair, get ready, arrange, matter with, cook, comb" etc. The verb "to raise" in American English can be used in England in the relation of trees, animals and children, but in England in these cases three different verbs are used. In England: one grows farm or garden, products; breeds animals and rears children. In America: one raises them. The word shop in America has the meaning of мастерская but in the meaning магазин the word store is used. So shoe shop in America is мастерская для починки обуви, a shoe shop in England is обувной магазин; first floor and second floor in America are: первый этаж, второй этаж but in England first floor - второй этаж and первый этаж is the ground floor ; dessert in England -десерт после ужина (яблоко, орехи, виноград) in America it means only sweets (сладкое- конфеты, пирожное,торт).

One of the characteristic features of American English is the formation of shortened words. For example, D.P. (displaced person), FEAF (Far East Air Forces), Cincpoa (Commander in Chief of Pacific Ocean Area). The differences of American and british English are based on the historical causes.

The American Continent was discovered only in the 15 th century. The first colonies came there in 1607 (at the beginning of the 17 th century). For more than three centuries the American vocabulary developed independently and was influenced by the new surroundings. Many words were borrowed from Indian people's languages who live in America. These words are usually the words which express geographical names, names of trees, animals, birds, fish: hickory гикори – орех, persimmon-финиковая слива, muskrat-ондатра , mose –амер. лось , squaw- индианка, mash – кукурузная каша, ohio – прекрасная река, Oklahoma - местность; from German : smearcase –сорт сыра , bear garden – back country; from French: prairie - луг . As to word-building in the two variants, it is the same. The difference lies only in the more extensive use of some of them in American variant. For example, affixes –ette, -ee, super (draftee, kitchenette, supermarket) and conversion (walk out- to walk out, major – to major) are more frequent in American English.

Thus, the differences between British and American English are not much and they do not make a system.

Answer the questions
1. In what countries is the English language spoken?

2. As a result of what event has the English language become the state language of different countries in Asia and in Africa?
3. What are the different opinions to the English language in the USA?
4. What are the phonetic differences between English in Great Britain and in the USA?
5. What are the grammatical differences between English in Great Britain and in the USA?
6. What are the lexical differences between English in Great Britain and in the USA?
7. What are the semantic differences of English in Great Britain and in the USA?
8. What are the main causes of lexical distinctions of the two variants of English?

Recommended Literature

1. Arnold I.V. The English Word Moscow, 1986.
2. Antrushina G.B., Afanasyeva O.V., Morozova N.N. English Lexicology. Moscow,1985.
3. Buranov J., Muminov O. A practical course in English Lexicology. Tashkent,1990.
4. Ginzburg R.S. et.al. A course in Modern English Lexicology. Moscow, 1979.
5. Kennedy A. Current English. Boston, USA, 1935.
6. Muminov O.Lexicology of the English language. Tashkent, 2006.
7. Sheard J.A. The words we use. Andre Deautsh. L, 1962.
10. Швейцер А.Д. Литературный английский язык в США и Англии. Москва. Высшая школа,1971.

LECTURE 24.
METHODS USED IN LEXICOLOGICAL RESEARCH.
The plan
1. Methods used in lexicological research. Componential and cognitive analysis of words.
2. Method of semantic differential. Distributional analysis.
3. Transformational analysis of words. The method of IC analysis. Contrastive and statistical analysis.

Problems: to characterize methods used in lexicological research: componential and cognitive analysis, contrastive analysis, statistical methods, immediate constituents analysis, method of semantic differential, distributional analysis, transformational analysis.

Glossary: lexicological research, method of componential analysis, cognitive analysis of words, distributional analysis, transformational analysis, the method of Immediate Constituents' analysis, method of contrastive analysis, statistical analysis.

24.1. Methods used in lexicological research. Componential and cognitive analysis of words.

In Modern English different methods are used in lexicological research: contrastive analysis, statistical methods of analysis, immediate constituents analysis, distributional analysis, transformational analysis , componential and cognitive analysis of words.

The term "componential analysis " was first used by W. Goodenough[5] and F. Lounsbury[6] W.Goodenough. Componential Analysis and the study of meaning, Language, 1956. F.Lounsbury. A Semantic Analysis of the Pawnee Kinship Usage, Language, 1956.

Words have meanings and the smallest units of meaning are called sememes or components of meaning. The word "woman" has the following components of meaning *human ,female and adult.*

	human		human
girl	female	**woman**	female
	young		adult

Here the component " young" distinguishes the word " girl" from "woman".

Componential analysis deals with individual meanings. Different meanings of polysemantic words have different componential structure.

Each part of speech has a distinguishing semantic feature. Nouns have the component "substantially" or "thingness" adjectives have "quality" and so on.

The semantic features of words may be classified into markers and distinguishers. *Semantic markers* are semantic features which can be found also in the lexical meaning of other words. *Distinguishers* are semantic features which are individual, which are not present in the lexical meaning of other words. For example:

	countable noun
	human
spinster	adult
	female

who has never married

"Countable noun" is a marker, because it represents a subclass within nouns and it is a semantic feature which the word " spinster" has in common with all other countable nouns (boy, table, flower, ides), human is a marker because it refers the word " spinster" to nouns denoting human beings, "adult" is a marker because it is a subdivision of human being into adult and young," female" is a marker too because it shows a subclass of adult females as woman, widow, mother etc." Who has never married"—is a distinguisher because it differentiates the meaning of the word from other words which have all other common semantic features.

Componential analysis is also used in the investigation of the semantic structure of synonyms. There is a certain component of meaning which differs one member from any other member of the same synonymic set. The adjective "thick" has no the component " human" 'stout' does not contain the semantic component "object" and the adjective "buxom" possesses the semantic component "female" which is not to be found in either the English adjectives "thick" or "stout"

The analysis into the components " animate", "object", "human" , "male" , "female" the difference in the meaning of synonyms. The analysis helps us to find the correspondence between the semantic structure of correlated words or correlated meanings of words in different languages. The words "thick" ," stout" and the word "human" are not semantically identical because the Russian word is used to describe both humans and objects. The components of the lexical or the grammatical meanings may be singled out by the co-occurrence analysis.

Unfortunately the dictionaries do not always point out such semantic components of words as animate-inanimate, human-non-human, young-old, etc. We know these components in their collocability with certain types of nouns.

The semantic components of the verb "to smoke" such as "age", " human" can be found when it is combined with certain nouns denoting these components. The "female" or "male" component of the meaning of the noun "baby" can be observed through the co-occurrence of it with the possessive pronouns "his" or "her". Fore example: The baby drank his milk. The baby drank her milk.

The componential analysis is widely used in modern linguistics.

The words in different languages have their own semantic components.To study the hidden components of words is very important for language teaching

Cognitive analysis of words. The essence of the cognitive linguistics is the imagination about the language as cognitive mechanism, giving the information on the world, and it is many-sidedly connected with the working up this information, it has directly relation to the construction, organization and improvement of the information and ways of its representation. It provides communicative process which presents a definite layers of knowledge[10]. (Д. Ашурова. Стилистика текста в парадигме когнитивной лингвистики. Филология масалалари. Ташкент. 2003). It is necessary to point out a number of basic principles on which cognitive investigation is based on: 1) language is considered as a mental phenomena, as specific cognitive ability; 2) the position about creative, linguistic activity; 3) the problem of correlation between linguistics and mental structures, the process of characterization and conceptionizing of the world and their reflection in the languages are the crucial problems of cognitive linguistics. Cognitive linguistics tries to work at primarily the conceptual information acquired in the experience of the world. Conceptual system is the system of opinions and knowledge on the world. For example, metaphors including the component " high" are associated with the concept " success", " flourishing", " power": higher-up, high-flyer, high-handed, high-minded, high-stepper, high-tide. The metaphors with the component " down" is symbolized with " unsuccess", bad mood, failure: down-and-out, down-cost,downcome, downfallen, down-hearted, downhill. The meaning of the word " black" corresponds to the life situations in human's mind which gets the problem of knowledge and their representation in the language, the verbal expression and gives rise to a number of linguistic units with negative, emotional, evaluative meanings: black-ball, black-list, black-mail, black-heart, black-market, black-mark, black-cat, black-magic, black-sheep. Black cat is associated with the concept " bad luck", the reason for such association is the existence of bad sign about a black cat crossing the road in many nations.

Concepts are divided into two types: concepts with universal meaning and concepts having national-cultural significance. For example, concept " beauty" having universal properties has also national and cultural peculiarities. The result of comparative analysis of female beauty in Uzbek and English confirm that different cultures evaluate female beauty differently. In English: a) sexual attraction, sexy, enchantress, fox, babe,b) dangerous and destructive beauty (siren, fimme-fatal, gold-digger, vamp). In Uzbek the inner sinsere quality is paid attention in female beauty: modesty, ibedience, diligence (

С.А.Акбарова. Лингвостилистические средства и когнитивно-прагматическая значимость художественного портрета (на материале английских художественных текстов). Дисс. канд. филол. наук. Ташкент, 2005)

24.2. Method of semantic differential. A word has no only one meaning and even one word usually implies some additional information which differentiates one word from another. For example: to like, to love, to adore, to worship. All the words denote positive feelings, characteristic of a human being. But each of them gives additional information on the so-called strength of feeling. This is the connotation aspect which was singled out by the semantic differential- the method which was worked out by a group of American psycholinguists. Their technique requires the subjects to judge – a series of concepts with respect to a set of antonymic adjective scale. For example: a horse can be: good-bad, fast-slow, strong-weak, hard- soft, happy –sad. The meaning of the divisions is that each of the quality may be gradated representing extremely good, very good, neither good nor bad, slightly bad, extremely bad and these grades can be marked by a plus. The revealed gradations showing some portion of quality helps to single out such words which are usually referred to as neutral, expressive, archaic and new words proper-neologisms. All the methods of analysis are applied in one and the same sphere of investigation. The combination of different methods of analysis helps to classify the vocabulary as a whole and each lexical unit taken separately.

Distributional Analysis. This method is widely used in lexicological analysis . By the term "distribution" we understand   the occurrence of a lexical unit relative to another lexical units of the same levels: words to words, morpheme to morphemes. It is the position which words occupy or may occupy in the text or in the flow of speech.

The words have different lexical meanings in different distributional structures, for example, the word "ill" has different meaning in : *ill look, ill luck, ill health, fall ill, be ill; t o treat smb. kindly, to treat smb. to ice-cream..*

The place of a morpheme is relative to other morphemes ex. Singer, ersing is impossible. A different pattern of arrangement of the same morphemes changes the whole into the meaningless. If we have different distribution we have different meanings. For example: to get to London, to get angry, to get rid of.

As was said above, different distribution of components of compound words may change the meaning of the word. For example: bird-cage and cage-bird, fruit-market and market-fruit, life-boat and boat-life.

So the meaning of the word depends on its distribution. It should be pointed out that the meaning of the word is dependent on what class of words it is combined with.

Ex. If we use after the verb "move" the nouns denoting inanimate objects (move + inanimate N) it has the meaning двигать: *He moved a table*.

But when it is followed by the noun denoting animate human being (move + animate N) it has another meaning: *He moved a man -* он будил человека. The meaning of words also differt if they are combined with different lexico-semantic groups[8]. By lexico- semantic group we understand the group of words joined together by a common concept or the words which have a common semantic component. For example, verbs denoting sense perception: to think, to imagine, to write, or adjectives denoting colour: red, black, yellow. For example, blind + any N denoting a living-being, animate , it means слепой – without the power to see: *a blind man, a blind woman, a blind cat*. Blind + N denoting inanimate objects or abstract concept may have different meanings depending on the lexico- semantic group of the noun, it belongs to. So it has the meaning безрассудный (thoughtless) when it is combined with nouns denoting emotions: *blind love, blind fury*.

With nouns denoting written or typed signs it has the meaning "hard to see" : *blind handwriting, blind type*. Distributional analysis is widely used in wordformation. The analysis of the derivational pattern shows that the suffix "ish" is never combined with noun stems denoting time, space. It is impossible to say hourish, mileish. Many adjectives in – ish are formed from noun+ stem denoting living beings: *wolfish, boyish, girlish*.

So the distribution may be viewed as the place of words in relation to other words on the level of semantic classes and sub-classes. The distributional meanings by co-occurrence may be extra-linguistic components of meaning. For example:

Good doctor—who treats well.

Good mother- who takes care of her children well.

Here the meaning of the adjective " good" is different and it is the extra-linguistic factors that account for the difference in meaning. The linguistic components of distributional meaning can be found when we compare correlated words in different languages. For example, in English the verb " to seize"

may be combined with nouns denoting different kinds of emotion (I was seized with joy, grief, etc) , but in Russian we may say на меня напали сомнения; but the collocations – напала радость, надежда are impossible, so The Russian verb cannot be combined with nouns denoting pleasurable emotions.

It must be said that the different semantic peculiarities of the words may be found in the distributional analysis. The verb " to giggle" refers to a type of laughter. It means " to laugh in a nervous manner" but the analysis showed that " to giggle" is often connected with the laught of a woman (women giggle) , man may giggle drunkenly or nervously but not happily or politely. However the laughter is not connected with sex (male/female). But a thorough investigation of the meaning of the verbs " to giggle, to laugh and to smile" and co-occurrence analysis showed that the verb " to giggle" has the hidden semantic component " female". It is possible to say : The girl is giggling nervously (happily, drunkenly, politely, with obvious pleasure). The adjective " pretty" has the hidden component " age": a pretty child, a pretty girl but it is impossible to say : a pretty old woman. This component is not given in dictionaries. Different words make different patterns: to feel one's way, to feel bad, to feel tired, to feel for something. Learning the hidden components of meaning is very important for us in order to master the language.

      Transformational Analysis. Sometimes the distributional analysis alone does not show whether the meaning is the same or different. In this case we use transformational analysis. Transformational is any repatterning, remaking of a word group. For example, to tear a certain—the curtain has a tear; to cut a finger—the finger has a cut. A paraphrase of a sentence in which some words are replaced by semantic equivalent is a lexical transformation. For example: This novel is a best –seller –(this novel is) a book that has one of the biggest sales of the   season. A lexical transformation keeps the meaning unchanged[9]. Transformational analysis in lexicological investigations may be defined as repatterning (representing, reorganization) of various distributional structures in order to discover difference or sameness of meaning of practically identical distributional patterns. Word-groups of identical distributional structure when repatterned show that the semantic relations between words and the meaning may be different. For example, a pattern " possessive pronoun + noun" (his car, his failure, his arrest, his kindness). According to transformational analysis the meaning of each word-group may be represented as : he has a car, he failed, he was arrested, he is kind. In each of the cases different meaning is revealed: possession, action, passive action, quality. There are many restrictions both on syntactic and lexical levels. These are:

1. Permutation – the repatterning on condition that the basic subordinative relationships between words and word-stems of the lexical units are not changed. For example: His work is excellent may be transformed into: his excellent work, the excellence of his work, he works excellently.

2. Replacement – the substitution of a component of the distributional structure by a member of a certain strictly defined set of lexical units. F.e: He will make a bad mistake; he will make a good teacher. The sentences have identical distributional structure but only in the second one the verb " to make" can be substituted by " become" or "be".

3. Addition (or expansion) may be illustrated by the application of the procedure of addition to the classification of adjectives into two groups- adjectives denoting inherent and non-inherent qualities. F.e: John is happy. John is tall. We add a word-group "in Moscow". We shall see that " John is happy in Moscow" has the meaning while the second one is senseless.

4. Deletion – a procedure which shows whether one of the words semantically subordinated to the other. The word-group " red flowers" may be deleted and transformed into: "flowers" without making the sentence senseless: I like red flowers. I like flowers. The other word-group " red tape" can't be deleted and transformed either into: hate tape or I hate red, because in both transformed sentences the meaning of the phrase " red tape" is " bureaucracy" and it can't be divided into two parts.

      24.3. The Immediate Constituents Analysis. The Immediate Constituents. Analysis attempts to determine the ways in which the units are related to one another. This method is based on a binary principle. At each stage these two components are broken into two smaller meaningful elements. The analysis is ended when we arrive at the constituents which are not divided further. These constituents are called "the ultimate constituents"[7].

The aim of the I.C. analysis is to segment a set of lexical units into two independent constituents. The meaning of the sentence, word group and the I.C. segmentation are interdependent. For example: A fat teacher's wife may mean that either the teacher is fat or his wife is fat.

A fat teacher's / wife – means that the teacher is fat.

A fat / teacher's wife – means that his wife is fat.

A beautiful / woman doctor - means that the doctor is a beautiful woman.

A beautiful woman / doctor means that the doctor who treats woman is beautiful.

This analysis is widely used in lexicological investigations and in the study of derivational structure of words and morphemic analysis of words. For example: *denationalize* (not to give a national right) may be first segmented into: de/ nationalize because the morpheme –de can be found in a number of other words: deform, denature, denominate.

The remaining part *nationalize* can be broken into national / ize because " ness" can be found in such words as organize, humanize, recognize etc. *National* – into nation/ al as "al" occurs in a number of words: occupational, musical, critical. So we have found de/nation/al/ize – 4 ultimate constituents.

The word *friendliness* is divided into friendly/ness because ness can be found in such words as happiness, kindness, darkness, etc., *friendly* is divided into friend /ly because "friend" may occur in "friendship" , unfriendly" on the one hand "ly" can be seen in "wifely", "brotherly" on the other hand. So we have found frind-ly-ness – 3 ultimate constituents. This is the morphemic analysis according to the IC method.

Contrastive and statistical analysis. Contrastive analysis is used to reveal the features of the sameness and differences in the lexical meaning and the semantic structure of correlated words in both related and non-related languages. We must know that the objective reality exists outside human beings, every language classifies reality in its own way by means of its vocabulary units. In English the word "foot" is used to denote the extremity of the leg. Classification of the real world around us is learned with our first language because we are used to the way in which our own language structures experience but in fact it is highly arbitrary.

Anything which can be said in one language can be translated more or less into another. The correlated polysemantic words of different languages are not coextensive.

Polysemantic words may denote very different types of objects but they are correlated in one basic meaning. Englishman uses the word "head" to denote the following: head of a person, head of a match, head of a bed, head of a coin, head of an organization, head of a cane. But in Russian different words have to be used: голова, изголовье, сторона, головка, in Uzbek: бош, бошлик, усти, учи, in Karakalpak: бас, баслық, басшы, ушы. In Russian and in Uzbek one word is used for the thing that tells the time соат, часы but in English we use two words " watch" and " clock".

One Russian word *тонкий* may correspond to a number of English words: *тонкая книга* - a thin book, *тонкая ирония*- subtle irony, *тонкая талия* - slim waist. In English: *nephew, niece,* in Russian: *двоюродный брат, двоюродная сестра*, in Uzbek: *жиян* , in Uzbek: *рассом*, in Russian: *художник*, in English: *artist, painter, drawer*. The word *воспитывать* can have different equivalents in English: *to educate, to raise, to bring up*. One word in one language may correspond to two or more words in different language: cartoon, caricature. In a number of cases the English word "new" stands for *новый: новое платье (a new dress), Новый год (New year)*. But there are some cases where in Russian we can't use the word *новый; new potatoes - молодая картошка, new bread - свежий хлеб*.

One and the same Russian preposition may correspond to different prepositions in English:

до 5 часов - till 5 o'clock

до войны - before the war

до угла - to the corner

The well-known Russian linguist L.V.Sherba said that it would be a mistake if we supposes that the notional systems of any two languages are identical. Contrastive linguists attempt to find out similarities and differences in both related and non-related languages. Contrastive analysis can be carried out at three linguistic levels: phonology, grammar (morphology and syntax) and lexis. Contrastive analysis is applied to reveal the features of sameness and difference in the lexical meaning and the semantic structure of correlated words in different languages.

Statistical analysis. Statistical linguists is nowadays generally recognized as the one of the major branches of linguistics. Statistical inquiries have considerable importance because of their relevance to certain problems of communication engineering and information theory. Statistical approach proved essential in the selection of vocabulary items of a foreign language for teaching purposes. Very few people know more than 10% of the words in their mother tongue. It follows that if we do not wish to waste time on committing to memorize vocabulary items which are never likely to be useful to the learner we have to select only lexical units that are commonly used by a native speaker. Out of approximately 500 000 words listed in Oxford English Dictionary the active vocabulary of an educated Englishman comprises no more than 30 000 words and of these 4 000- 5 000 are presumed to be amplisufficient for the daily needs of an average member of the English speech community. Statistical regularities can be observed only if the phenomena under analysis are sufficiently numerous. The first requirement of any statistical investigation is the size of the sample. It is known that comparatively small group of words

makes up the bulk of any text. It was found that approximately 1300-1500 most frequent words make up 85% of all words occurring in the text.

Answer the questions

1. What methods are used in lexicological research now?
2. By whom was the term "componential" analysis first used?
3. What is the method of cognitive analysis?
4. What is the method of semantic differential?
5. What is the method of distributional analysis?
6. What is the method of transformational analysis?
7. What is the method of contrastive analysis?
8. What is the method of statistical analysis?

Recommended Literature

8. Arnold I.V. The English Word Moscow, 1986.
9. Antrushina G.B., Afanasyeva O.V., Morozova N.N. English Lexicology. Moscow,1985.
10. Buranov J., Muminov O. A practical course in English Lexicology. Tashkent,1990.
11. Ginzburg R.S. et.al. A course in Modern English Lexicology. Moscow, 1979.
12. Mednikova E.M. Seminars in English Lexicology. Moscow, 1978.
13. Muminov O.Lexicology of the English language. Tashkent, 2006.
14. Sheard J.A. The words we use. Andre Deautsh. L, 1962.

Улкен оқытыўшы: Рзаева Р